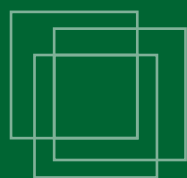




International
Labour
Organization



CHILD LABOUR AND THE YOUTH DECENT WORK DEFICIT IN JAMAICA

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JAMAICA

Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work Branch (FUNDAMENTALS)
International Labour Organization (ILO)

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Executive summary

Overcoming the twin challenges of child labour and the youth decent work deficit will be critical to Jamaica's progress towards realizing its broader social development goals. Evidence presented in this report indicates that 38,000 children are in child labour, out of which 13,000 fetch water or collect firewood. At the same time, 28 percent of young people aged 15–24 years are not in education nor in employment (NEET) and employed youth are concentrated in low-skills jobs with little prospects for advancement or for escaping poverty. Beyond their adverse short-term consequences, both child labour and youth decent work deficits can permanently impair lifetime patterns of employment and pay.

This report examines the related issues of child labour and youth employment in Jamaica. Guided by observed outcomes in terms of schooling, work activities and status in the labour market, the report considers the extent, nature, causes and consequences of child labour and youth decent work deficit in the country. The Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016 is the primary data source for the report. The report was developed under the aegis of the Child Labour Unit of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Statistical Institute of Jamaica, and is aimed at contributing to their child labour elimination efforts.

Child labour: The overall picture

Child labour in Jamaica affects 38,000 children aged 5–17 years, about 6 percent of this age group. Out of them, about 13,000 children fetch water or collect firewood, constituting an argument for accelerated efforts to reach universal water and electricity coverage. These overall estimates mask important differences by sex, age and residence. Boys are more likely to be involved in child labour than their female peers: there is a 4 percentage point difference between boys and girls for the overall 5–17 years age group. The difference in child labour involvement between rural and urban children is also significant: the rate of child labour in rural areas (8 percent) is twice that in urban areas (4 percent).

It should be underscored that these figures represent conservative estimates of child labour, because they exclude so-called “worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work.” These forms of child labour include child trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation, child slavery and the involvement of children in illicit activities. In Jamaica, as in most countries, information on children involved in the worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work is limited due to methodological difficulties.

Table 1. Child labour estimates based on national legislation, by age, sex and residence

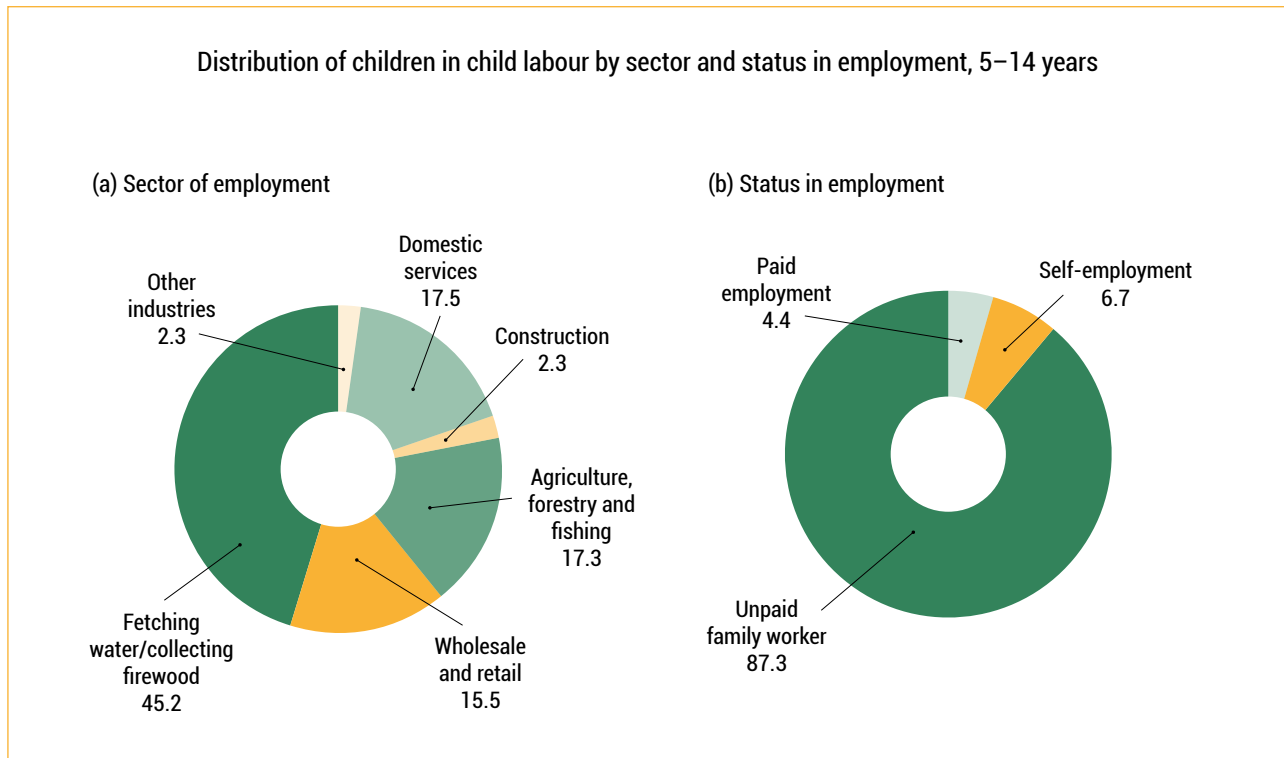
	Children in child labour (5–12 years)		Children in child labour (13–14 years)		Children in child labour (5–14 years)		Children in child labour (15–17 years) ^(a)		Total (5–17 years)	
	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Male	5.9	11,220	5.9	3,493	5.9	14,713	12.5	11,084	7.7	25,797
Female	3.9	7,182	4.5	2,499	4.1	9,681	2.9	2,487	3.8	12,168
Urban	2.7	4,961	3.4	2,090	2.9	7,051	5.9	5,152	3.7	12,203
Rural	7.1	13,441	7.4	3,902	7.2	17,343	9.6	8,419	7.8	25,762
Total child labour	4.9	18,402	5.3	5,992	5.0	24,394	7.8	13,571	5.7	37,965
Of which: fetching water/ collecting firewood	2.4	9,139	1.8	1,989	2.3	11,128	1.4	2,475	2.0	13,603
Total child labour, excluding children fetching water/collecting firewood only	2.5	9,263	3.5	4,003	2.7	13,266	6.4	11,096	3.7	24,362

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Children aged 5–14 years

Child labour in Jamaica affects an 24,000 (5 percent) children aged 5-14 years. But these overall estimates mask important differences by individual and household background characteristics. In short, child labour increases with age and is higher in rural areas than in cities and town; it is higher (and school attendance is lower) among children from poor households and among households experiencing a shock.

An econometric analysis undertaken for this report based on the Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016 also points to a number of other important individual-, household- and community correlates of child labour in the country. At the individual level, in addition to a child's age, residence and region are associated with a greater likelihood of involvement in child labour. At the household level, higher levels of household income and education are associated with lower levels of child labour. At the community level, access to basic services and proximity to schooling make it more likely that children are in school and less likely that they are in child labour.

Figure 1. Children in child labour are concentrated in the service sector

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

The vast majority of children in child labour fetch water or collect firewood (45 percent). The remaining of children in child labour are found in domestic services (17.5 percent), agriculture (17.3 percent) and commerce (15.5 percent). In terms of status in employment, children are found overwhelmingly in unpaid family work (87 percent).

Working hours, on average, are not long, especially for children fetching water and/or collecting firewood. Children aged 5–14 years in child labour log an average of 6 working hours per week, with those fetching water or collecting firewood working about 3 hours per week and those in other activities working about 8 hours per week.

Children aged 15–17 years

In accordance with Jamaica's legislation and international legal standards, the term "child labour" among children aged 15–17 years is limited to hazardous forms of employment and/or working over 40 hours per week.

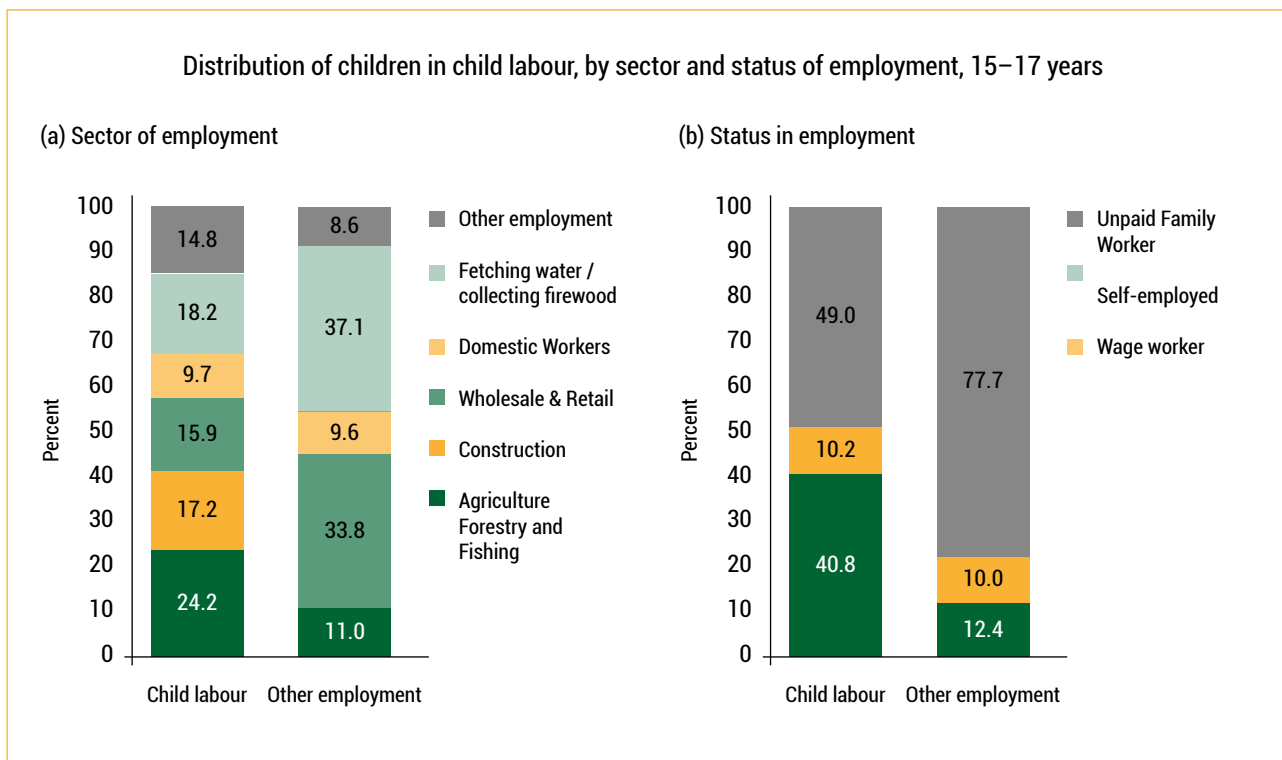
Almost 8 percent of all children aged 15–17 years, 13,500 in absolute terms, are engaged in child labour in Jamaica. They represent 59 percent of the employed children of this age group, a clear indication of the size of the "decent work deficit" facing the 15–17 year-olds.

The differences in involvement in child labour by sex and area of residence are pronounced. Child labour among children aged 15–17 years is higher for boys – 12.5 percent of boys are in child labour

compared to 3 percent of girls; the share of rural children in child labour (9.6 percent) is higher than that of urban children (5.9 percent).

About one-fourth (25 percent) of children aged 15–17 years in child labour are found in family-based agriculture, followed by fetching water/collecting firewood (18 percent), construction (17 percent) and commerce (16 percent) (Figure 2b). It is interesting to note that children aged 15–17 years in child labour are much more likely to be in wage work and much less likely to be in non-wage (family) work compared to their peers not in child labour.

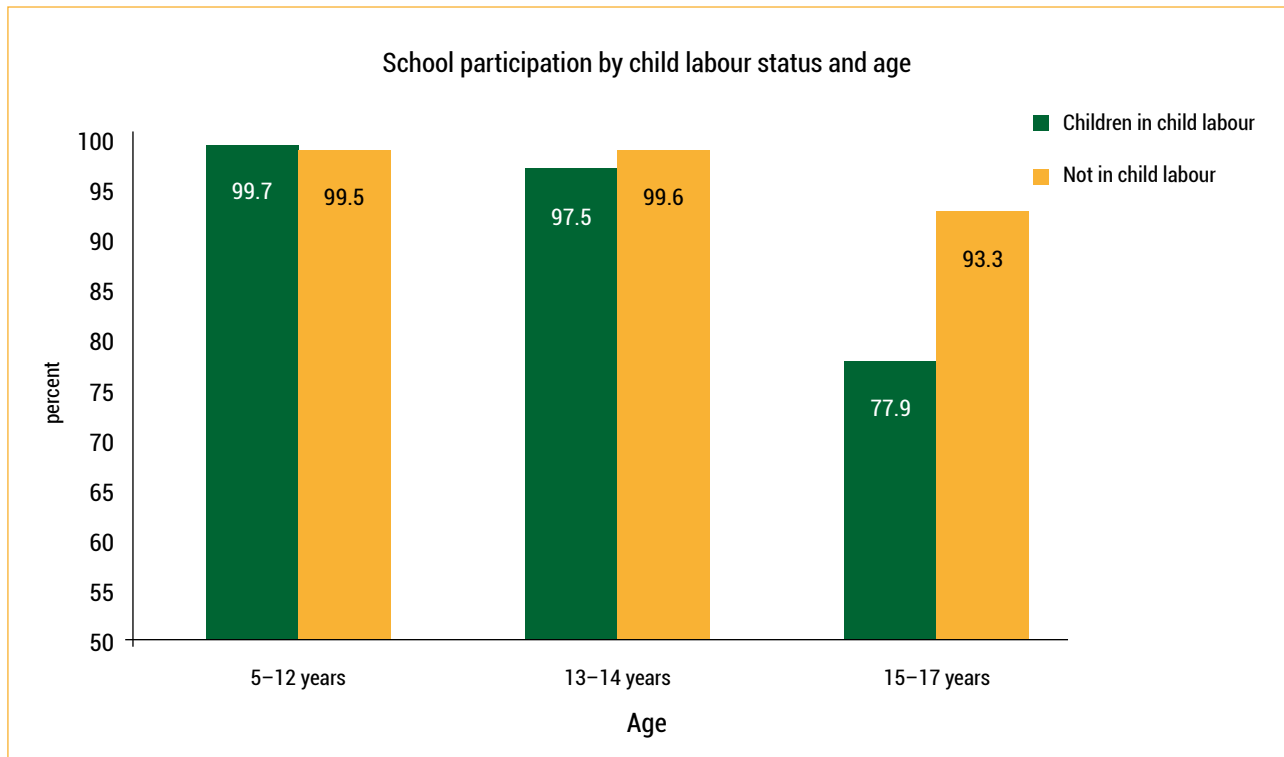
Figure 2. Child labour is concentrated in agricultural work within the family unit



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Children's employment, child labour and education

The degree to which work interferes with children's schooling is one of the most important determinants of the long-term impact of early work experience. Reduced educational opportunities constitute the main link between child labour and youth employment outcomes. If the demands of work mean that children are denied schooling or are less able to perform in the classroom, these children will not acquire the human capital necessary for decent work upon entering adulthood. School attendance is 99 percent for children aged 5-14 years, with a negligible share of children exclusively in employment. The interaction between school and work differs for adolescents in the 15-17 age group, as the age of 15 corresponds to the minimum age for admission to employment: 92 percent of adolescents are at school and 11 percent combine school and employment.

Figure 3. Children in child labour are disadvantaged in school attendance

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Adolescents in child labour disadvantaged in terms of school attendance: their school participation is almost 15 percentage points less than that of other employed children (Figure 3).

Young people aged 15–24 years

Of Jamaica's youth, 43 percent are in the labour force and 56 percent are continuing with their education. A substantial share of youth – 11.6 percent – are both inactive and out of school. Among those in the labour force, 38 percent are unemployed. 'NEET youth', who include both unemployed youth and youth not in education or the labour force, make up 28 percent of the youth population.

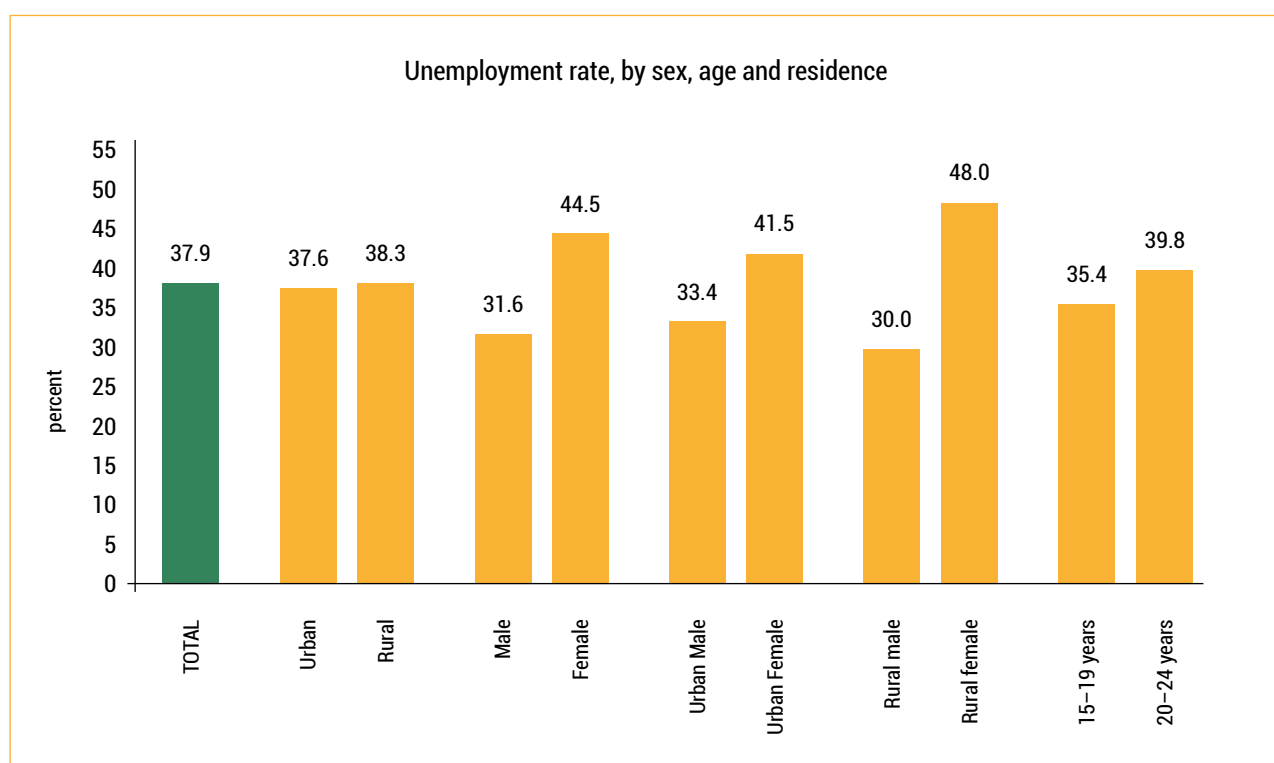
The youth labour force picture changes considerably if we restrict our focus to the narrower group of 15–19 years. As reported in Table 11, labour force participation is much lower for this age group (30 percent) while education participation is much higher (77 percent). Rates of NEET (47 percent) and unemployment (40 percent) are, in contrast, higher among young people aged 20–24 years. The headline labour force statistics for young people aged 15–24 years also mask large variations by area of residence and sex, as also reported in Table 11.

Table 2. Aggregate labour market indicators, by residence, sex and age, 15–24 years

Population category	% of population				% of active population	
	Labour force participation	Education participation	Inactive and out-of-school	NEET(a)	Employment ratio	Unemployment rate(b)
Residence	Urban	43.2	56.6	10.1	26.4	37.6
	Rural	42.5	55.7	13.0	29.3	38.3
Sex	Male	46.4	53.2	10.7	25.4	31.6
	Female	39.7	58.8	12.4	30.0	44.5
Age	15–19 years	27.9	77.0	8.0	17.9	35.4
	20–24 years	71.6	16.2	18.5	47.0	39.8
Total	42.9	56.1	11.6	27.8	26.6	37.9

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Figure 4. A substantial share of young people who want to work are unable to secure jobs



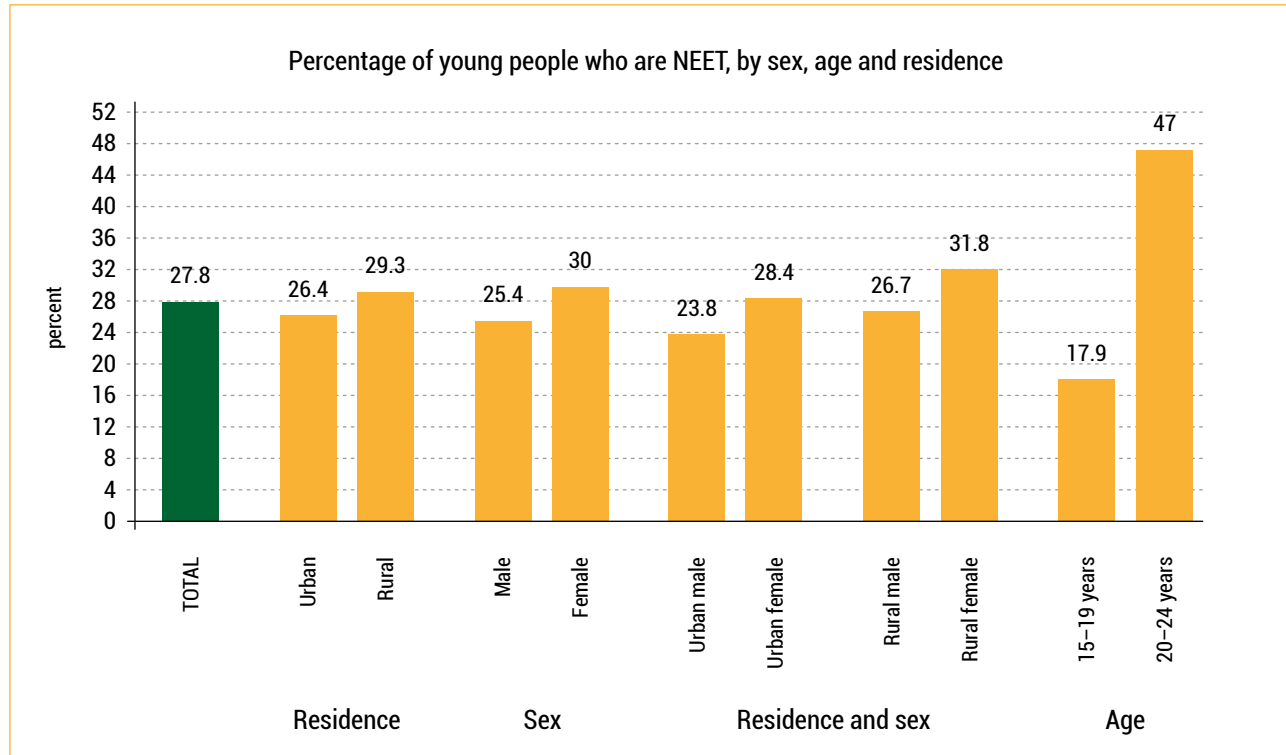
Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Almost 38 percent of young people in the labour force are unable to secure jobs (Figure 4). This youth unemployment rate, high by global standards,¹ is more than twice that of Jamaican adults. Moreover, unemployment spells are particularly long: about 40 percent of young unemployed have been looking for a job for more than one year. These are all signals of particular barriers to youth employment in the country. Not all young people, however, face the same risk of unemployment. Female youth face

¹ According to ILO estimates, the global youth unemployment rate stood at 12.6 percent in 2013 (Source: ILO (2013), *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013: A generation at risk* / International Labour Office - Geneva).

greater difficulties to access the labour market. In terms of age, unemployment is highest in the 20–24 years cohort at 40 percent compared with 35 percent for the 15–19 years age group.

Figure 5. Young people in the older age group (20–24 years) are more likely to fall into the NEET category



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Patterns are similar for youth not in education, employment and training (NEET). Almost 28 percent of Jamaican young persons are NEET and the incidence of youth in the NEET category is slightly higher for rural youth (29 percent), for female youth (30 percent) and much higher for youth in the 20–24 years age group (47 percent).

National responses to children and youth employment concerns

Jamaica has progressed steadily in regards to children's rights. The Government of Jamaica (GoJ) has endorsed the three most important international legal instruments relating to child protection² and child labour and has translated its international committed into national statues and other policies. Of particular relevance, the Child Care and Protection Act aims at promoting the best interest, safety and well-being of Jamaican children.

Against this background, Jamaica's Vision 2030 places youth at the forefront of the nation's development strategy and aims to empower children and youth with the necessary capabilities in

² The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ILO Convention NO. 182 (the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention) and ILO convention No. 138 (the Minimum age convention).

order to fully involve them in the transformation process, leading to a sustained and broad-based improvement in the quality of life of Jamaicans. Emphasis is on developing an education and training system that allow children to gain the qualification and skills necessary to be productive and competitive individuals later in life.

Since its independence, significant progresses were made towards providing access to quality education. The Government's White Paper, the Report Task Force on Education Reform 2004, The Education System Transformation Programme and the National Education Strategic Plan 2011-2020 are among the key policies and plans shaping Jamaica's educational system. The National School Feeding Policy promotes regular school attendance and reduces malnutrition: with a budget of 4.3 \$ billion in 2016-2017, the program provides meals for over 130,000 students in early childhood, primary and secondary schools. Other policies, as the Safe Schools Policy and the National Play Policy aim at addressing security issues and make schools more child-friendly.

The social protection system is made up of a contributory and a non-contributory system. The pillars of the contributory and of the non-contributory system are, respectively, the National Insurance Scheme (INS) and the Programme of Advancement Through Health and Education (PATH), along with the Rehabilitation Programme. PATH, a conditional cash transfer targeted to poor vulnerable families, also aims at reducing child labour by requiring a minimum attendance in school. However, evaluations of its impact show that school attendance and retention improved but child employment was not affected by the program.

The 2015-2030 National Youth Policy has, at its core, the role of young people as agents for social change, economic development and technological innovation. Along with other government initiatives, the Hearth Trust/NTA is the facilitating and coordinating body for technical, vocational education, training and workforce development. Jamaica has also designed two programmes to help "unattached youth", the National Youth Service and the Career Advancement Programme.

The way forward: Accelerating action against child labour and youth decent work deficit

Child labour

Child labour in Jamaica continues to affect almost 38,000 children aged 5-17 years, or 6 percent of all children in this age group. Child labour is a complex phenomenon requiring a policy response that is integrated and cross-sectoral in nature. Evidence from Jamaica and elsewhere point to a set policy pillars that are particularly relevant in this regard – basic education, social protection, public awareness, social mobilisation and advocacy – building on the foundation provided by comprehensive child labour legislation and a solid evidence base.

Education access and quality. There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school-aged children into work is to extend and improve schooling. This starts with extending early childhood education (ECD) to promote learning readiness, increase school enrolment and school survival, and help children keep away from work in their early years. The Government of Jamaica recognizes early childhood development as a key strategic area for national development, as

reflected in the Vision 2030 and in the National Strategic Plans (2008-2013, 2013 -2018) developed by the Early Childhood Commission. Continued efforts are needed to remove access and quality barriers to schooling for all children, particularly in economically disadvantaged communities. Increasing school access is a particular challenge at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum. Foremost among the factors for being out of school are having completed compulsory education (supply-side) and the cost: 27 percent of out-of-school children report cannot afford their education. High incidence of early pregnancy points to the relevance of national efforts for reintegrating school-aged mothers in the formal school system, as for example the National Policy for Reintegration of School-aged mothers in the Formal School System.

School quality also remains an important challenge. Inadequacy of professionally trained teaching staff in rural communities, inadequate teaching resources (especially at ECC level), the shortage of upper secondary school spaces, involvement in school violence among the issues affecting the quality of the education received by Jamaica's students.

Social protection. Social protection instruments serve to prevent vulnerable households from having to resort to child labour as a buffer against poverty and negative shocks. There is no single recipe for expanding social protection programmes to reduce household vulnerability and child labour. Unconditional and conditional cash transfer programmes, including various forms of child support grants, family allowances, needs based social assistance and social pensions, are all relevant to ensuring household livelihoods, supplementing the incomes of the poor and reducing household dependence on child labour. Public works schemes can serve both the primary goal of providing a source of employment to household breadwinners and the secondary goal of helping to rehabilitate public infrastructure and expand basic services, both being potentially relevant in terms of reducing reliance on child labour. Micro-loan schemes can help ease household budget constraints and mitigate social risk.

The Government of Jamaica has responded to the challenges posed by households' poverty and vulnerabilities by overhauling its social security programmes, and replacing the fragmented programmes with the Programme for Advancement of Health and Education (PATH).

PATH provides cash transfers and free access to school feeding and health services. Child labour elimination is among its objectives, but an evaluation found that children's employment was not affected by the programme.³ The Government committed to increase the budgetary allocation to PAH by 30 percent by June 1, 2017.⁴

Enhancing public awareness. Strategic communication is needed as part of efforts to build a broad consensus for change. Child labour is a clear example in which both social norms and economic considerations are important, and strategic communication efforts need to be designed with this in mind. Households require information concerning the costs or dangers of child labour and benefits of schooling in order to make informed decisions on their children's time allocation. But factors that influence decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour can extend well beyond economics or work conditions. Cultural attitudes and perceptions can also direct household decisions

3 ODI (2006).

4 <http://jis.gov.jm/omcreased-allocation-path>.

concerning children's schooling and child labour, and therefore should also be targeted in strategic communication efforts.

Communication efforts are needed at both national and local levels. A mix of conventional (e.g., radio, television and print media) as well as of non-conventional communication channels (e.g., religious leaders, school teachers, health care workers) is important in order to achieving maximum outreach. Social media represents another increasingly important communication tool in the context of both national awareness raising and global campaigns against child labour abuses. Baseline information on local knowledge and cultural attitudes towards child labour is needed to tailor communication messages, and to evaluate changes in awareness and attitudes following communication activities.

Social mobilisation and advocacy. Achieving sustainable reduction in child labour requires social consensus well beyond the level of the household. Policy responses to child labour are also unlikely to be effective in the absence of the active participation of civil society and of social partners in implementing them. Similarly, laws to protect children from child labour are unlikely to be effective if they are not backed by broad social consensus. Social mobilisation is therefore critical to engaging a broad range of social actors in efforts against child labour. Various social actors, including, for example, NGOs, faith-based organisations, teachers' organizations, the mass media, trade unions, employers' organizations, have important roles to play in a broader societal effort against child labour.

Child labour legislation, inspections and monitoring. Achieving sustainable reductions in child labour requires a supportive policy and legislative environment, which is in line with international standards and effectively mainstreamed into national development plans and programmes. This has the important effect of signalling national intent to eliminate child labour and providing a framework in which this can be achieved.

While significant progress has been made in developing a comprehensive legal framework, this framework is not yet complete. The Government of Jamaica recently announced the development of a Light and Hazardous Work list that can contribute filling the gap.

The effectiveness of legislation in protecting children from child labour also depends on establishing and strengthening mechanisms for monitoring and enforcing laws, including provisions for inspections and for the removal children in child labour to safe places. Expanding the Government's actual capacity to monitor formal workplaces remains a major challenge, and unregistered businesses in the informal economy are largely outside formal inspection regimes. The labour inspectorate needs to be strengthened so that inspectors can effectively enforce labour legislation and workplace safety standards relating to child labour.

Improving the evidence base. Effective and well-targeted responses to child labour demand a strong body of knowledge on the issue, including an understanding of how many children are in child labour, which sectors and geographical areas they work in, the demographic characteristics of the children involved, and the type of work that they carry out. Despite recent national household surveys, data quality and comparability are uneven and significant information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. Better data is especially needed on programme impact, in order to identify good practices from the large number of child labour initiatives undertaken in the country, and, following from this, approaches

with most potential for broader scale implementation. More evidence is also needed, inter alia, on the worst forms of child labour, recognizing that “the effective elimination of the worst forms of child labour requires immediate and comprehensive action”.⁵

Addressing child labour among adolescents aged 15-17 years

Even though young people aged 15-17 years are over the minimum working age they are still considered in child labour under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 and national legislation if the work they do is hazardous. As we saw in Chapter 5 of this Report, child labour among children aged 15–17 years affects almost 8 percent of all children in this age group, or 13,500 children in absolute terms.

At the same time, about 59 percent of all children aged 15–17 years in employment are in child labour. Children aged 15-17 years are therefore of common interest to programmes addressing child labour and the decent work deficit faced by youth, but they have not to date been accorded priority attention in either. While the policies articulated above for younger children are also largely relevant for combatting child labour in the 15-17 years age group, there is also a need for additional policy measures tailored specifically to the unique challenges posed by child labour in this age group.

Removing youth from hazardous work in order that they are protected and afforded second chances for acquiring decent work. In instances in which adolescents in the 15-17 years' age group are working in sectors or occupations that are designated as hazardous or where there is no scope for improving working conditions, the policy requirement is clear – they must be removed from the hazardous job. In these instances, it is imperative that there is an effective inspections and monitoring system for identifying the adolescents concerned and a strategy in place for providing withdrawn adolescents with adequate support services and opportunities for social reintegration. Community-based mechanisms close to where child labour is found are particularly relevant in this regard.

Options for reaching disadvantaged, out-of-school children with alternative learning opportunities includes mainstreaming (i.e., providing returning children with special remedial support within the regular classroom) and “bridging” education (i.e., separate intensive courses, delivered within or outside the formal school system, designed to raise academic proficiency prior to returning to the regular classroom). Second chance policies need to take place within the context of a broader effort improve secondary schooling access and quality, in order to make secondary schooling a more viable and attractive alternative to hazardous work.

For out-of-school children whose circumstances mean that they are unable to re-enter basic education, experience in a range of countries suggests that targeted packages of active labour market policies can be effective in terms of providing withdrawn adolescents (and other vulnerable youth) with second chances for securing decent work. Many of the elements discussed in the next section of this chapter are relevant in this context, including vocational and technical training, apprenticeships, job search training and support, and entrepreneurial support, with the critical difference being that they are tailored to the special needs of this group of particularly vulnerable youth. Not infrequently, adolescents withdrawn from exploitative situations may also need a range

5 Preamble, Convention 182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, International Labour Organization, 1999.

of social services: emergency shelter, medical care, psychosocial counselling, legal support, family tracing and assessment and post-reintegration follow-up.

Mitigating risk in order to ensure that youth are not exposed to hazards in their workplace. Risk mitigation is a strategic option in instances where adolescents are exposed to hazards in sectors or occupations that are not designated as hazardous in national hazardous work lists and where there is scope for changing work conditions. Such a strategy involves measures to remove the hazard, to separate the child sufficiently from the hazard so as not to be exposed, or minimise the risk associated with that hazard. Strategies aimed at improving the working conditions of adolescent workers include various types of protective measures: hours of work can be reduced; work at night, or travel to and from work at night, can be prohibited; workplace policies against harassment can be established and enforced; adolescents can be barred from using dangerous substances, tools or equipment; and adequate rest periods can be provided.

Especially important in the context of risk mitigation is training and awareness-raising on occupational safety and health for employers and their young workers, including on adequate and consistent supervision. Another priority is the implementation of adequate monitoring mechanisms. Trade unions, business associations, chambers of commerce, community organizations, social protection agencies – when properly trained and linked with the labour inspectorate – can monitor minimum age guidelines, the safety of the workplace and its adolescent workers.⁶

Addressing the decent work deficit among young people aged 15–24 years

The results presented in this Report highlight a number of challenges facing Jamaican young people entering the labour market. Levels of human capital remain low for many Jamaican young people, compromising their future prospects. 28 percent of all youth are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and therefore at risk of social marginalisation. Youth employment is dominated by low-skill, unremunerating jobs in the informal economy offering fewer chances for upward mobility. Underemployment, or “hidden unemployment”, affects over one-third of employed youth. These results point to the need for active labour market policies⁷ aimed at improving youth labour market outcomes, building on the knowledge foundation acquired during childhood through improved basic education and preventing child labour.

Skills development. Besides the formal TVET system, the HEARTH Trust/NTA facilitates and coordinates body for technical, vocational education, training and workforce development in Jamaica. Ensuring training opportunities extend to vulnerable youth with limited levels of formal education remains a particularly important challenge facing the TVET system. This group of vulnerable youth

6 It is important to note that while we are focusing here on children, neither is hazardous work acceptable for adult workers. The ILO Conventions on occupational safety and health (OSH) and on labour inspection offer protection for all workers. In fact, nearly half of all ILO instruments deal directly or indirectly with OSH issues. It has long been recognized in this context that action against child labour can also be action for decent work for adults. In the case of hazardous work, where economic necessity or deeply ingrained tradition blocks attempts to improve conditions for adult workers, it is sometimes the call to stop child labour that can be the entry point to change. Eliminating hazardous work of children can help improve safety and health of all workers – the ultimate goal.

7 Active labour market policies are designed to improve labour market outcomes for young people within existing institutional and macro-economic constraints; the broader structural economic reforms needed to reduce youth unemployment in the long run are beyond the scope of this Report.

includes those whose education was compromised by involvement in child labour. Access is also especially limited for female youth and for the rural poor.

This discussion points to the importance of continued investment in providing “second chance” opportunities to former working children and other categories of vulnerable youth for acquiring the skills and training needed for work and life. There is already a number of second chance learning initiatives active in the country, some specifically targeting “unattached” youth. Effectively coordinating these wide-ranging efforts, and successfully extending them based on needs-based criteria to ensure they reach all unserved groups of vulnerable youth, however, remain key priorities. Integrating informal training and apprenticeships into the formal system is another priority. Additional investment is also needed in evaluating the impact of existing efforts and in tracing labour market outcomes of participants, in order to identify the approaches with most potential for expansion.

Job search support. The high levels of skills mismatch among Jamaican youth is suggestive of a need for further investment in job search skills and in formal mechanisms linking young job seekers with appropriate job openings. It will again be especially important to ensure that at-risk youth are able to access these employment services programmes. This can be difficult because most at-risk youth live in either marginal urban or rural areas, while most employment services are offered in more central locations. One criticism of employment services programmes elsewhere has been that those who benefit from the programmes are typically more qualified and connected to begin with and therefore more likely to become employed. This points to the importance of targeting job search support to disadvantaged young people most in need.

Public works programmes. The high percentage of youth who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and who are underemployed points to the need for demand-side measures aimed at improving employment opportunities for young people. Labour-intensive public works programmes targeting youth represent one important policy option in this context. Such programmes can provide both qualified and unqualified young people with an entry point into the labour market within broader efforts to reduce poverty and develop rural services infrastructure.

Youth entrepreneurship. Promoting youth entrepreneurship represents another important demand-side strategy for expanding youth employment opportunities and improving employment outcomes for the large proportion of Jamaican youth currently underemployed or outside of employment and education. A wide array of efforts promoting youth entrepreneurship is currently underway in the country. However, there remain a number of outstanding priorities for expanding youth entrepreneurship opportunities, particularly for vulnerable youth. Priorities in this context include supporting an entrepreneurial culture by including entrepreneurship education and training in school. Easing access to finance, including by guaranteeing loans and supporting micro-credit initiatives, is also critical, as a major stumbling block for young entrepreneurs is the lack of access to credit and seed funding. Expanding access to effective business advisory and support services, and the capacity to deliver them, is another key element in promoting youth entrepreneurship, as isolation and lack of support prevent many potential young entrepreneurs experience from gaining a foothold in the business world. The formation of self-help groups, including cooperatives, by young people would also allow for better access to supplies, credit and market information.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Overcoming the twin challenges of child labour and the youth decent work deficit will be critical to Jamaica's progress towards realising its broader development goals. Evidence from the 2016 Jamaica Youth Activity Survey indicates that about 6 percent of Jamaican children, 38,000 in absolute terms, remain in child labour. At the same time, 28 percent of young people aged 15–29 years are not in education or in employment (NEET) and employed youth are concentrated overwhelmingly in low skill jobs in the informal economy that offer little prospect for advancement or for escaping poverty and exploitation. The effects of child labour and the decent work deficit facing youth are well-documented: both can lead to social vulnerability, societal marginalisation and deprivation, and both can permanently impair lifetime patterns of employment and pay.

The current Report examines the related issues of child labour and youth employment in Jamaica. Guided by observed outcomes on schooling, work activities and status in the labour market, the report considers the economic as well as the social determinants of child labour and youth employment. The Jamaica Youth Activity Survey conducted in 2016 (JYAS 2016) is the primary data source for the report. Data from this survey permit a comprehensive and nationally-representative picture of the child labour and youth employment situations.

The Report was developed under the aegis of the Child Labour Unit of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Statistical Institute of Jamaica.

Three related objectives are served by the report: (1) contribute to the information base on child labour and youth employment, in order to inform policy and programmatic responses; (2) promote policy dialogue on child labour and the lack of opportunities for decent and productive work for youth; and (3) analyse the relationship between early school leaving, child labour and future status in the labour market.

Box 1. Understanding Children's Work (UCW) programme

The inter-agency research programme, Understanding Children's Work (UCW), was initiated by the International Labour Organization (ILO), UNICEF and the World Bank to help inform efforts towards eliminating child labour.

UCW is guided by the Roadmap adopted at the Hague Global Child Labour Conference 2010, which lays out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labour.

The Roadmap calls for effective partnerships across the UN system to address child labour, and for mainstreaming child labour into policy and development frameworks. The Roadmap also calls for improved knowledge sharing and for further research aimed at guiding policy responses to child labour.

Research on the work and the vulnerability of children and youth constitutes the main component of the UCW programme. Through close collaboration with stakeholders in partner countries, UCW produces research that allows better understanding of child labour and youth employment in their various dimensions and the linkages between them.

The results of this research support the development of intervention strategies designed to remove children from the world of work, prevent others from entering it and to promote decent work for youth. As UCW research is conducted within an inter-agency framework, it promotes a shared understanding of child labour and of the youth employment challenges and provides a common platform for addressing them.

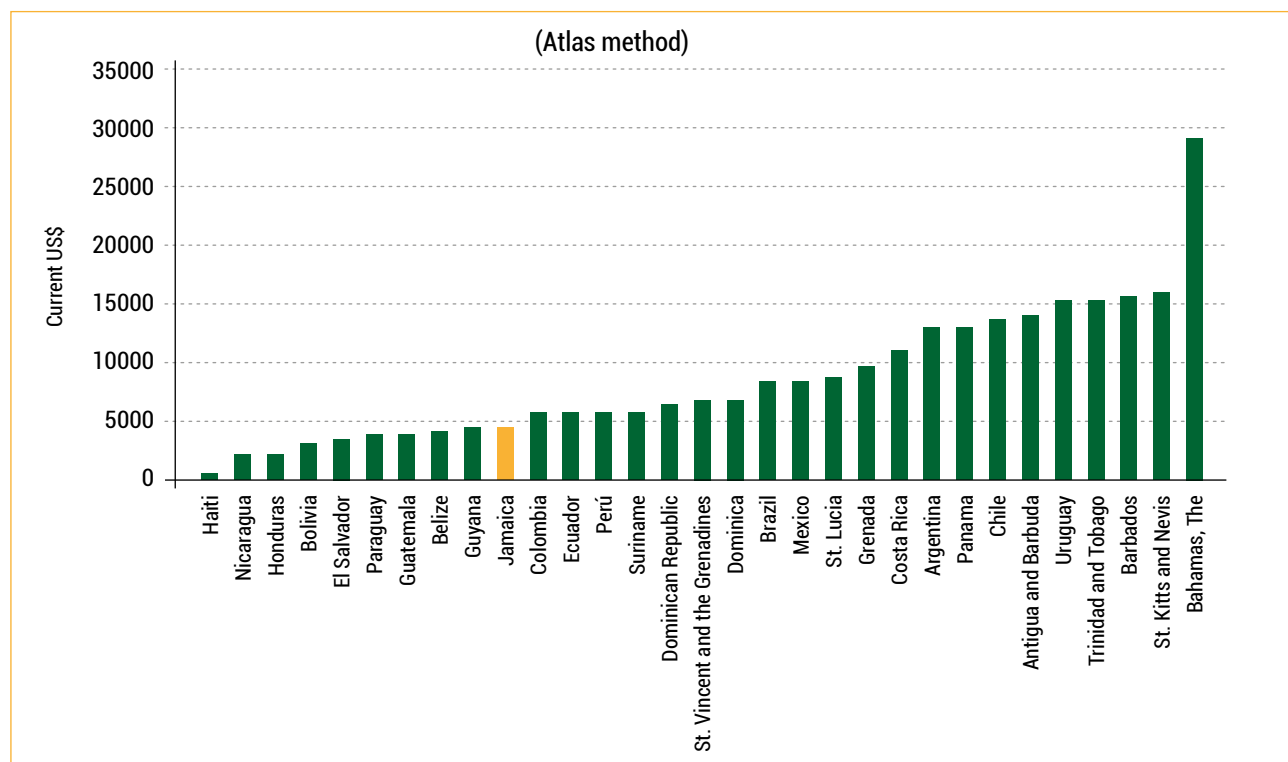
The remainder of the Report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 reviews the national economic and social context. Chapter 3 reports estimates of child labour for the 5-14 and 15-17 years age groups. Chapter 4 of the report focuses on understanding children's work in the 5-14 years age group, looking first at the extent of child labour and then at its main characteristics. Chapter 5 addresses the extent and nature of child labour among adolescents aged 15-17 years. Chapter 6 examines the interplay between child labour and schooling. Chapter 7 then turns to youth employment, covering issues including job access, job quality, human capital and skills mismatches. Chapter 8 of the Report reviews current national responses to child labour and youth employment concerns. Chapter 9 consists of a concluding discussion of policy priorities for accelerating action in the areas of child labour and youth employment.

Chapter 2

Jamaica country context

Jamaica is an upper-middle income country, ranked 94th in the UN's 2016 Human Development Index.⁸ The country has great economic potential, due to endowment of natural resources, tourism and cultural industries, but has recorded a very low GDP growth over the past 20 years (Table 3 and Figure 6⁹).

Figure 6. Gross national income (GNI) per capita, by country, 2017



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Jamaica's vulnerability to natural disasters¹⁰, like floods, earthquakes and hurricanes, also contributed in hampering the country's growth.

8 Country profile, Jamaica, www.undp.org.

9 its GDP grew only by an estimated 1 percent www.worldbank.org, Jamaica Country Overview.

10 GFDRR www.gfdr.org/en/jamaica.

Services account for the largest share of GDP (69 percent); industry is a distant second in terms of importance (23 percent).

Table 3. Selected economic indicators

Indicators	Year								
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
GDP per capita (current us\$)	4,902.5	4,293.3	4,682.5	5,103.4	5,209.5	5,005.6	4,855.8	4,939.8	4,878.6
GDP per capita growth (annual percent)	-1.3	-4.8	-1.9	1.3	-1.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	1.0
Agriculture, value added (percent of gdp)	5.6	6.3	6.1	6.6	6.7	7.0	7.1	7.5	8.0
Industry, value added (percent of GDP)	22.7	20.8	20.9	21.2	21.0	21.2	21.6	22.8	22.9
Manufacturing, value added (percent of GDP)	9.3	9.4	9.0	9.1	9.4	9.5	9.5	9.4	9.1
Services, etc., value added (percent of GDP)	71.7	73.0	72.9	72.2	72.3	71.7	71.3	69.7	69.2

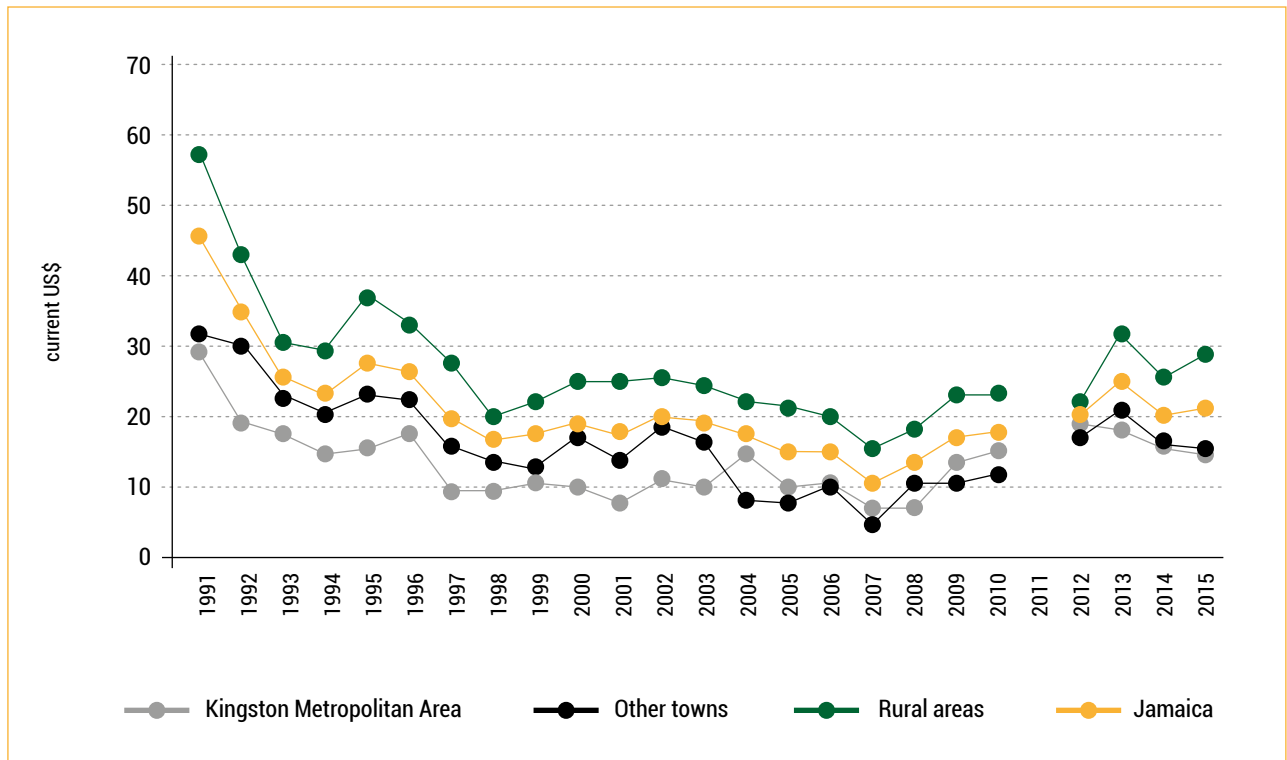
Source: The World Bank, World Development Indicator, Consulted on April 2018

Levels of poverty remain high. According to the Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions, the poverty rate has ticked upwards since 2007 and stood at 21 percent in 2015.

Poverty is especially concentrated in rural areas (Figure 7), where residents still have significantly less access to basic services such as water and electricity network (Table 4).¹¹

¹¹ Country brief, Jamaica. www.caribbean.unfpa.org.

Figure 7. Incidence of poverty, by region, 1991–2015

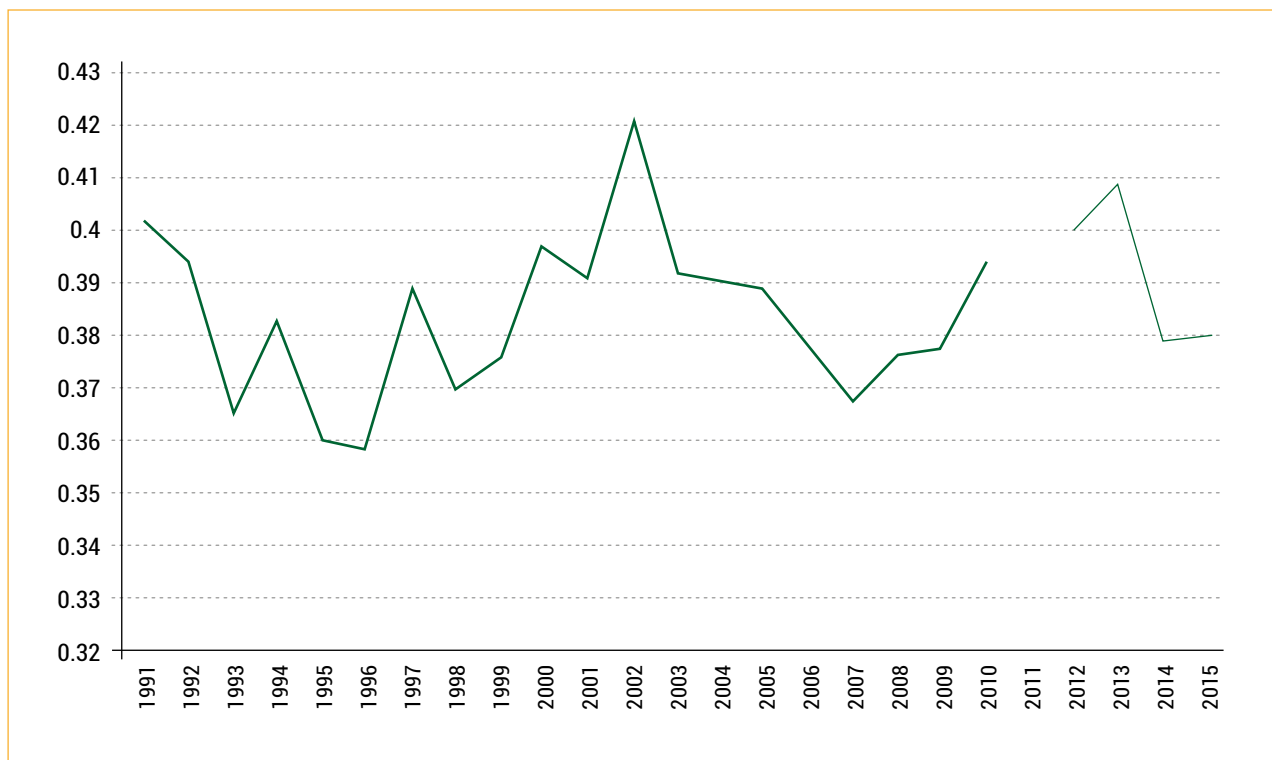


Source: Survey of living conditions, Statistical Institute of Jamaica

Jamaica is one of the countries in the Caribbean Region characterized by lowest levels of inequality.¹² Levels of inequality, as measured by the Gini coefficient, have remained fairly stable, with marginal positive and negative changes since 1991 (Figure 8).

12 Caribbean Development Bank (2016). The changing nature of poverty and inequality in the Caribbean: new issues, new solutions

Figure 8. Gini index, 1991–2015



Notes: * New Gini index.
Source: Statistical Institute of Jamaica.

Table 4. Access to basic services, by residence

	Year							
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Access to electricity (% tot. population of population)	92.0	91.8	92.7	91.1	93.1	95.4	96.4	97.3
Access to electricity, rural (% rural population)	83.9	83.6	84.7	80.8	85.0	90.0	92.0	94.0
Access to electricity, urban (% urban population)	99.5	99.0	99.6	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Improved water source (% population with access)	93.7	93.7	93.7	93.8	93.8	93.8	93.8	93.8
Improved water source, rural (% rural population with access)	89.2	89.3	89.3	89.3	89.4	89.4	89.4	89.4
Improved water source, urban (% urban population with access)	97.6	97.6	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicator. Consulted on April 2018.

The total population in Jamaica currently amounts to about 3 million, compared with about 2.5 million in 1990. The observed rise in total population was accompanied by an increase in the share of persons of working age, i.e. 15–64 years old (from 57.8 percent in 1990 to 67.6 percent in 2017), whereas the share of children younger than 15 years progressively declined (from 34.8 percent to 22.7 percent, respectively). Dependency ratios have correspondingly decreased (Table 5), since the oldest age group (65 and older) – though growing – still represents less than 10 percent of the Jamaican population.

Table 5. Demographic changes in Jamaica, 1990–2014

Characteristics	1990	2005	2017
Total population (persons)	2,424,242	2,744,673	2,890,299
% Females	50.7	50.5	50.2
Age (%)			
0–14 years	34.77	30.08	22.73
15–64 years	57.80	61.85	67.59
65 and over	7.4	8.1	9.7
Area (%)			
Rural	50.6	47.2	44.6
Urban	49.4	52.8	55.4
Dependency ratio (% of working-age pop)			
0–14	60.2	48.6	33.6
65 and over	12.9	13.1	14.3
Life expectancy at birth (years)			
	72.1	73.4	76.0

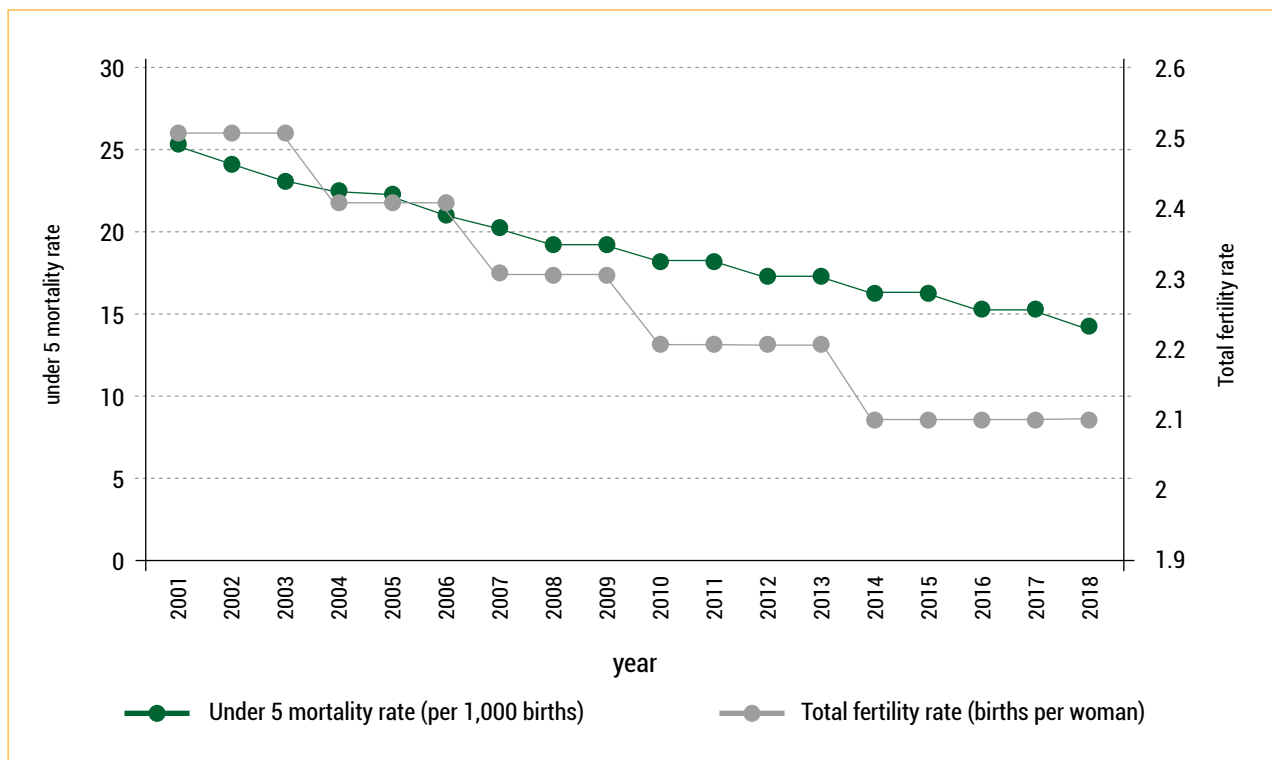
Source: World Bank, World Development Indicator. Consulted on April 2018.

Primarily due to the transition from high to low fertility and mortality rates, Jamaica is at the intermediate stage of the demographic transition.¹³ Notwithstanding these improvements, maternal mortality rate is still high, also due to quality and shortage of medical personnel. In addition, the adolescent fertility rate, even though it has shown some improvements in the past years, remains high at 54/1,000 (2016)¹⁴, affecting the development opportunities of young mothers.

13 Economic & Social Survey Jamaica 2016. Planning Institute of Jamaica.

14 World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Figure 9. Basic demographic trends in Jamaica



Source: US Bureau of Census. International database.

The HIV prevalence represents a critical development challenge. Although the HIV prevalence rate stands at a low 1.7 percent, showing a declining trend since 2010, for adolescents the rate of decline has been slowing down. HIV is particularly concentrated among the most vulnerable part of the population, and its gender dimension is a particular concern: girls in the 15-19 age group are more likely to be infected with the virus than young men in the same age group.¹⁵

The Jamaican labor market is characterized by a large informal sector, underemployment, and relatively high unemployment. However, there are signs of improvement.¹⁶ From October 2013 to October 2017, the employment rate slightly but steadily increased, while unemployment rate decreased. There is a significant gap between male and female labour force outcomes: of particular note, the female unemployment rate is much higher than that for males (Table 6).

¹⁵ Stigma and discrimination, particularly in relation to the most-vulnerable populations, prevents them from accessing relevant health information and services.

Country brief, [Jamaica](http://www.caribbean.unfpa.org). www.caribbean.unfpa.org.

¹⁶ Economic & Social Survey Jamaica 2016. Planning Institute of Jamaica.

Table 6. Labour force indicators, 2013–2017

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Employment rate	85.1	85.8	86.5	87.1	89.6
Employment rate (male)	88.3	90.1	90.7	91.1	92.7
Employment rate (female)	80.0	80.6	81.5	82.5	85.9
Unemployment rate	14.9	14.2	13.5	12.9	10.4
Unemployment rate (male)	10.6	9.9	9.3	8.9	7.3
Unemployment rate (female)	20.0	19.4	18.5	17.5	14.1

Source: Labour Force Survey (2014, 2015, 2016, 2017), Statistical Institute of Jamaica.

Chapter 3

Child labour: The overall picture

In this chapter, we briefly summarise estimates of involvement in child labour for the overall 5–17 years age group, based on national legislation and international child labour measurement standards.

The legal framework for child labour in Jamaica is contained in The Child Care and Protection Act (CCPA), which went into effect on 26 March 2004. The Act includes the following sections related to child labour:

- ◆ Section 33 – Expressly prohibits the employment of a child under the age of 13 years
- ◆ Section 34 – A child aged 13–14 years shall only be employed in prescribed occupations
- ◆ Section 35 – Exception for Artistic Performances
- ◆ Section 38 – Permissible work
- ◆ Section 39 – Prohibition on employment in nightclubs and on using a child for any purpose contrary to the decency or morality.
- ◆ Section 40 – Prohibition to sell or assist in the selling of intoxicating liquor or tobacco products.

Following national legislation and international conventions, children are classified in child labour on the basis of the following criteria:

- a) For children aged 5–12 years: those in employment
- b) For children aged 13–14 years: those involved in non-light work and/or working over 13 hours per week
- c) For children aged 15–17 years: those in hazardous forms of employment or/and working over 40 hours per week

Children in employment, in turn, are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period in any public or private agricultural, industrial or non-industrial undertaking, excluding work done at a vocational technical school or any other training institution. Economic activity, therefore, covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economies; inside and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time); and work as a domestic worker outside the child's own household for an employer (with or without pay).

In the case of Jamaica, we also have information on fetching water and/or collecting firewood.

Measured on this basis, some 13,000 children aged 5–14 years, and 11,500 children aged 15–17 years are in child labour. Adding these two groups together yields a total of almost 24,000 children aged 5–17 years involved in child labour, or 3.7 percent of all children in this age group (Table 1). If we also include fetching water and/or collecting firewood, the total number in child labour rises to almost 38,000, or 5.7 percent of the 5–17 age group. These overall estimates mask important differences by sex, age and residence. Boys are more likely to be involved in child labour than their female peers: there is a 4 percentage point difference between boys and girls for the overall 5–17 years age group and a 9.5 percentage point difference for the 15–17 years age group. The difference in child labour involvement between rural and urban children is also significant. For the 5–17 years age group as a whole, the rate of child labour in rural areas (8 percent) is twice that in urban areas (4 percent).

It should be underscored that these figures represent conservative estimates of child labour, because they exclude so-called “worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work.” These forms of child labour include child trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation, child slavery and the involvement of children in illicit activities. In Jamaica, as in most countries, information on children involved in the worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work is limited due to methodological difficulties.

Chapter 4

Children aged 5–14 years

This chapter analyses the extent and nature of child labour among children aged 5–14 years in more detail, based on the Jamaica Youth Activity Survey of 2016 and on the measurement concepts outlined in the previous chapter.

4.1 Involvement in child labour

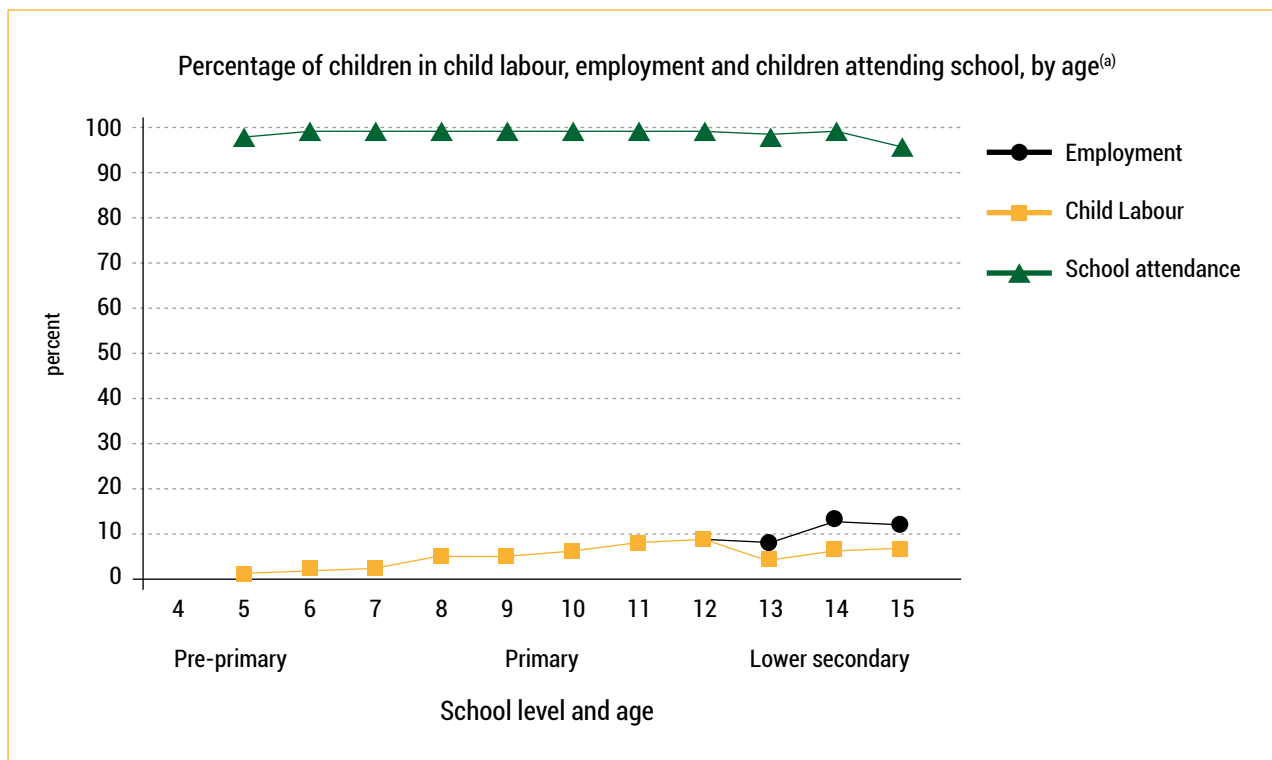
According to the Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016 (Table 7), 5 percent of children aged 5–14 years, 24,000 children in absolute terms, are in child labour. The results presented in Table 7 indicate that overall estimates of child labour mask differences by age, gender and residence. Child labour increases with age and is higher among male children and rural children.

Table 7. Children in child labour by age, sex and residence, 5–14 years

Age	Percentage				Total
	Sex		Residence		
	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	
5–12 years	5.9	3.9	2.7	7.1	4.9
13–14 years	5.9	4.5	3.4	7.4	5.4
Total 5–14 years	5.9	4.2	3.1	7.3	5.2
Age	Number				Total
	Sex		Residence		
	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	
5–12 years	11,220	7,182	4,961	13,441	18,402
13–14 years	3,493	2,499	2,090	3,902	5,992
Total 5–14 years	14,713	9,681	7,051	17,343	24,394

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Age. Involvement in child labour increases with age (Figure 10). This pattern is largely due to the fact that the productivity of children increases as they grow older, meaning that the opportunity cost of keeping children in school as opposed to the workplace also goes up. Notwithstanding this pattern, child labour is by no means negligible among children aged 5–12 years. A total of 18,402 children in this age group are already engaged in child labour. These very young children are especially susceptible to workplace hazards and abuses, and they therefore constitute a particular policy priority.

Figure 10. Children's employment increases among children aged 5–14 years

Notes: (a) Compulsory schooling in Jamaica begins at age six and is compulsory up to the 11th grade.
Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Gender. Child labour does not appear to have an important gender dimension, as the share of boys in employment is only slightly higher than that of girls (Table 7). However, these results do not include involvement in household chores, a form of work where girls typically predominate. For this reason, our estimates may understate girls' involvement in child labour relative to that of boys.¹⁷

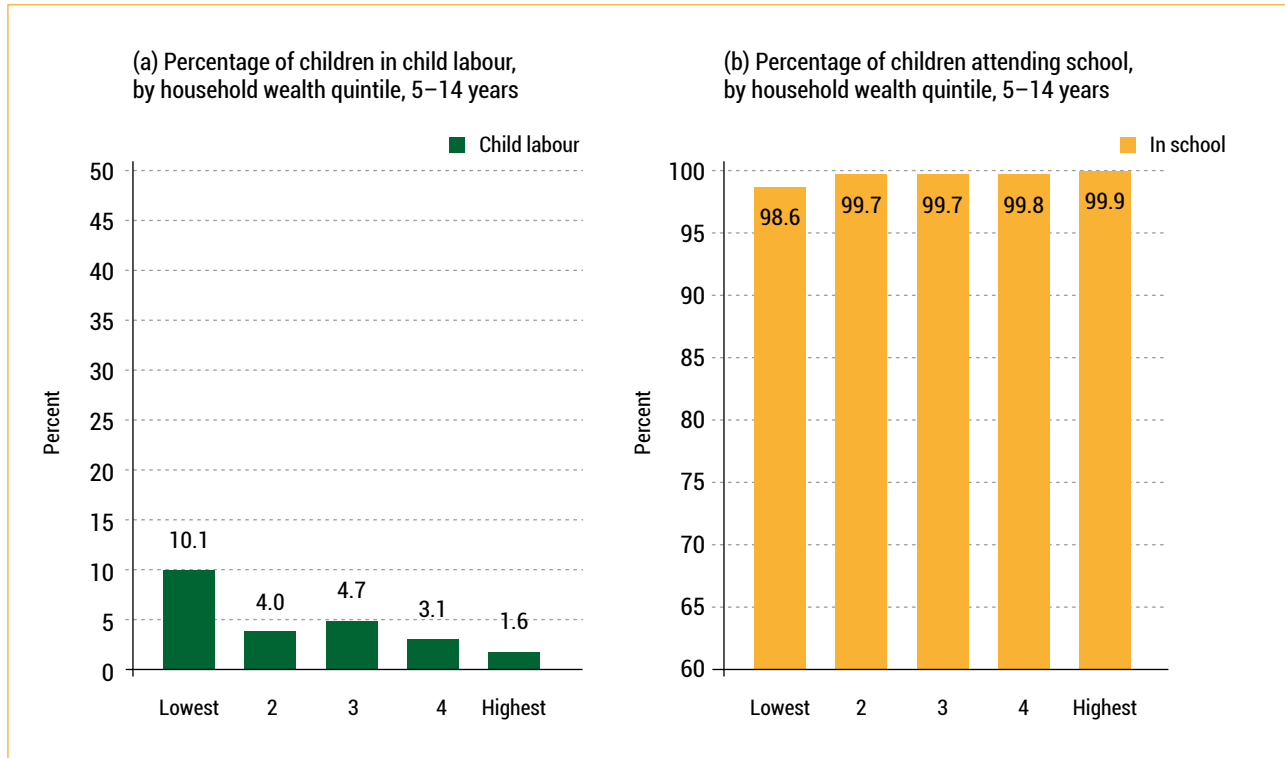
Residence. Child labour among rural children (7.2 percent) is higher than that of urban children (2.9 percent). The relevance of urban–rural status is also highlighted in the econometric analysis (see Table A3 in the Annex) – which showed that it was statistically significant.

Household poverty.¹⁸ Child labour is higher and school attendance is lower among children from poor households: 10.1 percent of children are in child labour in the lowest wealth quintile, as compared to 1.6 percent of children in the highest wealth quintile (Figure 11). The econometric results, confirm this pattern, indicating that children belonging to poor households are more likely to work and less likely to attend school (Annex Table A3). It should be noted however, that the correlation between poverty and child labour is not large once we control for other relevant covariates, underscoring the importance of other factors associated with poverty.

17 In keeping with national legislation, the category of household chores is not included in the analysis.

18 For the purpose of our analysis, poverty is measured in terms of wealth quintiles. Due to the lack of direct welfare information, i.e. average household expenditure or household income, a common solution consist of generating a wealth index using a principal components approach. Following from this, a wealth index is generated. The wealth index is a composite measure of a household's cumulative living standard calculated using data on household's ownership of selected assets, such as televisions; materials used for housing construction; and types of water access and sanitation facilities (see Filmer, D., L. H Pritchett (2001). "Estimating wealth effects without expenditure data-or tears: an application to educational enrollments in states of India." *Demography* 38(1): 115–132).

Figure 11. Children from poor households are more vulnerable to child labour and educational marginalization

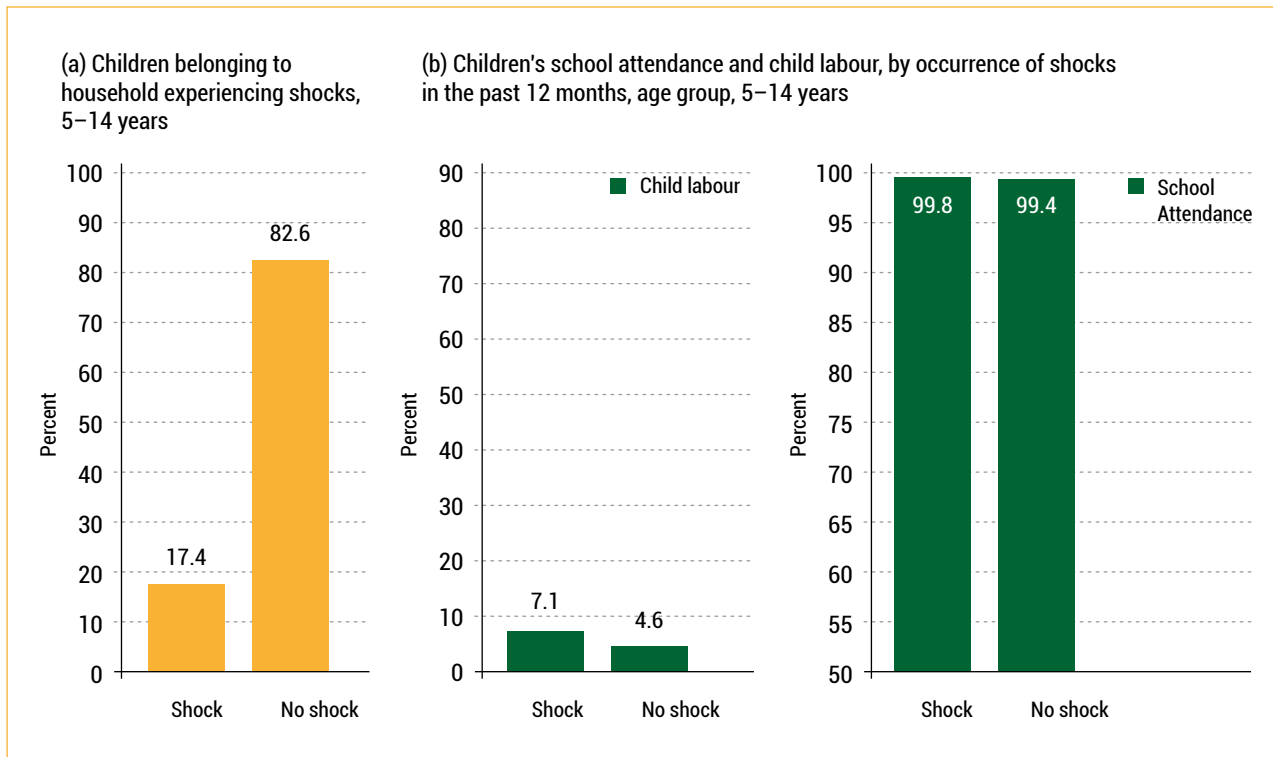


Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Household exposure to shocks. Research on child labour clearly indicates that child labour is used as a buffer against negative shocks.¹⁹ Figure 12 and Figure 13 show that children who belong to households experiencing a shock – namely natural disasters or other shocks related to the economic, infrastructural or agricultural environment – have a higher probability of being involved in child labour. No effect is found for school attendance. These results are confirmed by the econometric analysis (see Table A3 in the Annex).

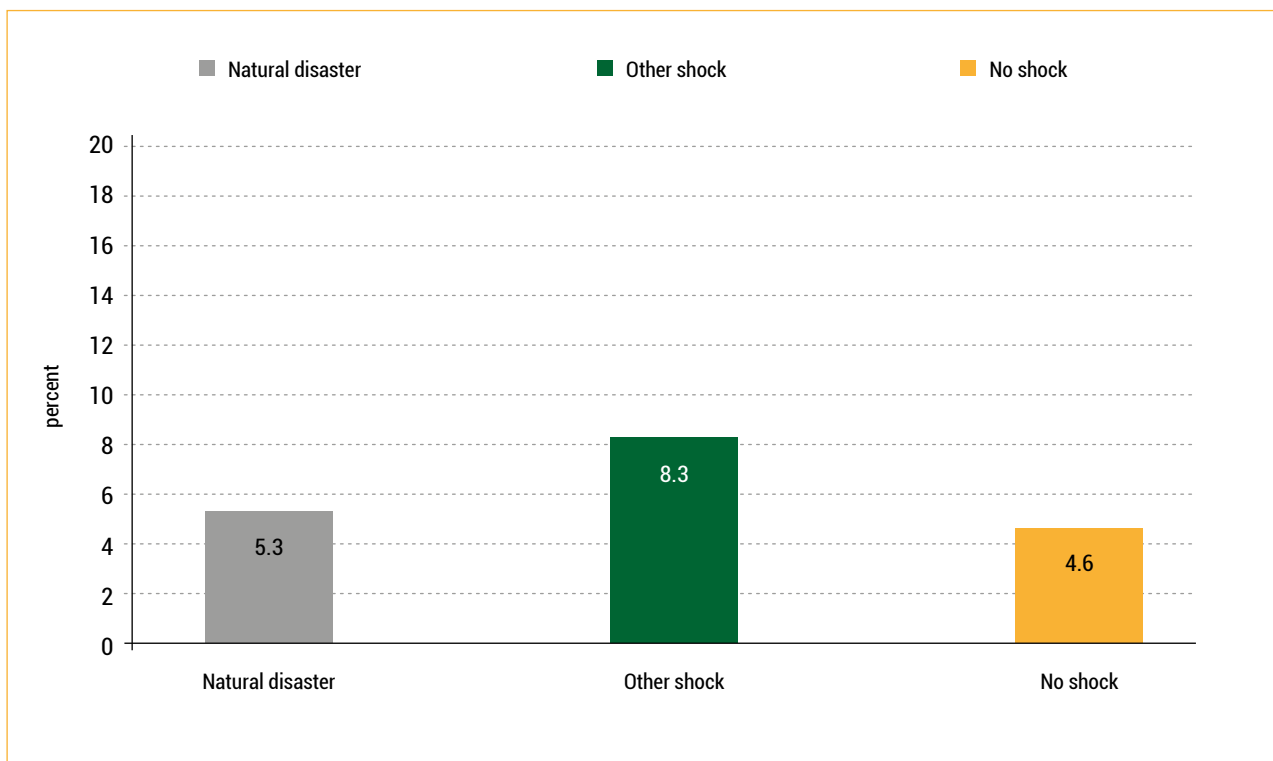
19 ILO (2011). *Joining forces against child labour: Inter-agency report for The Hague Global Child Labour Conference of 2010.*

Figure 12. Child labour is higher among children from households which experienced any shock



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

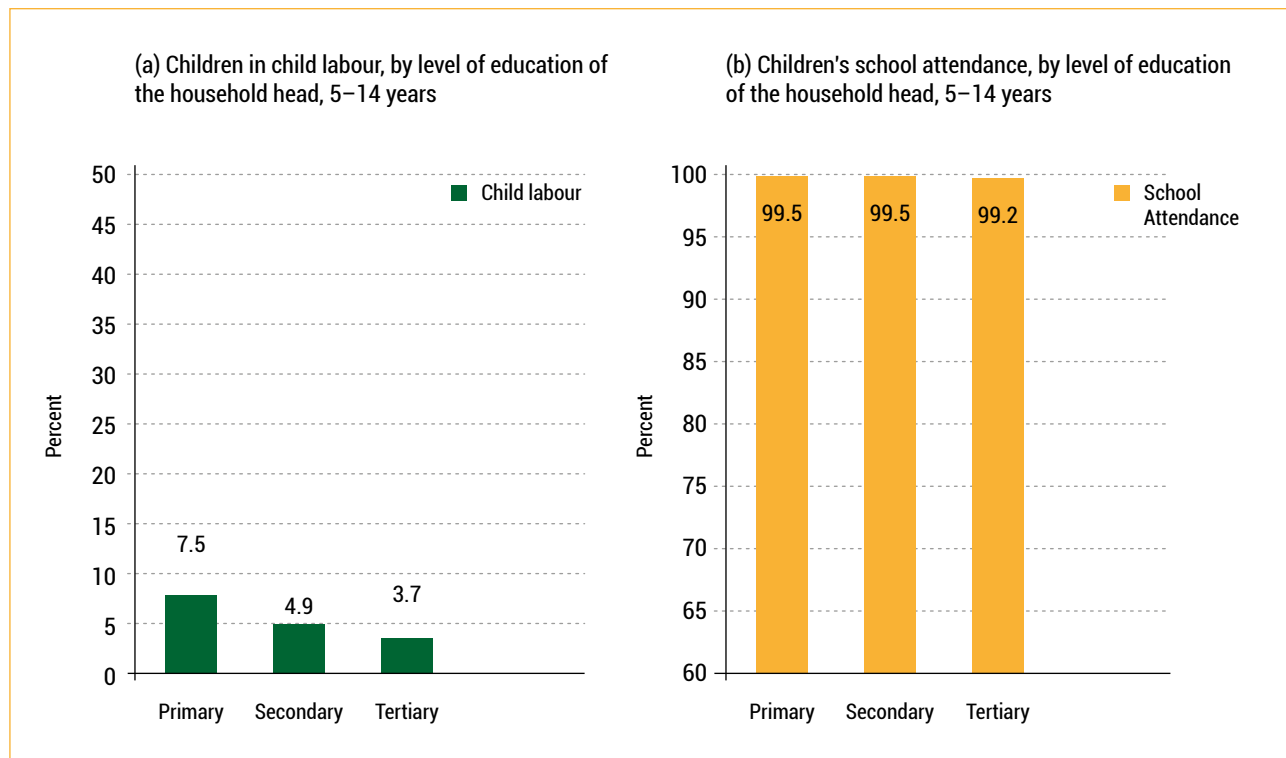
Figure 13. Children in child labour, by type of shocks experienced in the past 12 months, 5–14 years



Note: Other shocks include bad harvests, water shortage, economic downturn and disease epidemics.
 Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016..

Education level of the household head. The effect of the level of education of the household head in reducing child labour and increasing school attendance is important. A higher educational level of the household head makes it more likely that a child attends school and less likely to be engaged in child labour (Figure 14). However, the education level of the household head loses importance when considered jointly with other determinants of child labour and school attendance, as shown in the econometric analysis in Table A3 in the Annex.

Figure 14. Child labour is higher among children belonging to households with an uneducated household head



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

4.2 Characteristics of child labour

Information on the characteristics of child labour is necessary for understanding children's role in the workplace. A breakdown of child labour by industry is reported in order to provide a picture of where children are concentrated; a breakdown by status of employment provides additional insight into how child labour is carried out. Average working hours is looked at as an indirect indicator of the possible health and educational consequences of child labour.

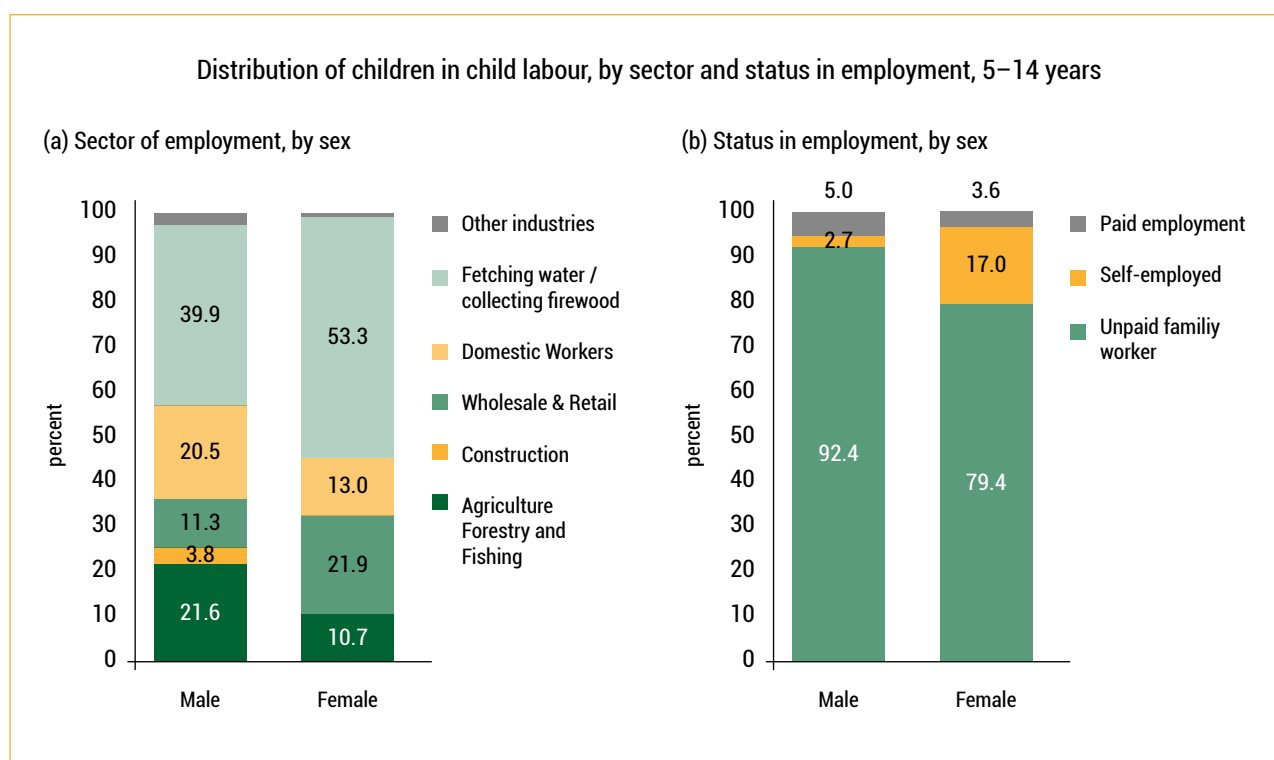
The largest share of children in child labour fetch water or collect firewood (45 percent); the remaining group in child labour found in domestic services (17.5 percent), agriculture (17.3 percent) and commerce (15.5 percent) (Figure 1). In terms of status in employment, children are found overwhelmingly in unpaid family work (87 percent).

A breakdown by age group reveals differences in the status in employment. Children aged 5-12 years work predominantly as unpaid family workers (96 percent), with the remainder in paid employment.

Older children aged 13-14 years are less likely to be found in unpaid family work (65 percent) and more likely to work as paid employee and self-employed (Figure A1a, Figure A1b).

Gender considerations appear to play a role in terms of the nature of the work assigned to children. As reported in Figure 15a, girls are more likely to be tasked with work in the services and commerce sectors, and less likely to be involved in farm work. While both girls and boys are overwhelmingly in family-based work arrangements, girls are relatively more likely than their male counterparts to be self-employed (Figure 15b).

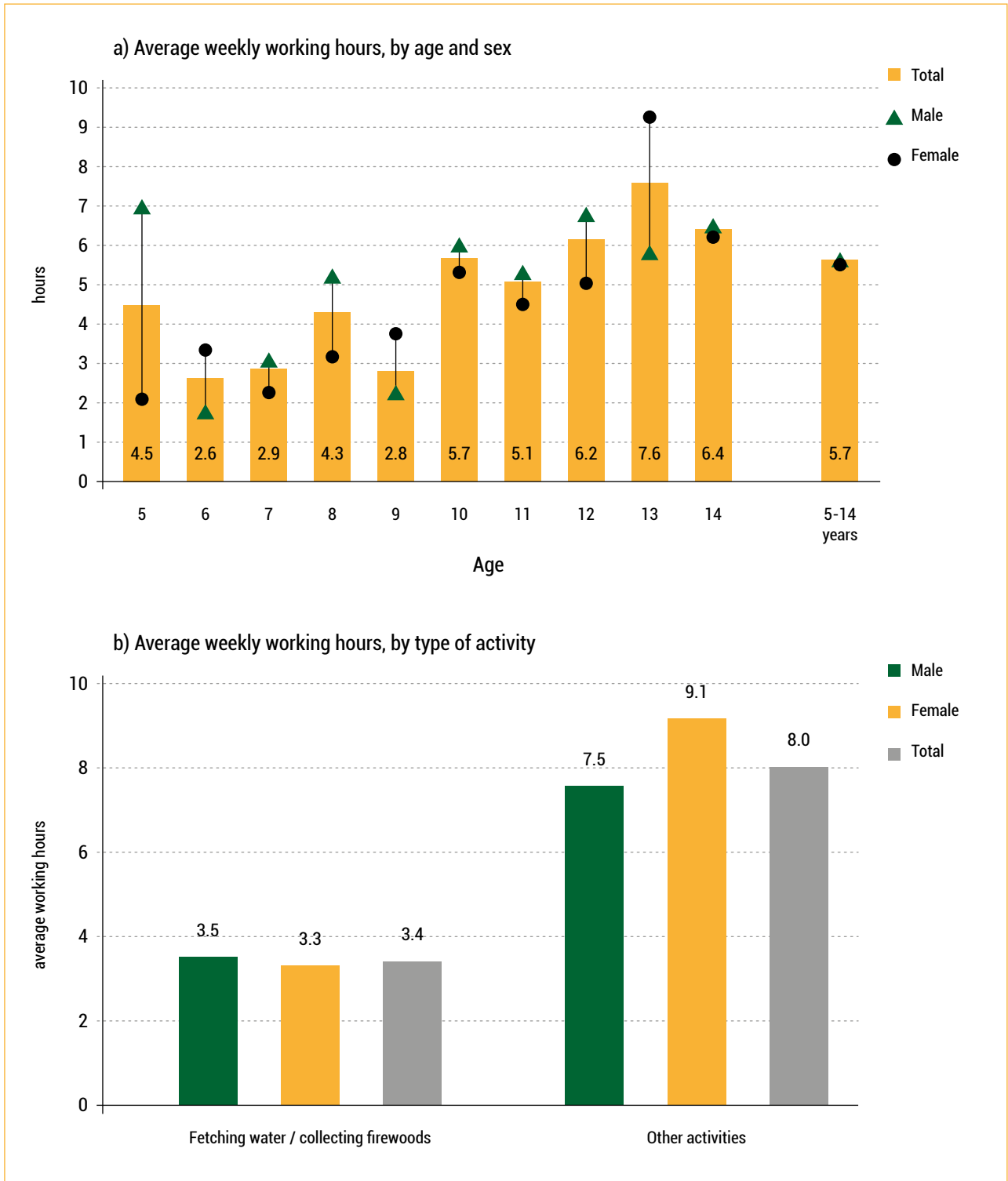
Figure 15. Children in child labour, especially girls, mainly fetch water or collect firewood within the family unit



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Working hours, on average, are not long, especially for children fetching water and/or collecting firewood. Children aged 5–14 years in child labour log an average of 6 working hours per week (Figure 16a), with those fetching water or collecting firewood working about 3 hours per week and those in other activities working about 8 hours per week (Figure 16b).

Figure 16. Children in child labour average weekly working hours, 5–14 years



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Chapter 5

Adolescents aged 15–17 years

Efforts relating to child labour and youth employment must include adolescents aged 15–17 years. Even though this group is over the minimum working age, they are still children in legal terms and still considered “children in child labour” under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 if the work they do is hazardous. In other words, adolescents are legally permitted to work but only if this work is not hazardous in nature. Hazardous work in adolescence can create huge barriers – educational, physical, psychological and social – that impede a young person from competing successfully for good jobs in the future. A key policy goal in the area of child labour and youth employment, therefore, should be to remove adolescents from hazardous jobs and prevent them from taking on these jobs. In this chapter, we address the extent and nature of child labour among children aged 15–17 years.

5.1 Involvement in child labour

Almost 8 percent of all children aged 15–17 years, 13,500 in absolute terms, are engaged in child labour in Jamaica (Table 8). The differences in involvement in child labour by sex and area of residence are pronounced for this age group. Child labour among adolescents is much higher for boys – 12.5 percent of boys are in child labour compared to 3 percent of girls. As with younger children, child labour among children aged 15–17 year is more a rural phenomenon. The share of rural children in child labour (9.6 percent) is higher than that of urban children (5.9 percent); in absolute terms, rural children in child labour (8,400) outnumber their urban counterparts (5,100) by more than 3,000.

Table 8. Children in child labour, 15–17 years^(a)

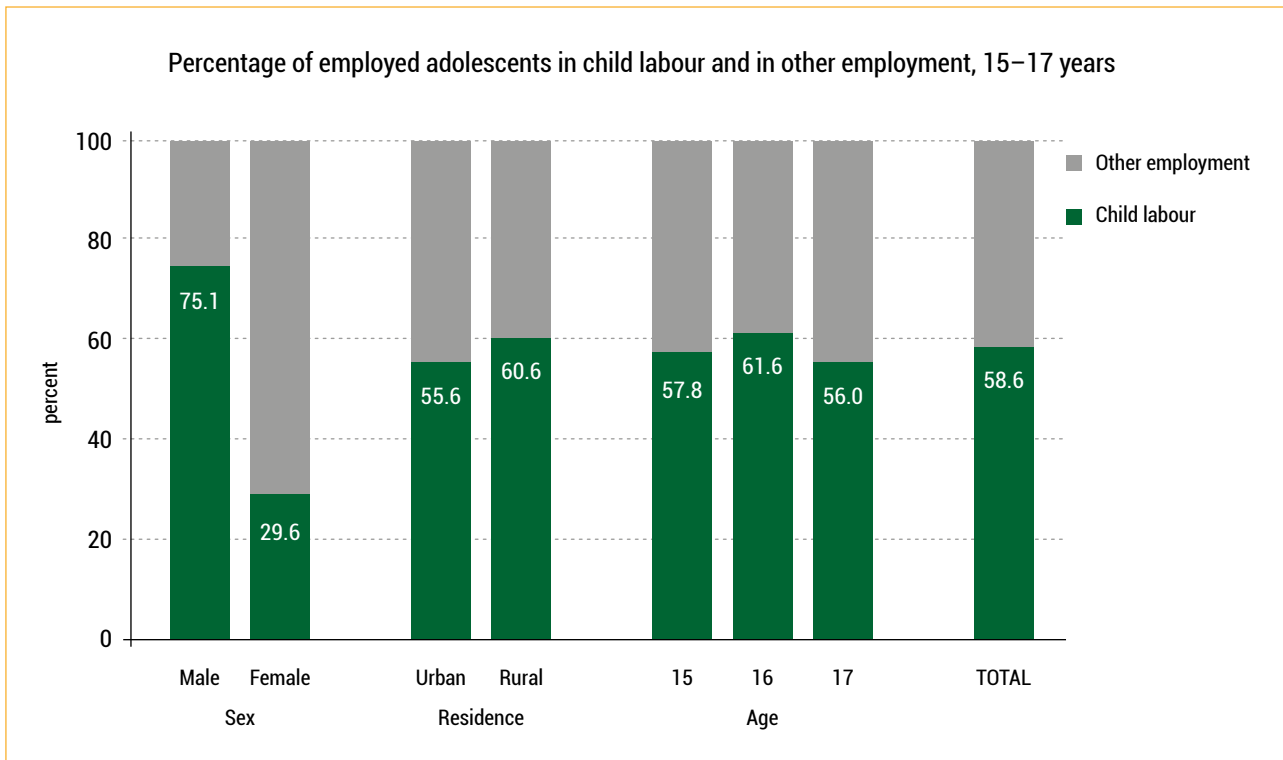
Percentage					
Age	Sex		Residence		Total
	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	
15 years	11.2	1.0	7.0	6.3	6.7
16 years	15.4	3.0	5.1	11.9	8.5
17 years	11.2	5.1	5.4	10.4	7.9
Total 15–17 years	12.6	3.0	5.8	9.5	7.7
Number					
Age	Sex		Residence		Total
	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	
15 years	4,003	282	2,470	1,815	4,285
16 years	4,132	977	1,491	3,618	5,109
17 years	2,949	1,228	1,191	2,986	4,177
Total 15–17 years	11,084	2,487	5,152	8,419	13,571

Notes: (a) Child labour constitutes (i) children working over 40 hours per week; (ii) children working during the evening or night; (iii) and children exposed to hazardous forms of work irrespective of working hours.

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Another way of viewing the issue of child labour for adolescents aged 15–17 years is its importance relative to overall employment for this age group. In Jamaica, almost 59 percent of adolescents aged 15–17 years with jobs are in hazardous work, i.e., are in child labour (Figure 17). The share of jobs that are hazardous is lower among female adolescents (30 percent). The high incidence of hazardous work among employed adolescents is one indication of the size of the “decent work deficit” facing this group.

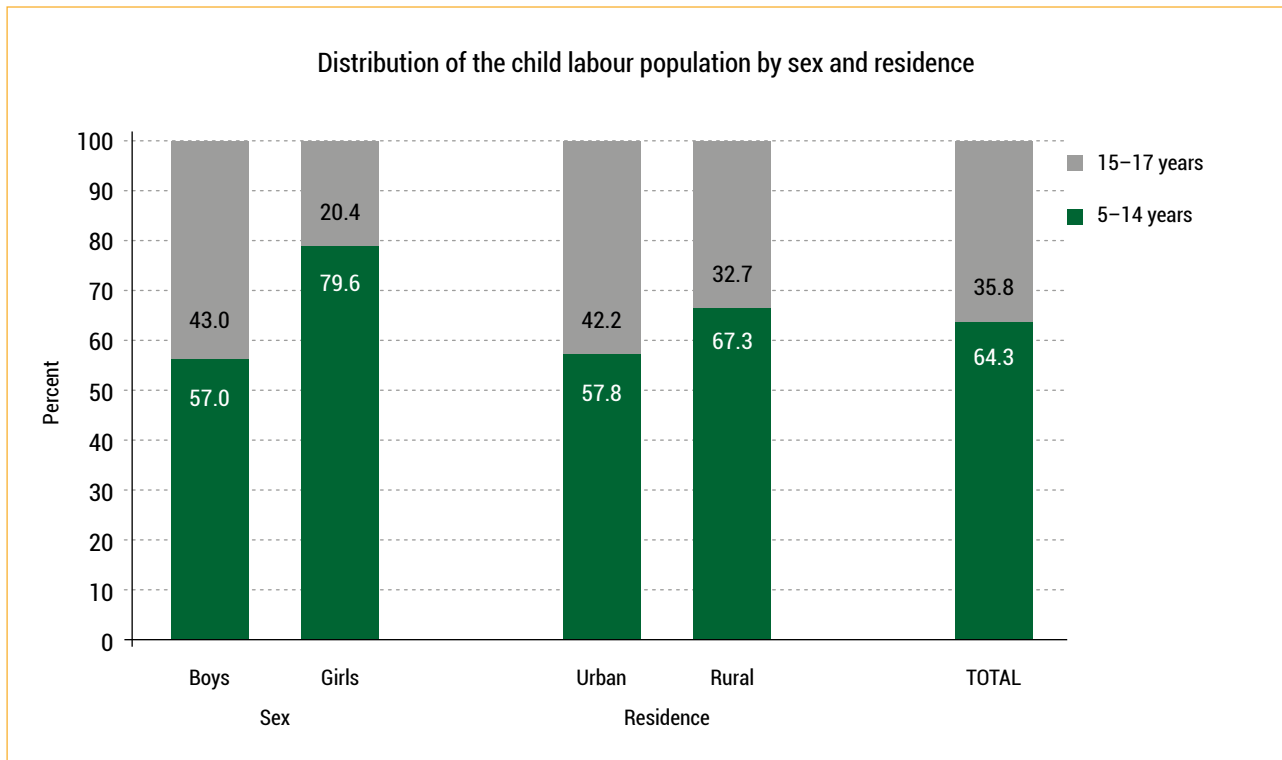
Figure 17. Children in child labour and in other employment by sex, residence and age, 15–17 years



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Children aged 15–17 years in child labour account for about one-third of total child labour in Jamaica (Figure 18). The fact that adolescents constitute such a large component of the overall child labour population underscores that it will not be possible to achieve child labour elimination without addressing the employment outcomes of this group.

Figure 18. Children in child labour, by sex and residence, 15–17 years



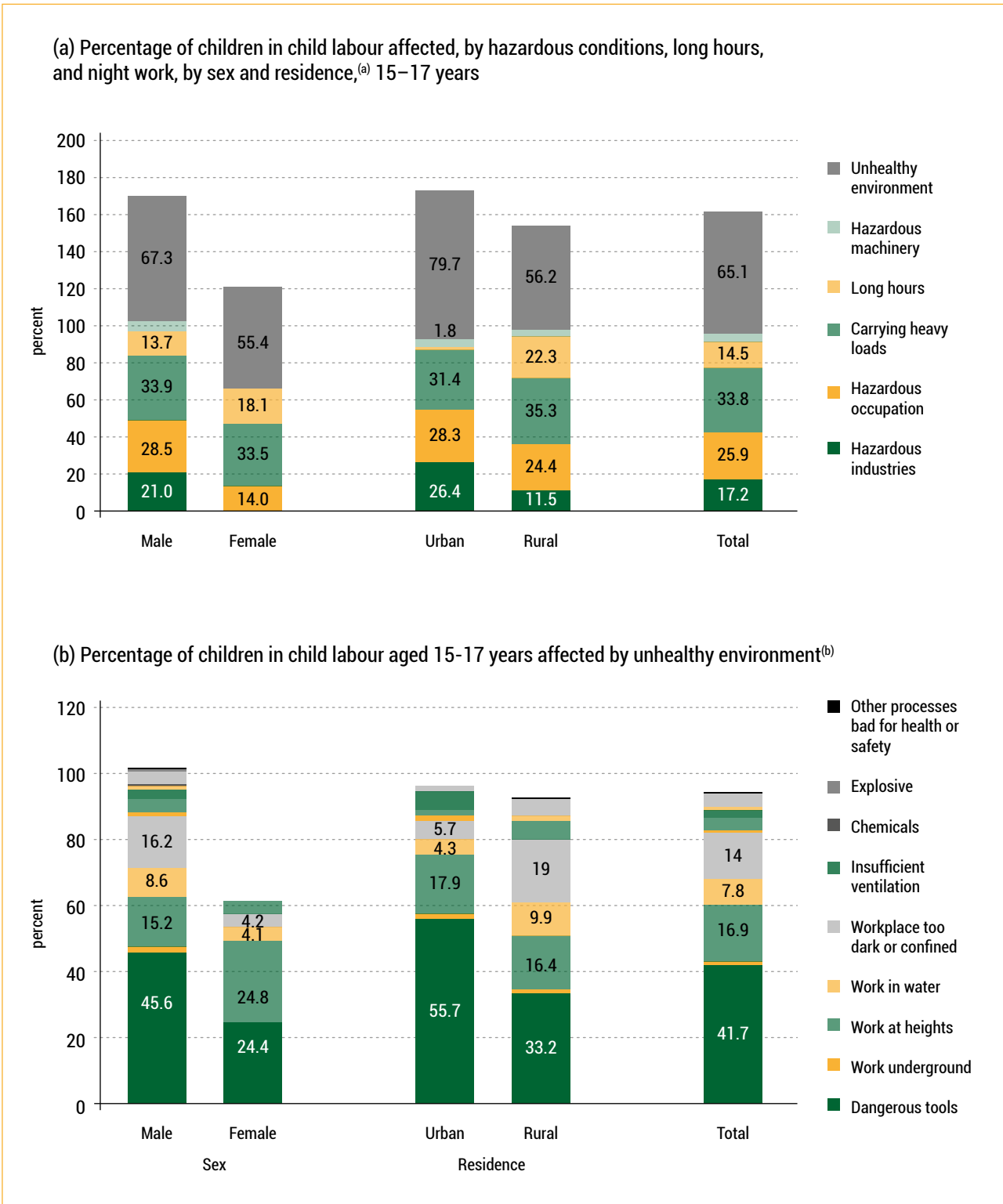
Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

5.2 Characteristics of child labour

All adolescents aged 15–17 years, who are in child labour are, by definition, working in hazardous conditions (Figure 19).²⁰ The overwhelmingly majority of adolescents in child labour are exposed to an unhealthy environment (65.1 percent); 17.2 percent of adolescents work in hazardous industries, 25.9 percent in hazardous occupations and 14 percent work long hours. Long hours of work are particularly widespread in rural areas. The combination of long hours, hazardous conditions and occupations is a particular concern because the greater the length of time that a child is exposed to hazardous conditions, the more likely they are to be harmed.

²⁰ In Chapter 2, a number of criteria were used to define hazardous work: hazardous conditions, lifting heavy loads, operating heavy machinery and working in an unhealthy environment.

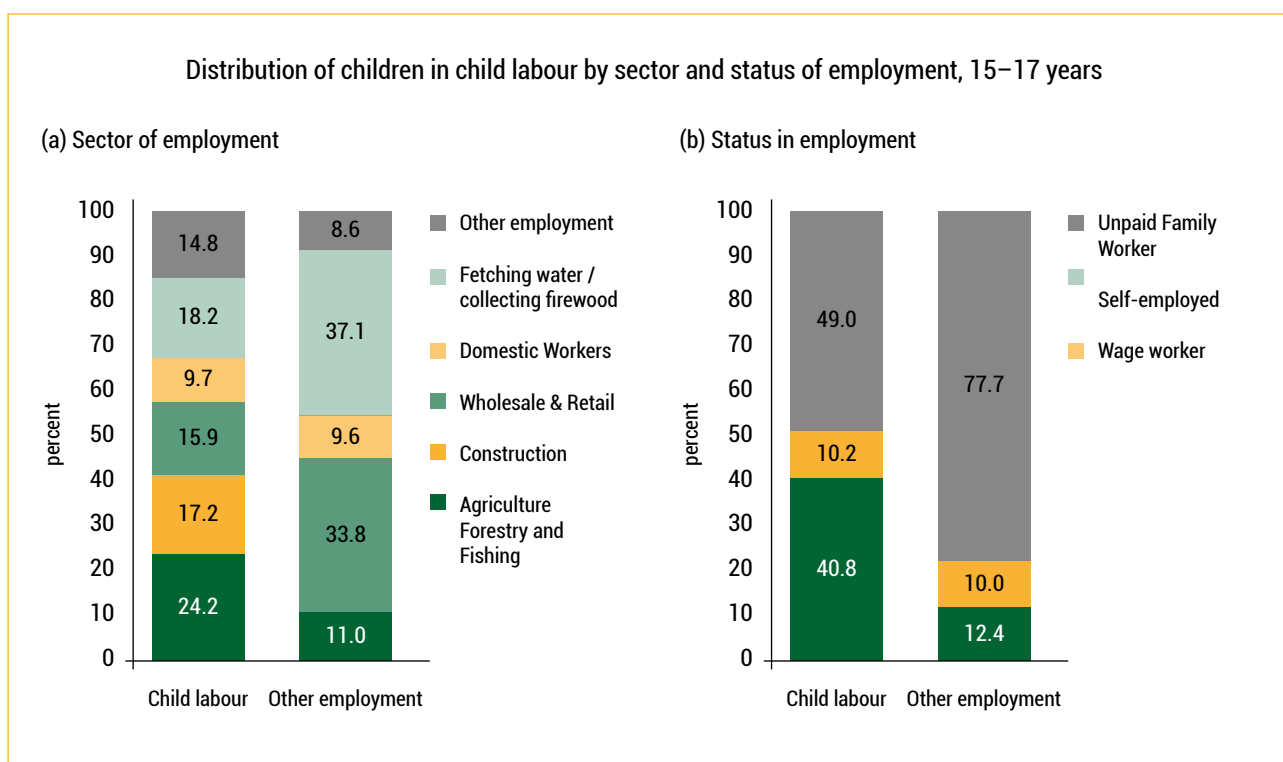
Figure 19. Hazardous conditions are the most important criteria for child labour among children aged 15–17 years



Note: (a), (b) Percentages for each sub-group add up to more than 100 because some children in child labour meet more than one of the child labour criteria.
 Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

One-fourth (25 percent) of adolescents in child labour are found in agriculture, followed by fetching water/collecting firewood (18 percent), construction (17 percent) and commerce (16 percent) (Figure 20a). It is interesting to note that this sectoral composition differs slightly from that of employment not constituting child labour for the 15–17 years age group. As also reported in Figure 20a, adolescents not in child labour are less likely to be found in agriculture and more likely to be found in in the production for own use in their own household (37 percent) and commerce (34 percent). Figure 20b reports the distribution of child labour and other employment by status in employment. Again, differences are evident: those in child labour are much more likely to be in wage work and much less likely to be in non-wage (family) work compared to their peers not in child labour.

Figure 20. Child labour is concentrated in agricultural work within the family unit



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Chapter 6

Children's employment, child labour and education

The degree to which work interferes with children's schooling is one of the most important determinants of the long-term impact of early work experience. Reduced educational opportunities constitute the main link between child labour and youth employment outcomes. If the demands of work mean that children are denied schooling or are less able to perform in the classroom, these children will not acquire the human capital necessary for decent work upon entering adulthood. This section looks at evidence of the impact of children's work on their education. Links between child labour, human capital levels and youth employment outcomes in Jamaica are explored in more detail in Chapter 7 of this report.

One way of viewing the interaction between children's employment and schooling is by categorizing the child population into four activity groups that do not overlap – children in employment only, children attending school only, children combining school and employment and children doing neither. This breakdown shows that 93 percent of children aged 5–14 years attend school only, while 6 percent combine employment and school. A negligible share of children aged 5–14 years are exclusively in employment, while the remaining 0.5 percent neither study nor work (Table 9). The interaction between work and school differs between male and female children, and between urban and rural children. Female children are slightly more likely to attend school exclusively (94.9 percent vs 91.7 percent), while male children are more likely to combine work and schooling (7.5 percent vs 4.8 percent). Almost 9 percent of rural students also work, while the share of urban students that also work is 4 percent.

Table 9. Children's activity status, by sex and residence, 5–14 years

Characteristics		Percentage						
		Activity				(a) & (c) Total in employment	(b) & (c) Total in school	(a) & (d) Total out-of- school
(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school					
Sex	Boys	0.1	91.7	7.5	0.7	7.6	99.3	0.8
	Girls	0.0	94.9	4.8	0.3	4.8	99.7	0.3
Residence	Urban	0.1	95.9	3.9	0.2	3.9	99.7	0.3
	Rural	0.0	90.7	8.6	0.8	8.6	99.2	0.8
Total		0.0	93.3	6.2	0.5	6.2	99.5	0.5
Characteristics		Number						
		(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school	(a) & (c) Total in employment	(b) & (c) Total in school	(a) & (d) Total out-of- school
Sex	Boys	199	225,760	18,483	1,647	18,682	244,243	1,846
	Girls	-	225,786	11,429	702	11,429	237,215	702
Residence	Urban	199	234,096	9,414	435	9,613	243,509	634
	Rural	-	217,451	20,498	1,914	20,498	237,949	1,914
Total		199	451,546	29,912	2,349	30,111	481,458	2,548

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

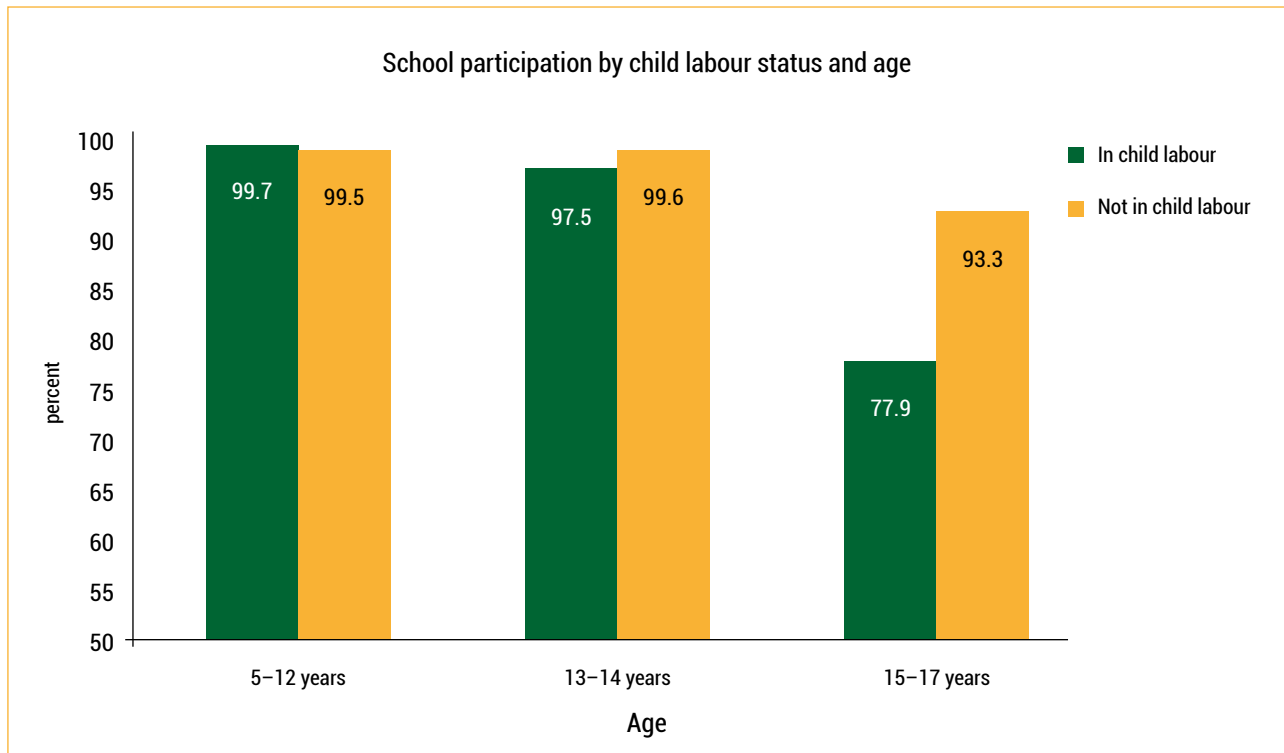
The interaction between work and school differs for adolescents in the 15–17 years age group, as the age of 15 years corresponds to the minimum age for admission to work and with the time that adolescents begin their transition from school to working life. A large majority (81 percent) only studies and a very small percentage (2 percent) only works; 11.5 percent combine both activities and 6 percent neither study nor work (Table 10). The activity status of rural and urban children is also different in this age group. Again, rural children are less likely to be in school and, among those that are in school, more likely to have to work at the same time.

Table 10. Children's activity status, by sex and residence, 15–17 years

Characteristics		Percentage								
		Activity				(a) & (c) Total in employment	(b) & (c) Total in school	(a) & (d) Total out-of- school		
		(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school					
Sex	Boys	3.1	76.5	13.6	6.9	16.7	90.1	10.0		
	Girls	0.6	85	9.3	5.1	9.9	94.3	5.7		
Residence	Urban	0.9	83.6	9.8	5.7	10.7	93.4	6.6		
	Rural	2.8	77.7	13.1	6.3	15.9	90.8	9.1		
Total		1.9	80.7	11.5	6.0	13.4	92.2	7.9		
Characteristics		Number								
		Sex	Male	2,705	67,685	12,049	6,075	14,754	79,734	8,780
			Female	533	72,429	7,876	4,340	8,409	80,305	4,873
Residence	Urban	776	72,437	8,493	4,935	9,269	80,930	5,711		
	Rural	2,462	67,677	11,432	5,480	13,894	79,109	7,942		
Total		3,238	140,114	19,925	10,415	23,163	160,039	13,653		

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Children in child labour aged 15–17 years are disadvantaged in school attendance: the school attendance of children in child labour is almost 15 percentage points less than that of other those in other forms of employment.

Figure 21. Children in child labour in the older age group (15–17 years) are disadvantaged in school attendance

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Chapter 7

Young people aged 15–24 years

This chapter focuses on the labour market situation of Jamaican youth. It first provides an overview of the activity status of Jamaica's young persons and then looks in more detail at job access and job quality and at how both are influenced by levels of human capital. The definitions of the key labour market indicators used in this chapter are presented in Box 2.

Box 2. Youth employment definitions

Youth: In accordance with the Statistical Institute of Jamaica, youth are defined as those in the 15–24 years age group.

Labour force participation: The labour force participation rate is defined as the labour force expressed as a percentage of the working age population. The labour force is the sum of the number of persons employed and the number of persons unemployed.

Employment: A person is considered employed if they worked during the week prior to the survey for at least one hour for or without pay, for profit, in kind or for a family business. A person is also considered to be in employment if they were not working but had a job to go back to.

Unemployment, strict definition: A person is considered unemployed if they did not work during the week prior to the survey but are actively seeking work and are available for work.

Unemployment, relaxed definition: A person is defined as unemployed if they are “without work”

and are “currently available for work” but have not taken any steps to seek work. In Jamaica, the ‘relaxed’ definition of unemployment is used, given that the conventional means of seeking work is of minor relevance to the Jamaican labour market. The Jamaican labour market is less organized and a large percentage of the labour force is self-employed

Underemployment: A person is considered underemployed if they are working less than 35 hours a week. The underemployment rate shows those who are underemployed expressed as a percentage of the total employed population.

Inactivity: A person is considered inactive if they are not in the labour force. The inactivity rate and labour force participation rate add up to 100 percent.

NEET: Not in education, employment or training. NEET is a measure of both youth who are inactive and out of education as well as youth who are unemployed.

7.1 Youth labour force status: The overall picture

Of Jamaica's young people aged 15–24 years, 43 percent are in the labour force and 56 percent are continuing with their education (Table 11). A substantial share of youth – 11.6 percent – are both inactive and out of school. Among those in the labour force, 38 percent are unemployed. 'NEET youth', who include both unemployed youth and youth not in education or the labour force, make up 28 percent of the youth population.

The youth labour force picture changes considerably if we restrict our focus to the narrower group of 15–19 years. As reported in Table 11, rates of labour force participation (28 percent) and NEET (18 percent) are much lower for this cohort while education participation is much higher (77 percent). The headline labour force statistics for the young people aged 15–24 years also mask large variations by area of residence and sex, as also reported in Table 11 and discussed in more detail in the remaining sections of this chapter.

Table 11. Aggregate labour market indicators, by residence, sex, age and parish, 15–24 years

Population category		% of population				% of active population	
		Labour force participation	Education participation	Inactive and out of school	NEET(a)	Employment ratio	Unemployment rate(b)
Residence	Urban	43.2	56.6	10.1	26.4	27.0	37.6
	Rural	42.5	55.7	13.0	29.3	26.3	38.3
Sex	Male	46.4	53.2	10.7	25.4	31.8	31.6
	Female	39.7	58.8	12.4	30.0	22.0	44.5
Age	15–19 years	27.9	77.0	8.0	17.9	18.0	35.4
	20–24 years	71.6	16.2	18.5	47.0	43.1	39.8
Parish	Kingston	40.5	53.2	10.4	29.4	21.5	46.9
	St. Andrew	40.3	58.8	10.2	30.1	20.4	49.4
	St. Thomas	63.9	56.3	9.2	28.6	44.5	30.4
	Portland	61.0	55.6	6.2	25.7	41.7	32.1
	St. Mary	34.5	59.7	11.7	24.1	22.1	35.8
	St. Ann	53.4	50.8	9.6	33.5	29.4	44.8
	Trelawny	46.5	56.9	11.2	19.4	38.7	17.5
	St. James	47.2	54.7	9.4	18.0	38.6	18.2
	Hanover	43.7	54.3	12.6	21.4	35.2	20.1
	Westmoreland	34.2	52.0	17.8	28.9	23.2	32.2
	St. Elizabeth	53.3	54.1	10.1	22.3	41.4	22.9
	Manchester	44.5	50.4	11.8	31.1	25.4	43.4
	Clarendon	35.5	59.6	15.5	29.7	21.3	40.1
St. Catherine	38.7	57.4	12.5	29.2	22.0	43.1	
Total		42.9	56.1	11.6	27.8	26.6	37.9

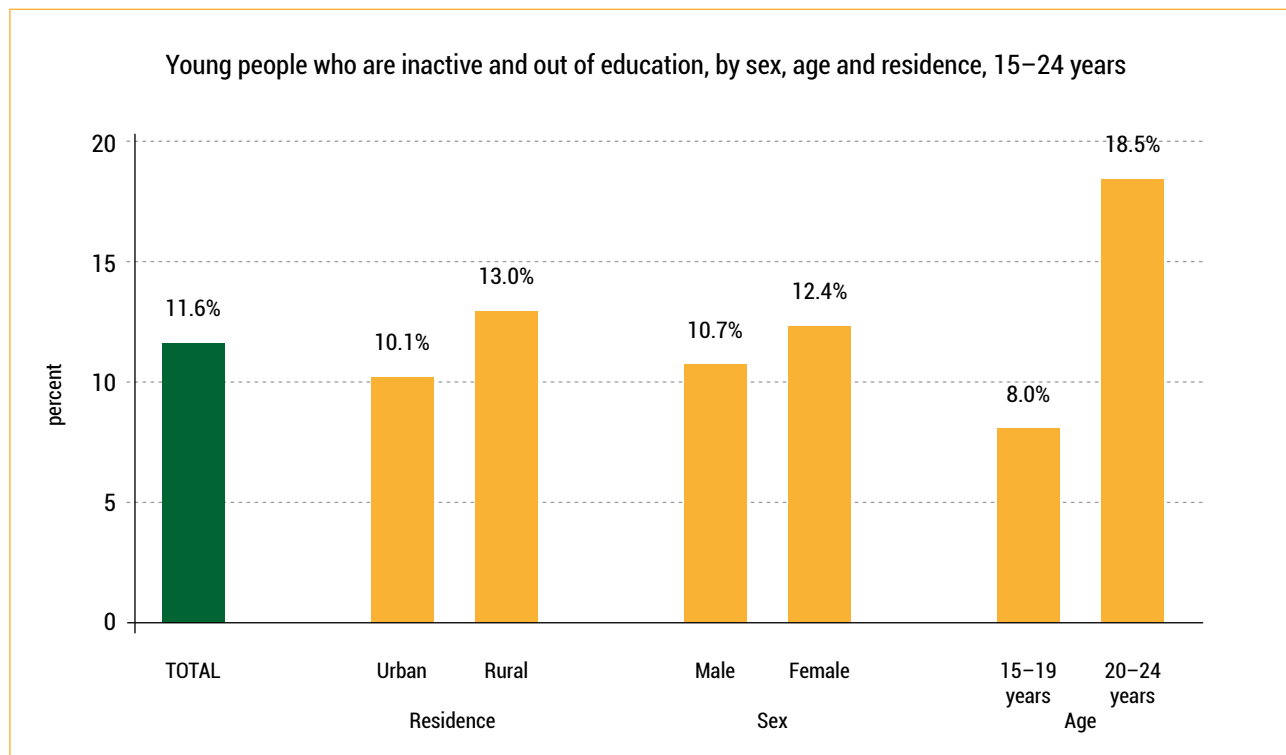
Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

7.2 Youth access to jobs

This section focuses on youth labour market challenges as reflected by lack of access to jobs. Two main groups of young people are examined in this context: youth not in education and not in the labour force; and unemployed youth. Taken together, these groups constitute the youth population who are not in education, employment or training (NEET).²¹ Young people who are neither attaining marketable skills in school nor in the labour force, and particularly male youth in this group, frequently find themselves at the margins of society and more vulnerable to risky and violent behaviour. At a macro-economic level, they constitute unutilized productive capacity and a constraint to growth. Other risks borne by unemployed young people are also well-documented: unemployment can permanently impair their productive potential and therefore influence lifetime patterns of employment, pay and job tenure.

Almost 12 percent of all young people aged 15-24 years are not in education or in the labour force (Figure 22 and Table 11). This figure is driven primarily by youth in the older age group (20-24 years): older young people are much more likely to be inactive and out of education. Residence and gender do not appear to play a particularly important role. The share of young people who are inactive and out of education is 3 percentage points higher in rural areas compared to urban areas.

Figure 22. Young people in the older age group (20–24 years) are more likely to be inactive and out of education



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

²¹ NEET is increasingly being used as an indicator of youth marginalization and labour market difficulties.

Almost 38 percent of young persons in the labour force are unable to secure jobs (Figure 4). This unemployment rate, high by global standards,²² is more than twice that of Jamaican adults (see Figure 31). Moreover, unemployment spells are particularly long: about 40 percent of young unemployed have been looking for a job for more than one year (Table A5). These are all signals of particular barriers to employment in the country. Not all young people, however, face the same risk of unemployment. Females face greater difficulties to access the labour market: the labour force participation rate is 6 percentage points lower and the unemployment rate is 13 percentage points higher for female young people compared to their male peers. In terms of age, unemployment is highest in the 20–24 years cohort, at 40 percent, compared with 35 percent for the 15–19 years age group.

Almost 28 percent of Jamaican young people are not in education, employment or training. This group of NEET young people consists of both those who are unemployed and those who are inactive and out of education. NEET is therefore a useful and comprehensive measure for assessing youth labour market difficulties and the concept is being increasingly used in youth labour market statistics, particularly in industrialized countries. Patterns of NEET young people by sex, age and residence are similar to those for unemployment. The incidence of young people in the NEET category is slightly higher in rural areas (29 percent), among females (30 percent) and much higher for those aged 20–24 years (47 percent).

7.3 Youth job characteristics

Obtaining a job is an insufficient condition for successful labour market outcomes. This is because many young people cannot afford to remain without work altogether and must accept jobs regardless of the conditions and pay associated with them. So concern is not limited to whether young people are working but extends also to whether the jobs constitute decent work, and offer a path for advancement and route out of poverty.

Yet, the multifaceted nature of the concept of 'decent work' means that measurement is a complex task. Decent work relates not only to access to full and productive employment but also to rights at work, social protection and the promotion of social dialogue. This section presents the few available indicators of job characteristics that offer some insight into whether jobs constitute decent work.

22 According to ILO estimates, the global youth unemployment rate stood at 12.6 percent in 2013 (Source: ILO (2013), *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013: A generation at risk* / International Labour Office - Geneva).

Box 3. ILO and decent work

'Decent work' sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. Decent work involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, as well as security in the workplace and social protection for families, and better prospects for personal development and social integration. It also relates to freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives as well as equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.

The 'decent work' concept was formulated by the ILO's constituents – governments, employers and workers – as a means to identify ILO's major priorities. It is based on the understanding that work is a source of personal dignity, family stability, peace in the community, functioning democracies and economic growth that expands opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development.

Promoting decent work for all

The ILO has developed a Decent Work Agenda for the community of work. Putting the Decent Work Agenda into practice is achieved through the implementation of the ILO's four strategic objectives, with gender equality as a cross-cutting objective:

- ♦ Set and promote standards and fundamental principles and rights at work
- ♦ Create greater opportunities for women and men to decent employment and income

- ♦ Enhance the coverage and effectiveness of social protection for all
- ♦ Strengthen tripartism and social dialogue

Making decent work a global goal and a national reality

The overall goal of the Decent Work Agenda is to effect positive change in people's lives at the national and local levels. The ILO provides support through integrated Decent Work Country Programmes developed in coordination with ILO constituents. They define the priorities and the targets within national development frameworks and aim to tackle major decent work deficits through efficient programmes that embrace each of the strategic objectives.

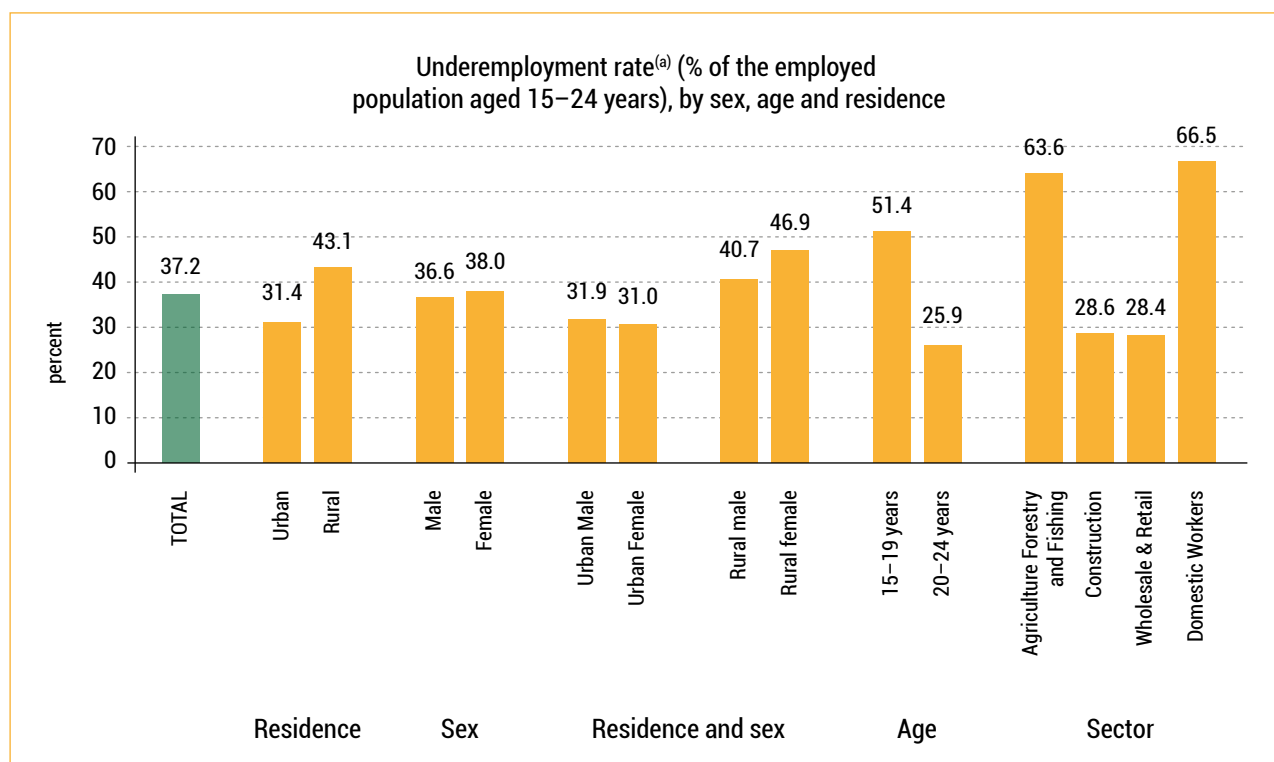
The ILO operates with other partners within and beyond the UN family to provide in-depth expertise and key policy instruments for the design and implementation of these programmes. It also provides support for building the institutions needed to carry them forward and for measuring progress. The balance within these programmes differs from country to country, reflecting their needs, resources and priorities.

Progress also requires action at the global level. The Decent Work agenda offers a basis for a more just and sustainable framework for global development. The ILO works to develop approaches oriented towards decent work for economic and social policy in partnership with the principal institutions and actors of the multilateral system and the global economy.

Source: ILO: <http://ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/decent-work-agenda/lang--en/index.htm>.

Underemployment,²³ sometimes referred to as “hidden unemployment”, affects over one-third (37.2 percent) of all Jamaican young people with jobs (Figure 22). The underemployment rate rises to 51.4 percent in the 15–19 years age group, suggesting that non-standard employment is a common entry point in the labour market for youth. Underemployment is much higher in rural areas (43.1 percent) compared to urban ones (31.4 percent) and particularly affects young people employed in agriculture and in domestic services.

Figure 23. Underemployment is an issue for young people, especially in rural areas



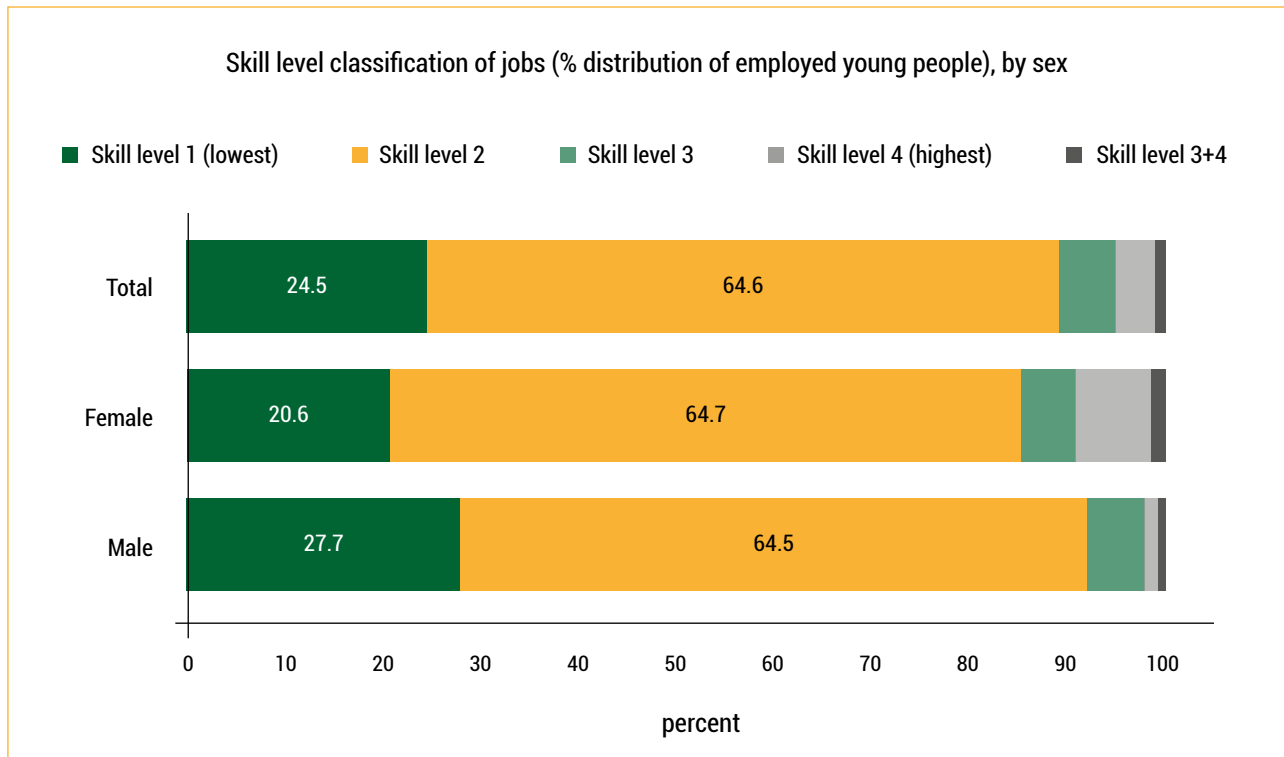
Note: (a) The time-related underemployment rate is defined as the number of employed persons in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total persons in employment. A person is considered in a situation of underemployment if they work less than 35 hours a week. Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Regardless the skills acquired or the education attained, young people are concentrated in low-skill jobs, another indicator of their decent work deficit. Figure 23 reports the disaggregation of jobs by skills requirements based on the four standardized International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) skills. It shows that 89 percent of all youth jobs fall into the first two lowest skills category²⁴ and 11 percent in the remaining highest skill category.²⁵ Low-skill jobs are slightly more common for employed male youth: more than 92 percent must settle for jobs in the lowest ISCO skill categories.

23 Time-related underemployment, as the only component of underemployment to date that has been agreed on and properly defined within the international community of labour statisticians, is the best available proxy of the underutilized labour force. The time-related underemployed as a share of total employment is measured as those who work less than 35 hours per week. The underemployment rate is defined here as the number of employed persons in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total persons in employment.

24 Skill level 1 requires only the performance of simple and routine physical or manual tasks.

25 Skill level 2 requires the performance of tasks such as operating machinery and electronic equipment.

Figure 24. Young people are concentrated in low skill jobs

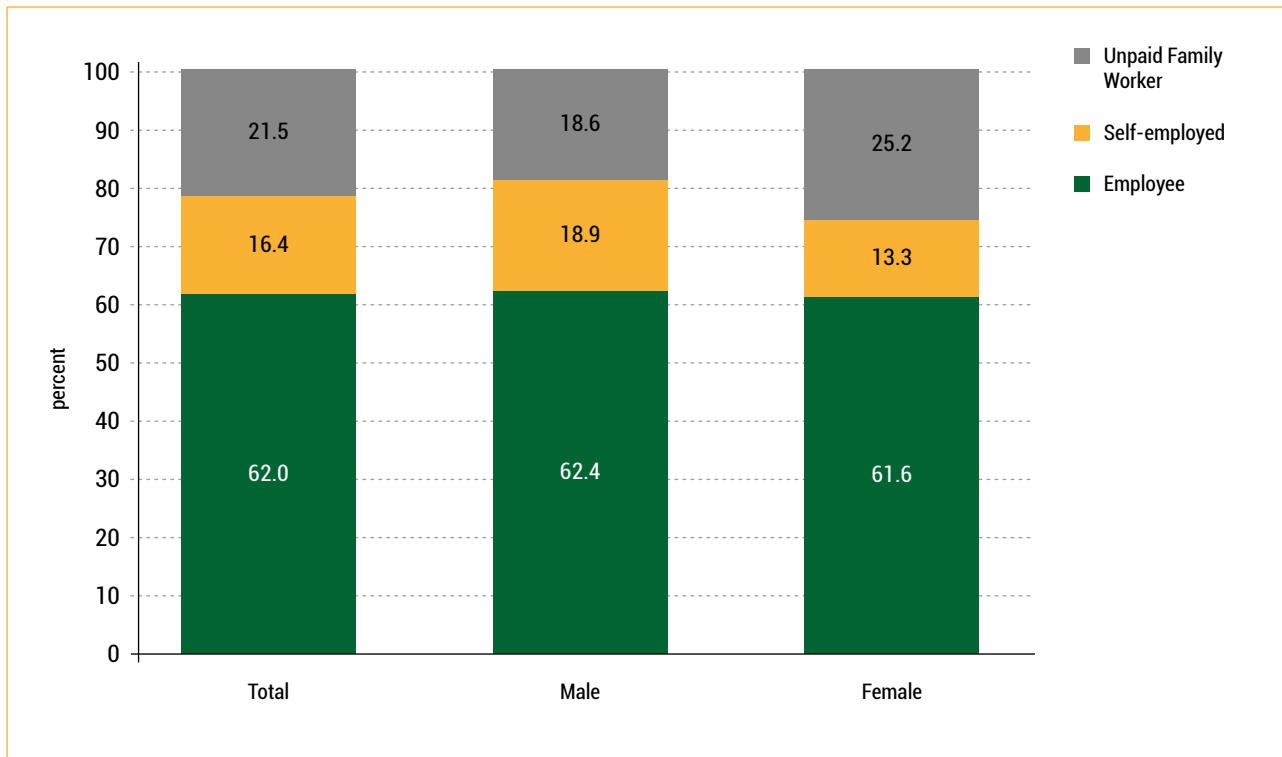
Notes: Definitions of each of the four ISCO skill levels are as follows:

- **Skill Level 1.** Occupations at Skill Level 1 typically require the performance of simple and routine physical or manual tasks. They may require the use of handheld tools, such as shovels, or of simple electrical equipment, such as vacuum cleaners. They involve tasks such as cleaning; digging; lifting and carrying materials by hand; sorting, storing or assembling goods by hand (sometimes in the context of mechanized operations); operating non-motorized vehicles; and picking fruit and vegetables. Many occupations at Skill Level 1 may require physical strength and/or endurance. For some jobs, basic skills in literacy and numeracy may be required. If required, these skills would not be a major part of the job.
- **Skill Level 2.** Occupations at Skill Level 2 typically involve the performance of tasks such as operating machinery and electronic equipment; driving vehicles; maintenance and repair of electrical and mechanical equipment; and manipulation, ordering and storage of information. For almost all occupations at Skill Level 2, the ability to read information such as safety instructions, to make written records of work completed, and to accurately perform simple arithmetical calculations is essential. Many occupations at this skill level require relatively advanced literacy and numeracy skills and good interpersonal communication skills. In some occupations, these skills are required for a major part of the work. Many occupations at this skill level require a high level of manual dexterity.
- **Skill Level 3.** Occupations at Skill Level 3 typically involve the performance of complex technical and practical tasks that require an extensive body of factual, technical and procedural knowledge in a specialized field. Occupations at this skill level generally require a high level of literacy and numeracy and well-developed interpersonal communication skills. These skills may include the ability to understand complex written material, prepare factual reports and communicate with people who are distressed.
- **Skill Level 4.** Occupations at Skill Level 4 typically involve the performance of tasks that require complex problem solving and decision-making based on an extensive body of theoretical and factual knowledge in a specialized field. The tasks performed typically include analysis and research to extend the body of human knowledge in a particular field, diagnosis and treatment of disease, imparting knowledge to others, and design of structures or machinery and of processes for construction and production. Occupations at this skill level generally require extended levels of literacy and numeracy, sometimes at a very high level, and excellent interpersonal communication skills. These skills generally include the ability to understand complex written material and communicate complex ideas in media such as books, reports and oral presentations.

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

A substantial portion of employed young people is concentrated in non-remunerated jobs in the informal economy. Figure 25 indicates that less than two-thirds of youth jobs (62 percent) are in paid employment; the rest involves a variety of informal work arrangements. Females are more likely to be work in unpaid family settings. More than 38 percent of jobs involve either family-based work (21.5 percent) or self-employed work (13.3 percent). As emphasized by the ILO, although it is hard to generalize concerning the quality of informal employment arrangements, they often lack adequate protection, safe working conditions and social benefits such as pensions, sick pay and health insurance.²⁶

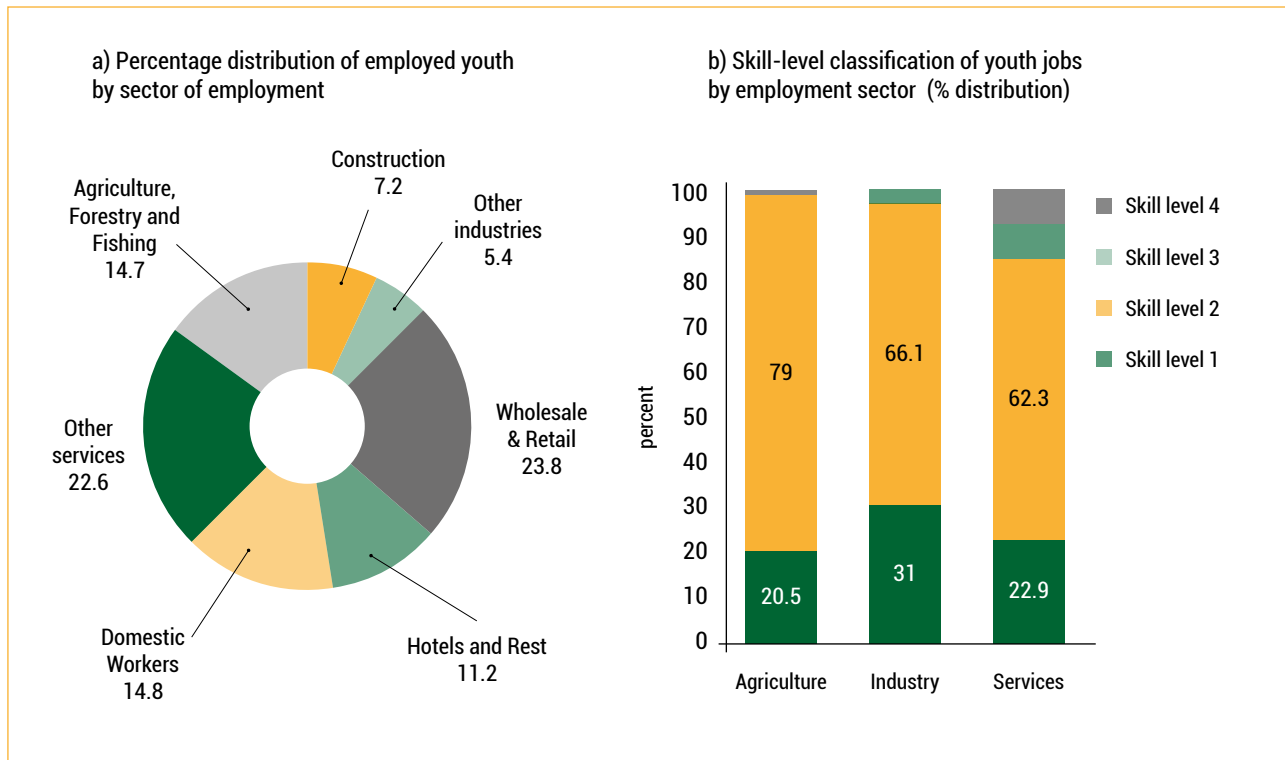
26 ILO, Informal economy information page, available at <http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-promotion/informal-economy/lang--en/index.htm>.

Figure 25. Young people status in employment, by sex

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

The sector of employment also provides insight into the nature of work performed by young people. As reported in Figure 25a, the largest shares of employed youth are found in commerce (24 percent), domestic work (15 percent) and other services (23 percent), and in agriculture (15 percent). Across all sectors, the largest proportion of young people's jobs are low-skill (i.e., skill level 1 or 2) (Figure 25b).

Figure 26. Youth employment, by sector and skill-level, 15–24 years



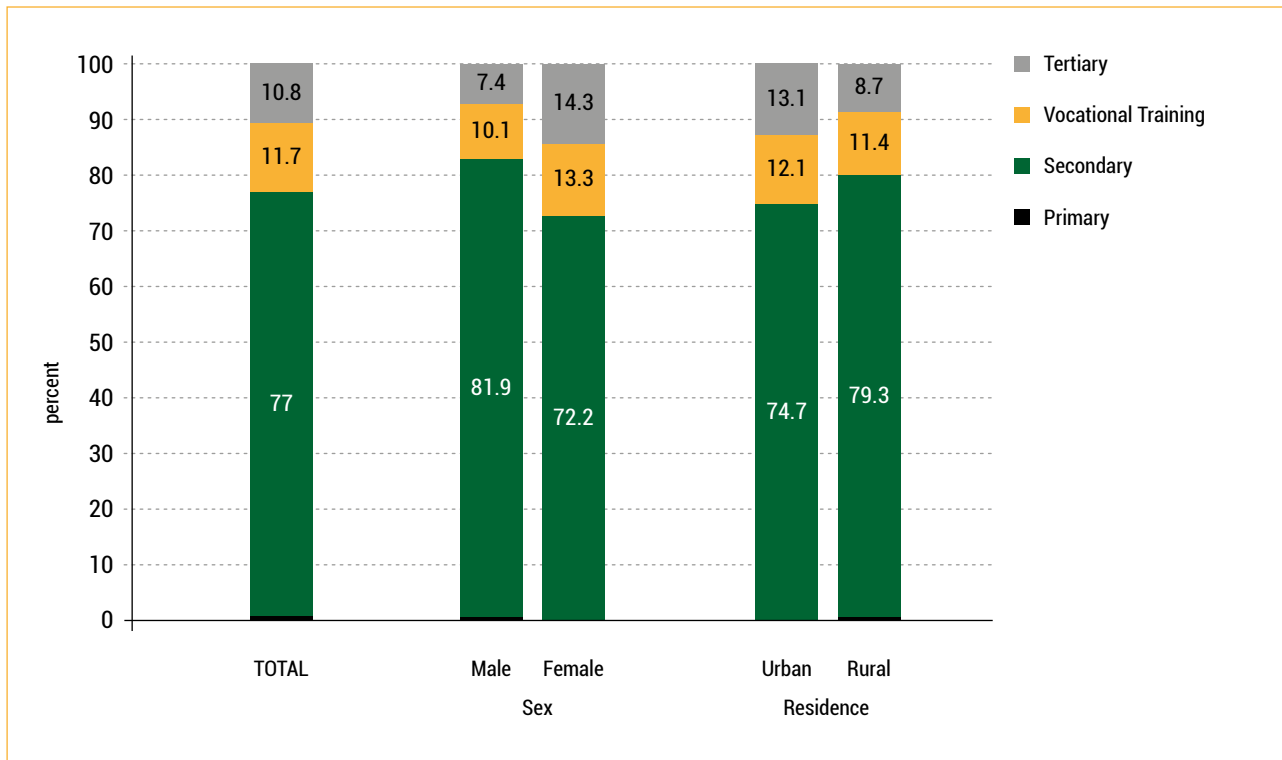
Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

7.4 Human capital and youth employment outcomes

This section looks at the role of education in youth labour market outcomes.

Educational attainment of Jamaica's labour force has increased substantially in the last two decades. Today, 77 percent of Jamaican youth have a secondary education (Figure 27), while 12 percent have vocational training and 11 percent have tertiary education. Levels of educational attainment are higher for female youth than for male youth, and for urban youth compared to their peers living in rural areas.

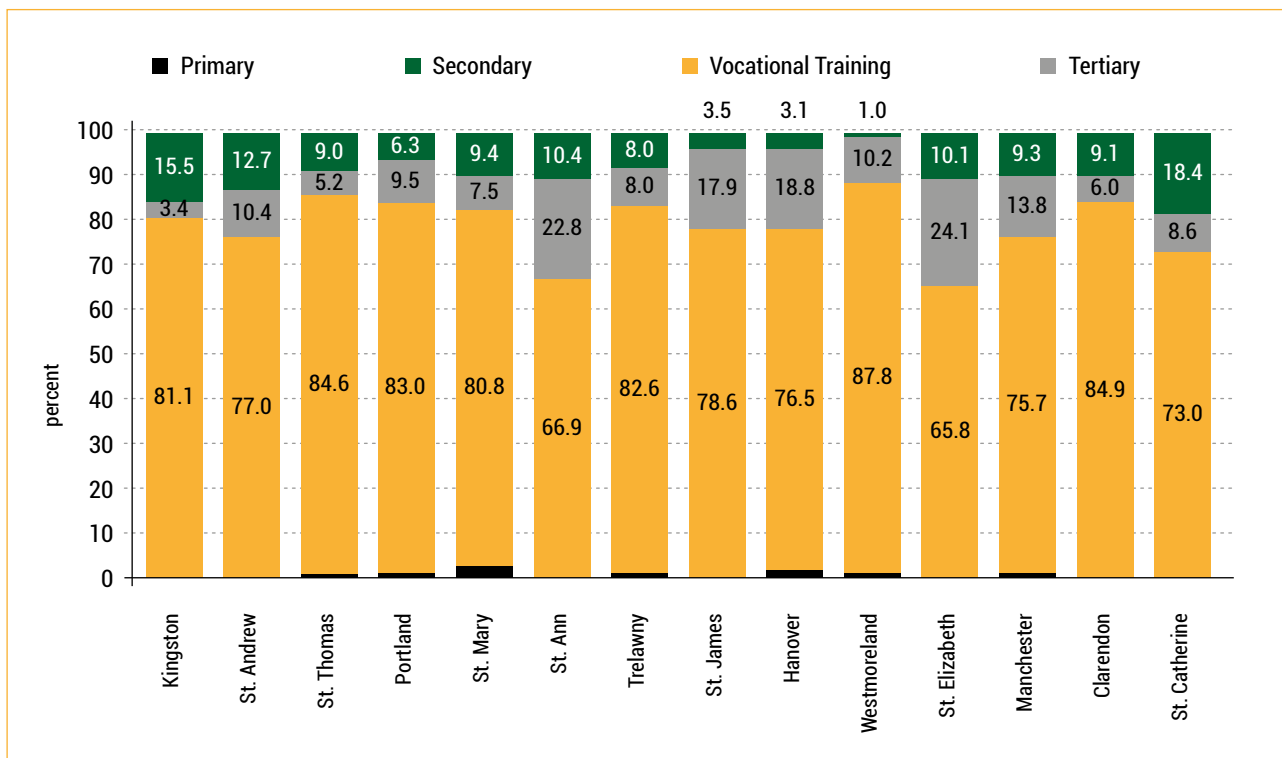
Figure 27. Educational attainment of the non-student population, by sex and residence, 15–24 years



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

There are large differences in attained educational levels across parishes. Approximately 88 percent of young people has attained a secondary education level in the parish of Westmoreland, whereas this percentage reduces to 66 the parishes of St. Ann and St. Elizabeth (Figure 28).

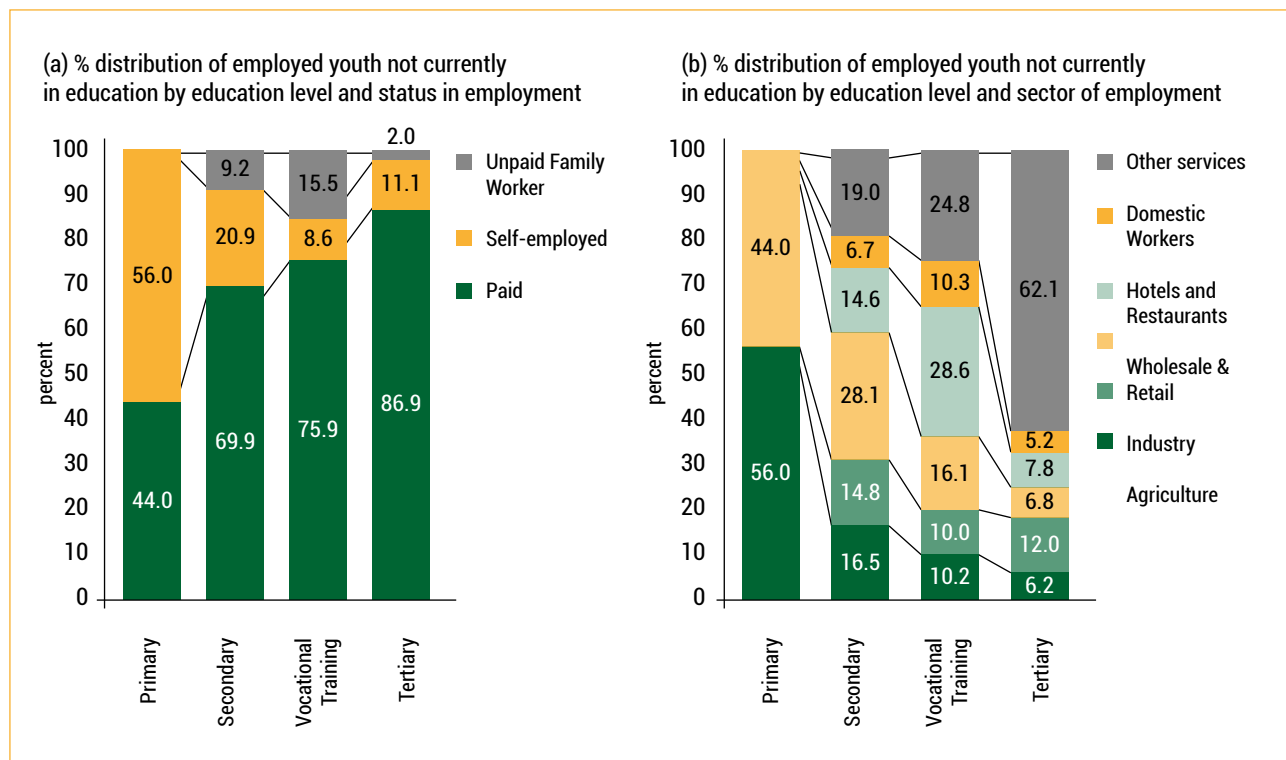
Figure 28. Educational attainment of the non-student population, by parish, 15–24 years



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Level of education is clearly linked with future job outcomes. Figure 29 reports the composition of youth employment by level of education. It shows that the likelihood of wage work and of work in the services sector both rise consistently with more education. Conversely, the less education, the higher the likelihood of being self-employed and in agriculture. Involvement in wage employment rises from 44 percent among those with least education to 87 percent among those with most education. Similarly, work in the services sector goes from 44 percent for the least educated to 82 percent for those with higher education.

Figure 29. Better-educated youth are much more likely to be in wage and tertiary sector employment

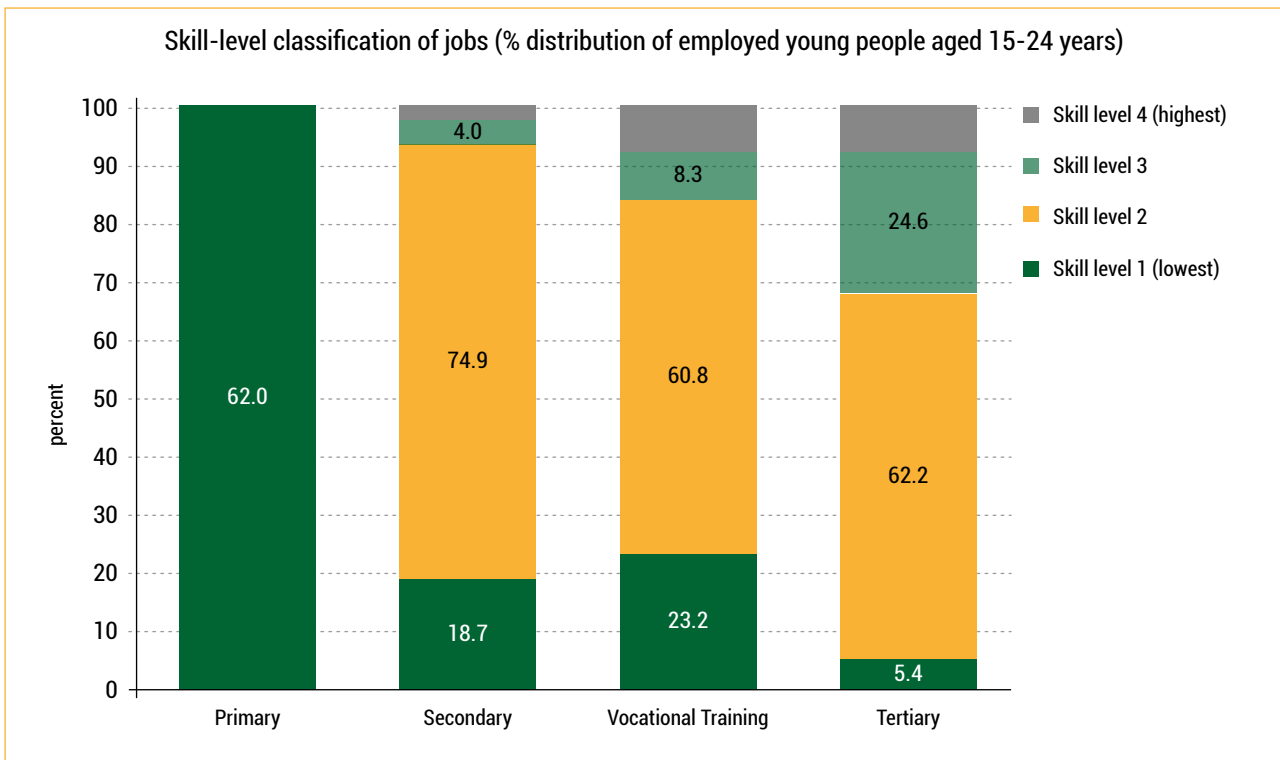


Note: (a) The category 'Other Services' includes: transport, real estate, financial intermediation, education, public administration and other community services
 Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Educated young people are more likely to be found in jobs requiring high skills, although a large share of even highly educated youth must settle for low-skill jobs. This is a signal of a skills mismatch as reported in.

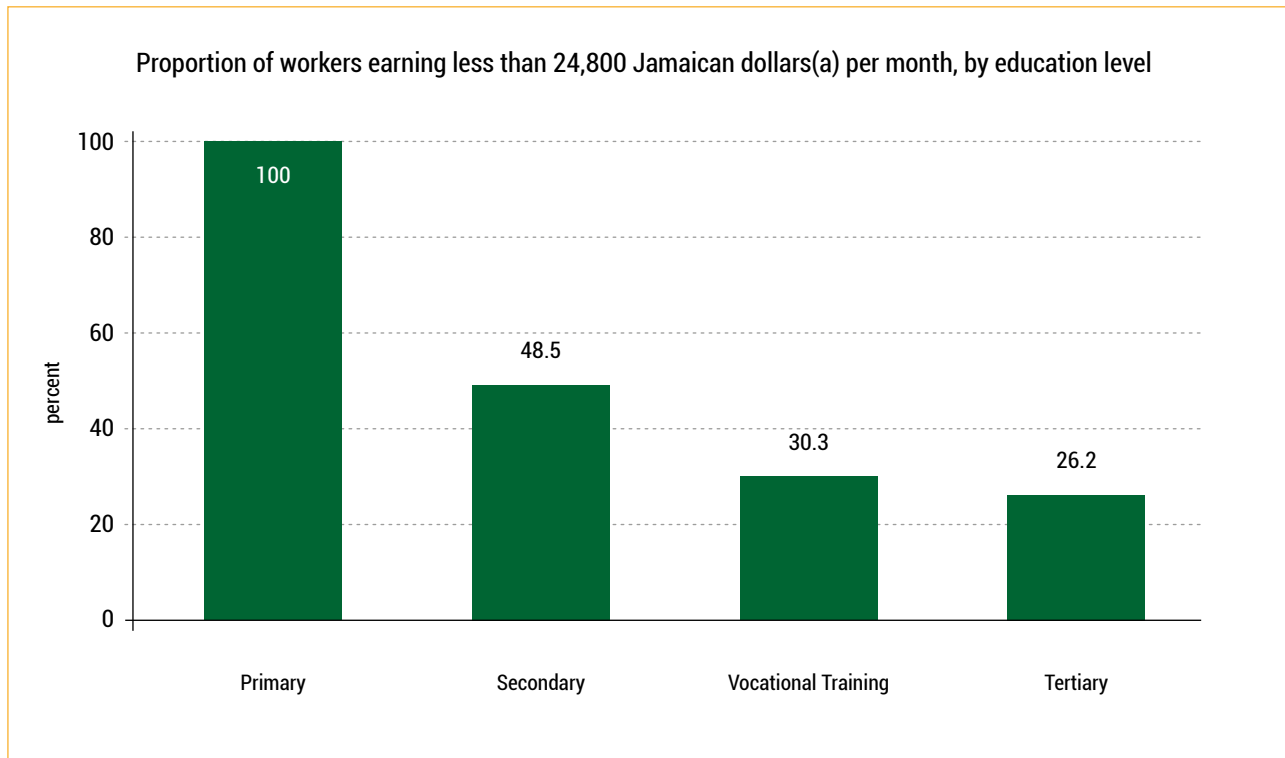
Figure 30, young people with up to and including secondary education are concentrated overwhelming in low-skill jobs. The situation changes somewhat for most-educated youth, but even in this group about two-thirds (67.6 percent) are in jobs in the two lowest skill classifications.

Figure 30. A substantial of even well-educated young people must settle for low-skill jobs



Note: Definitions of each of the four ISCO skill levels are provided in Figure 23.
 Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016..

Higher education is associated with higher earnings. Figure 31, which reports the average share of young employees who earn less than \$24,800 per month by education level, shows that successive levels of educational attainment are associated with higher earnings. Virtually all young workers with only primary education have earnings below \$24,800, while the share of low-earning workers fall to 49 percent for those with secondary education, to 30 percent for those with vocational training and to 27 percent for those with tertiary education.

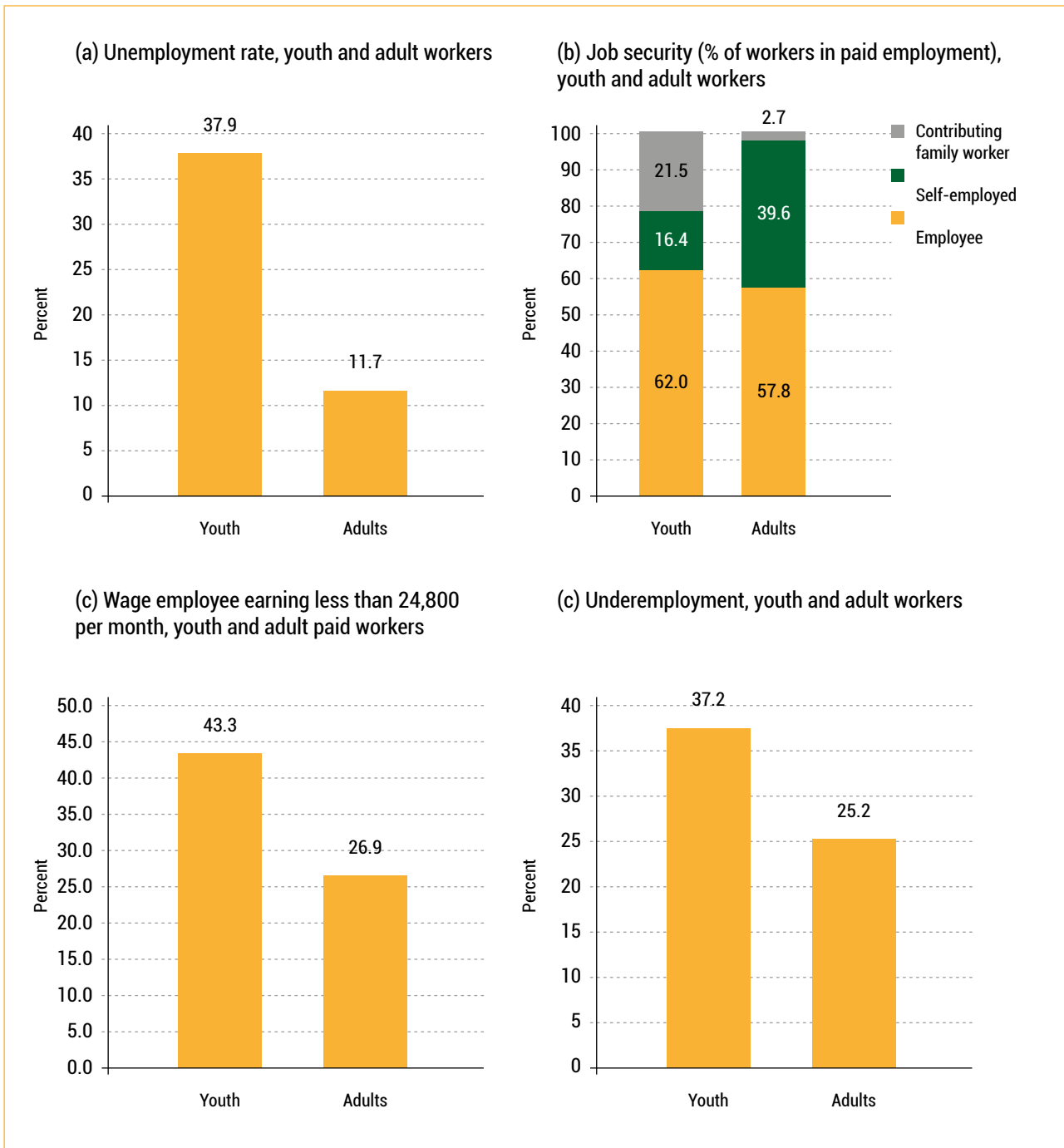
Figure 31. Low education is associated with lower levels of earnings

Note: Definitions of each of the four ISCO skill levels are provided in Figure 23.
 Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016..

7.5 Relative position of youth in the labour market

Young workers appear disadvantaged vis-à-vis their adult counterparts in terms of both job access and quality (Figure 32). The youth unemployment rate is more than three times higher than the adult rate; this pattern holds for both sexes and in both rural and urban locations (Figure 33). The particular barriers to employment faced by youth in Jamaica need to be addressed by policymakers.

Figure 32. Young people appear disadvantaged vis-à-vis their adult counterparts in terms of both job access and quality

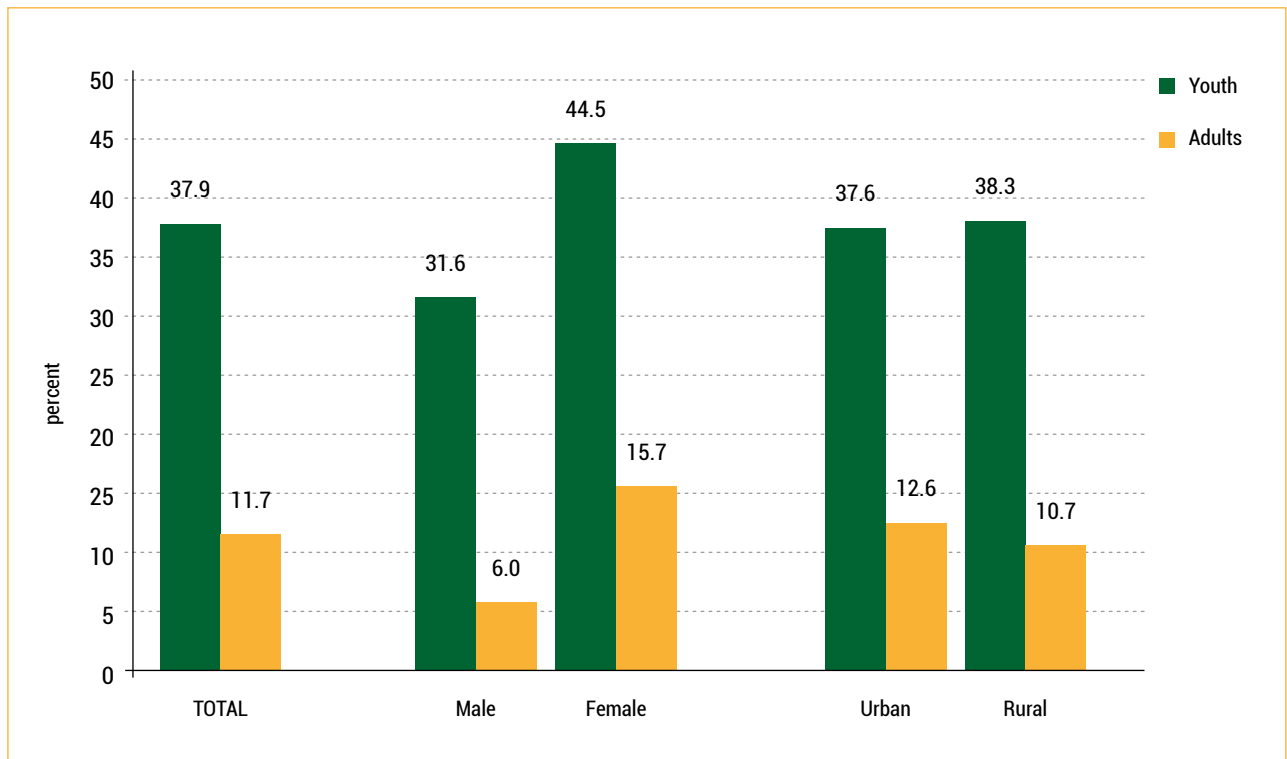


Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Underemployment affects both young people and adults, but affects youth more: 37 percent of the employed youth population is underemployed compared to 25 percent of adult workers.

Wage levels for young workers are lower than for their adult counterparts. More than 40 percent of young people holding a paid job earn less than 24,800 JMD per month.

Figure 33. Unemployment rate, youth and adult workers



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Chapter 8

National responses to child labour and youth employment concerns

8.1 National legal framework for child labour

Jamaica has ratified the three most important international legal instruments relating to child protection and child labour: the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC),²⁷ ILO Convention No. 182 (the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention) and ILO Convention No. 138 (the Minimum Age Convention)²⁸.

The Government has also endorsed the Optional Protocol to the CRC on the involvement of children in armed conflict and the Optional Protocol to the CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography.

Jamaica has also signed the Palermo Protocol in Trafficking in Persons²⁹ and the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children.³⁰

Most recently, Jamaica signed ILO Convention No. 189 concerning decent work for domestic workers,³¹ and the ILO Protocol of 2014 to the Forced Labour Convention.³²

These international commitments have been translated into national statutes and other policies. Of particular relevance are:

The Child Care and Protection Act which became effective 26 March 2004 and represents Jamaica's first all-encompassing legislative response to the issue of child rights and child protection. The Child Care and Protection Act has created the following:

27 Jamaica signed the CRC 26 January 1990 and ratified it 14 May 1991.
(Source: http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/TreatyBodyExternal/Treaty.aspx?CountryID=86&Lang=en).

28 Both were signed on 13 October 2003.

(Source: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11200:5886508369279:::P11200_INSTRUMENT_SORT:2).

29 http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/TreatyBodyExternal/Treaty.aspx?CountryID=86&Lang=en.

30 <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/ProtocolTraffickingInPersons.aspx>.

31 Signed on 11 October 2016.

(Source: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11110:0:NO:11110:P11110_COUNTRY_ID:103236).

32 Signed on 13 June 2017. *ibid.*

- ◆ A Children's Registry for recording reports of child abuse and neglect; it places a mandatory duty of reporting on all adults, particularly professionals with a duty of care towards children.
- ◆ The Children's Registry was subsequently merged with the Child Development Agency in the Children Protection and Family Service Agency (CPFSA), under the purview of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Information.
- ◆ The Office of the Children's Advocate (OCA), a child rights watchdog for state agencies. The OCA can also provide legal and other assistance to children before the courts.

The Child Protection Act includes section 33, which expressly prohibits the employment of a child under the age of 13 in economic activity, and section 34 that states that the involvement of 13 and 14-year-old children can take place only in prescribed occupations appropriate to their age, which are not hazardous (night works, industrial activity, begging, or any other activity that interferes with the child's "education and development").³³ Prescribed occupations, under specific conditions and within specified time limit, constitute light work (section 38).

Hazardous occupations or activities that are prohibited for children are identified in other acts: Section 49 of the Factories Act: Building Operations and Works of Engineering Construction Regulations;³⁴ Section 55 of the Factories Act: Docks (Safety Health and Welfare) Regulations;³⁵ and Section 18 of the Mining Act.³⁶ Furthermore, hazardous industries of child labour are identified in accordance with the Jamaica Industrial Classification 2005 (JIC 2005) and cover activities that are listed under mining and quarrying (section C, division 10–14) and construction (section F, division 45); hazardous occupations/jobs of child labour are also identified in conjunction the Jamaica Standard Occupational Classification 2015.³⁷

However, while different laws sanction hazardous work, there is no comprehensive definition of it. The National Hazardous Work list, developed by the Ministry of Labour, is not currently linked to legislation that would ground sanctions such involvement.³⁸ Recently, the Government of Jamaica announced the development of a Light and Hazardous Work list, which is being undertaken through support of Winrock International and Lawyers Without Borders under the "Country Level Engagement and assistance to Reduce Child Labour (CLEAR II)".

The following acts are of particular importance because they prohibit the commercial sexual exploitation of children. The Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression, and Punishment) Act:³⁹ Section 4 of this act prohibits trafficking of children. Section 3 of the Child Pornography (Prevention)

33 Assessment of Implementation and Enforcement Machinery to Combat Child Labour in JAMAICA, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), February 2010.

34 Factories Act & Mining Act.
(Source: <http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/The%20Factories%20Act.pdf>).

35 Factories Act & Mining Act.
(Source: <http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/The%20Factories%20Act.pdf>).

36 Factories Act & Mining Act
(Source: <http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/The%20Factories%20Act.pdf>).

37 Factories Act & Mining Act.
(Source: <http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/The%20Factories%20Act.pdf>).

38 IPEC (2012) Jamaica: Child labour legislative gap analysis. Geneva: ILO, 2012.

39 Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression, and Punishment) Act (Source: <http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/The%20Trafficking%20in%20Persons%20%28Prevention%2C%20Suppression%20and%20Punishment%29%20Act.pdf>).

Act⁴⁰ and Section 40 of the Sexual Offences Act.⁴¹ Section 3 of the Child Pornography (Prevention) Act and section 40 of the Sexual Offences Act prohibit the commercial sexual exploitation of children.

During 2015–2016, the Jamaican Social Investment Fund (JSIF) provided support to the Office of the Children's Registry (OCR) to launch the "Breaking Silence"⁴² campaign that encouraged victims to come forward. It has been an important step in trying to combat the cycle of abuse.

The Early Childhood Commission Act (2003) established the Early Childhood Commission (ECC) in order to improve the quality of early childhood care. The ECC coordinates all activities, development plans and programmes within the early childhood sector.⁴³

The Jamaican Charter of Fundamental Rights and Freedom⁴⁴ grants free pre-primary and primary public education.⁴⁵ According to the Child Care and Protection Act,⁴⁶ it is compulsory for guardians of children between the ages of 4 to 16 to ensure the enrolment and attendance at school.

Child Protection Committees have been established across the island in collaboration with other major stakeholders such as UNICEF and the Child Development Agency (CDA), which has now merged with the Office of Children's Registry (OCR) and will be called the Children Protection and Family Services Agency (CPFSA). The CPFSA has been created in order to establish a more efficient child protection sector.

40 Jamaica's Child Pornography (Prevention) Act prohibits the production, distribution, importation, exportation or possession of child pornography and the use of children for child pornography, (Source: <http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/Child%20Pornograph%20%28Prevention%29%20Act.pdf>)

41 Sexual Offences Act (Source: <http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/Sexual%20Offences%20Act.pdf>)

42 <http://jis.gov.jm/jsif-supports-break-silence-campaign-protect-children/>

43 <https://ecc.gov.jm/about-us-2/>

44 Charter of Fundamental Rights and Freedoms. (Source: http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CCPR/Shared%20Documents/JAM/INT_CCPR_NGO_JAM_103_9245_E.pdf)

45 Ibid. "who is a citizen of Jamaica, to publicly funded tuition in a public educational institution at the pre-primary and primary levels".

46 Child Care and Protection Act No. 11 of 2004 (Source: http://moj.gov.jm/sites/default/files/laws/Child%20Care%20and%20Protection%20Act_0.pdf)

Box 4. Implementing agencies and organizations

The following agencies and organizations contribute to addressing child labour in Jamaica:

Child Labour Unit: Under the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS), the Child Labour Unit coordinates and shares information with other agencies to address child labour issues.¹

Child Protection Database: The government of Jamaica has created a child protection database that provides data relating to the protection and well-being of Jamaica's children.²

Office of the Children's Registry (OCR):³ The OCR provides a hotline to receive reports of child abuse, including cases that involve the worst forms of child labour and trafficking. OCR was subsequently merged with the Child Development Agency in the Children Protection and Family Service Agency (CPFSA), under the purview of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Information.

The Office of the Children's Advocate (OCA), a child rights watchdog for state agencies. The OCA can also provide legal and other assistance to children before the courts.

Child labour monitoring is shared by different actors in key sectors (education, labour, child protection, community security and safety): Education officers help identifying child abuse and neglect and other risk factors for child labour; Labour officers and Factory Inspectors monitor respectively the formal sector and compliance within the factory space. Specific units of the Jamaica Constabulary Force identify, investigate and assist in the prosecution of child labour offences.⁴ The Ministry of Local Government and Community Development, as well as the Local governments, also play a key role in enforcing child labour policies.

¹ https://www.dol.gov/agencies/ilab/resources/reports/child-labor/jamaica#_ENREF_24.

² <http://www.devinfo.org/childprotection/libraries/asp/Home.aspx>.

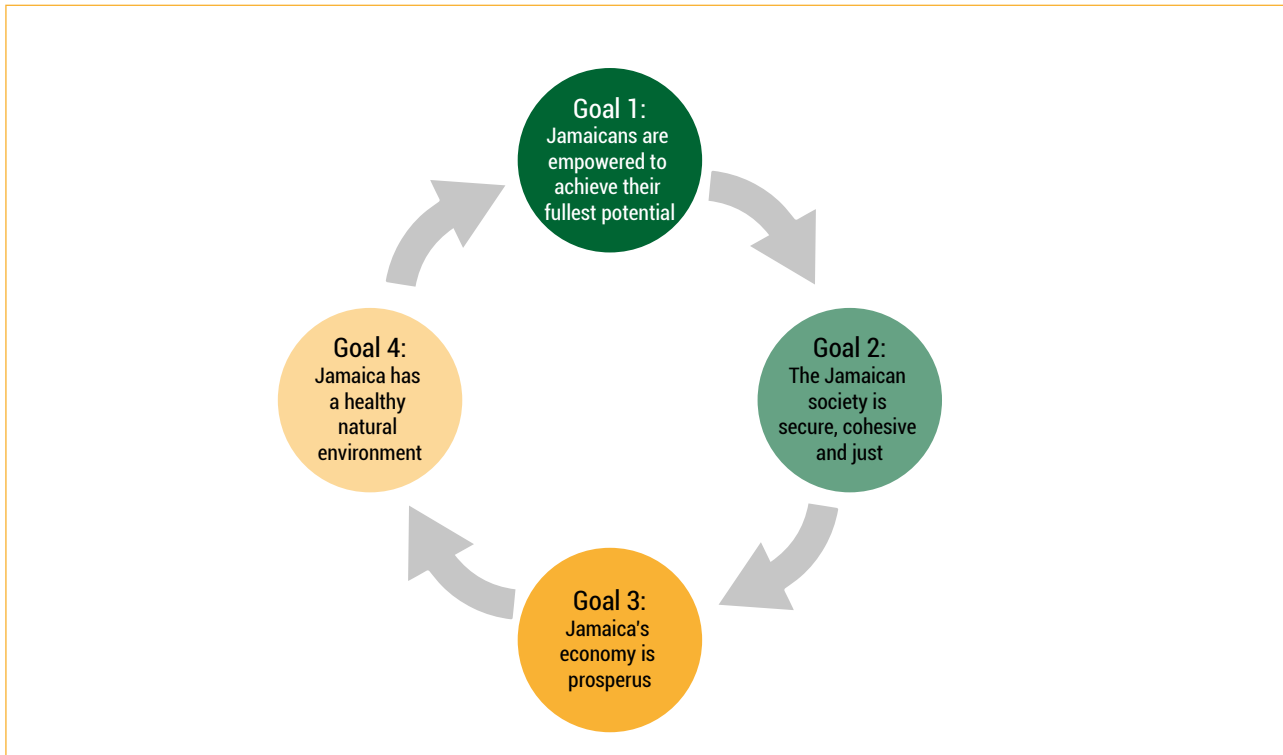
³ <https://www.dol.gov/agencies/ilab/resources/reports/child-labor/jamaica>.

⁴ ILO (2012). *Jamaica : Child Labour legislative gaps analysis. International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2012.*

8.2 National policies and programmes relating to child labour

Vision 2030 is the Jamaica's first long-term National Development Plan.⁴⁷ It is a strategic document for advancing development through short- and medium-term priorities. It is guided by four overarching goals aimed at securing sustained and broad-based improvement in the quality of life of Jamaicans (Figure 34).

Figure 34. Jamaica's National Development Plan



Vision 2030 places young people at the forefront of the nation's development strategy⁴⁸ and therefore aims to empower children and youth with the necessary capabilities in order to fully involve them in the transformation process. Its first goal is that Jamaicans are empowered to achieve their fullest potential by providing *World-Class Education and Training* (Outcome 2) and *Effective Social Protection* (Outcome 3). These outcomes are the most relevant from a child labour and youth employment perspective. Emphasis is on developing an education and training systems that allow children to gain the qualifications and skills necessary to be productive and competitive individuals later in life. The Vision 2030 indicates that efforts will initially focus on expanding capacity and providing education opportunities and training to under-trained population, particularly unattached youth.⁴⁹ The strategy to achieve an effective social protection includes: measures to identify and create employment and business opportunities for the unemployed and underemployed poor; improved targeting of and

47 Planning Institute of Jamaica. Vision 2030 Jamaica National Development Plan Available at: <http://jis.gov.jm/features/vision-2030-jamaica-national-development-plan/>.

48 Ibid.

49 Ibid.

the provision of benefits to the needy; and measures to increase the participation of persons with disabilities in all spheres of national life.

It is worth recalling that the plan identifies children and youth at risk as particularly relevant,⁵⁰ because it has been recognized that many behavioural problems, ranging from delinquency to crimes, are found in Jamaicans born into situations where little or no family support is provided.⁵¹

To provide support to children and youth at risk, Vision 2030 has provisions to address vulnerabilities, for example to extend the social protection system to protect households and improve the quality of education, and to ensure that the secondary school system equips school leavers to access further education, training and/or decent work.⁵²

To make this happen, the Jamaican government plans to invest heavily in both education and training as drivers for long-term development.⁵³ Within this framework, funding to primary schools was increased by 169 per cent and the contribution to all-age and junior high schools increased from \$11,150 per student to \$19,000.⁵⁴

8.2.1 Protecting children's rights

Jamaica has progressed steadily in regards to **children's rights**, in particular by adopting the aforementioned Convention on the Rights of Children along with developing the national law to care for and protect minors.

Other project and programmes related to children's rights are listed below.

The Jamaica Coalition for the Rights of the Child – JCRC's Child Rights Awareness Building Project

The aim of this project is to help teachers, parents and children better understand the Convention on the Rights of the Child and what it means to them. More importantly, it helps stakeholders translate their understanding of these rights into concrete actions in the school community. It is currently being implemented in over 40, mostly rural, primary schools.⁵⁵

Jamaica–UNICEF Country Programme 2017 to 2021⁵⁶

UNICEF's mandate is to support the Government of Jamaica in meeting its commitment to fulfil the rights of Jamaican children – as enshrined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child – and in achieving national goals for development under **Vision 2030**.

50 Ibid. p. 78.

51 Ibid. p. 92.

52 Vision 2030 Jamaica National Development Plan. Planning Institute of Jamaica. p. 57.

53 Ibid.

54 <http://www.moe.gov.jm/103-early-childhood-institutions-fully-registered-another-300-soon>.

55 https://www.unicef.org/jamaica/promoting_quality_education_2906.htm (At the Windward Road Primary and Junior High School, the guidance department has implemented a Breakfast Programme for needy children, with the assistance of the JCRC. Some 120 students now benefit from the programme).

56 Economic and Social Council, Country programme document, Jamaica. (5 August 2016).

(Source: <https://www.unicef.org/about/execboard/files/2016-PL27-Jamaica-CPD-ODS-EN.pdf>).

The Country Programme document is guided by the country's national development priorities (*Vision 2030* and the associated medium-term socio-economic policy framework 2015–2018).⁵⁷ It focuses especially on health promotion, lifelong learning, social inclusion for children and on safety and justice. This last two components aim to achieve the implementation of national legislation to prevent, mitigate and address violence and other childhood abuses and to ensure that the justice, education, public health, security and other sectors observe children's rights to this protection.⁵⁸

8.2.2 Education policies and programmes

Since its independence, Jamaica has made significant progresses towards providing access to quality education. Among the key policies and plans shaping Jamaica's educational system are: The White Paper, Education: The Way Upward,⁵⁹ the Task Force on Education Reform, The Education System Transformation Programme (ESTP), Vision 2030 Jamaica National Development Plan (see above), and the National Education Strategic Plan (NESP, 2011-2020).

The Government's White Paper emphasized quality education for all and life-long learning. Critical minimum target were set, including, among others full enrolment of the early childhood age group ages 4 and 5 by 2003, ninety percent average daily attendance by 2005 at primary level and teacher to student ration in primary schools at 1:35 by 2003.⁶⁰

The Report Task Force on Education Reform 2004⁶¹ was the result of a review of the education system, conducted through a consultative process. Its vision is an equitable and accessible education system, with full attendance to Grade 11, grounded in accountability, transparency and performances. Consequently, performance targets (as set in the White Paper on education) were redefined and a system review undertaken. Recommendations were both short to medium term (as constructing and upgrading schools, upgrading of Curriculum Teaching and Learning Support Systems).

The Education System Transformation Programme (ESTP)⁶² was born out of the 2004 National Task Force Report on Education, which called for fundamental changes in the way the education system operates. The programme saw the establishment of the National College of Education Leadership, National Education Trust, Jamaica Teaching Council and the Department of School Services.⁶³ The ESTP represents an all-embracing set of actions designed to result in improved standards of performance and greater accountability at all levels of the education system.⁶⁴

Among the objectives of the National Education Strategic Plan (NESP 2011–2020)⁶⁵ is the provision of equitable access to a high-quality education system for all Jamaicans aged 3–18 years. In addition,

57 https://www.unicef.org/jamaica/overview_15440.html.

58 Economic and Social Council (2016). Country programme document, Jamaica. Available from: <https://www.unicef.org/about/execution/files/2016-PL27-Jamaica-CPD-ODS-EN.pdf>.

59 Education: The Way Upward - A Path for Jamaica's Education at the Start of the New Millennium, 2001.

60 Refer to UNESCO (2015). Jamaica Education for all Review.

61 The Task Force on Education Reform, 2004 Jamaica Report and Education Transformation Programme.

62 <http://jis.gov.jm/estp/#overview>.

63 http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/columns/Sustaining-education-reform_84460.

64 http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/columns/Sustaining-education-reform_84460.

65 National Education Strategic Plan: 2011–2020, Ministry of Education, 2012.

(Source: https://www.mona.uwi.edu/cop/sites/default/files/Jamaica_NESP_2011-2020.pdf).

the NESP aims to improve the standards and quality of Jamaica's education system, by establishing a robust accountability framework for all stakeholders as well as improving learners' performance across the formal education system and providing a safe and secure physical environment.⁶⁶ It contains specific provisions for unattached youth, including the creation of a database of unattached youth, providing competence based education and training, and targeted training programs through NGOs, FBOs and other community groups.

Within this framework, in 2014 the Ministry of Education began implementing the School-Wide Positive Behaviour Intervention and Support (SWPBIS)⁶⁷ framework in a three-year pilot project in 56 primary and secondary-level schools nationwide.

Other policies, as the Safe Schools Policy and the National Play Policy, aim at addressing security issues and make schools more child-friendly.⁶⁸

The National School Feeding Policy⁶⁹ has the goal to promote regular school attendance and reduce child malnutrition through the provision of meals and snacks for pupils.⁷⁰ The Ministry of Education, Youth and Information spent \$4.3 billion under the School Feeding Programme for the 2016/17 academic year. The allocation provided meals for over 130,000 students in early childhood, primary and secondary schools, including beneficiaries under the PATH.⁷¹

Various International organizations and NGOs contribute to an equitable and accessible education. Some programs and plans are described below.

The Inter-American Development Bank (IADB) supports the Education Sector Transformation Plan Learning and Teaching. The plan seeks to improve students' learning and teachers' teaching processes through supporting three main areas: the strengthening of early childhood modernization initiatives centred on innovation in teaching, development of curriculum and materials, and regulation of the sector; support to teacher colleges to strengthen internal quality assurance and capacity-building for teacher education in numeracy and science; and technical support to the Department of School Services (DSS).⁷²

The Early Childhood Development Project is funded by the World Bank, begun in 2008 and will close on September 2018. The aim of the project is to improve the monitoring of children's development, the screening of household-level risks, and risk mitigation and early intervention systems; enhance the quality of early childhood schools and care facilities; and strengthen early childhood organizations and institutions.⁷³

66 *ibid.*

67 <https://blogs.unicef.org/jamaica/swpbis-jamaican-children/>

68 Government of Jamaica (2018). Government of Jamaica Policy Development Programme as at 31 march 2018

69 <http://www.moe.gov.jm/node/60>

70 Lavigne, M & Vargas, LH (2013).

71 <http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/news/More-than-130-000-students-to-benefit-from-school-feeding-programme>

72 <http://idbdocs.iadb.org/wsdocs/getdocument.aspx?docnum=EZSHARE-2096200225-3>

73 <http://projects.worldbank.org/P095673/jamaica-early-childhood-development-project?lang=en&tab=overview>

The Digicel Foundation⁷⁴ works to mobilize and distribute resources across Jamaican communities to improve education at the early childhood and primary school levels, increase access and opportunities for persons with special needs, and stimulate sustainable entrepreneurial activity.

Box 5. Gender equality, education and child labour

The elimination of child labour and the promotion of equality between girls and boys go hand in hand. Gender roles affect the way boys and girls are treated, influencing the constraints imposed upon and opportunities available to boys and girls. One of the social problems that may inhibit women's participation in education is teenage pregnancy. High rates of teenage pregnancy prevailed in Jamaica in the 1970s but have been falling since 2008. But teen pregnancy is still relatively high, with a birth rate of 59 per 1,000. Jamaica adolescents, especially girls, also remain at high risk of contracting HIV/AIDS: an adolescent girl between 10 and 19 years is two and a half times more likely to become infected with HIV than a boy of the same age. This might be linked to high rates of forced sex reported by adolescent girls (20 percent) and the high rate of sex with older men for financial gain.

The Government of Jamaica has made progress towards securing and advancing gender equality and women's rights. GOJ has endorsed the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence

against Women and ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the general Recommendation No. 19 and the optional protocol to CEDAW, and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention No. 111.

The National Policy for Reintegration of School-age Mothers in the Formal School System aims at ensuring that teenage mothers have access to education, therefore allowing them to gain personal, financial and social empowerment. It includes efforts to implement the mandatory reintegration of teen mothers in the formal school system, to support teens mother in completing education and awareness raising components.

Males are key actors in promoting gender equality: the Special Service Desk for Men, established at the Bureau of Gender Affairs, serves as a central point in providing awareness on a range of issues, for example, parenting, health, education and the role of men in the elimination of violence against women.

Sources: Kennedy D. (2017). *Jamaica's Policy for the School Reintegration of School-Age Mothers. How are we doing and where do we need to go?* Echidna Global Scholars Program Policy Brief (November 2017), Available at: https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/dasmine-kennedy_final_20171101_web.pdf

UNICEF, *Adolescent Development and Participation*, Available at: https://www.unicef.org/jamaica/adolescents_development_participation.html

Jamaica Information Service. *Special service desk helping men to be their best*, Available at: <https://jis.gov.jm/special-service-desk-helping-men-best/>

74 <http://www.digicelfoundation.org/jamaica/en/home.html>

8.2.3 Social protection policies and programmes

Current social protection policies and programmes in Jamaica can trace their origins to the beginning of the 1910s.⁷⁵

The government has prioritized the expansion of social protection and today's social protection system is made up of a contributory and a non-contributory system, administered under the Ministry of Labour and Social Security.

The Jamaica Social Protection Strategy is the guiding framework for an integrated and structured approach to social protection and the National Social Protection Committee – a multi-sectoral body comprising Ministries, Departments and Agencies of Government, private sector, academia, and other key stakeholders – was convened in November 2014 as the Government's institutional framework for providing policy oversight, monitoring, and ensuring a coordinated approach to Strategy implementation. While the Ministry of Labour and Social Security is to a large extent the major actor in the provision of universal social protection, inter-sectoral dependence is reinforced through the NSPC, which continues to strategically, and systematically pursue the ideals articulated in the Jamaica Social Protection Strategy.

Box 6. Towards a social protection floor in Jamaica

Several projects have contributed to expanding social protection in Jamaica:

The Social Protection Project (2008-2018). A GOJ/ World Bank supported project executed through four (4) components: 1. Improvement in the effectiveness of the Programme for Advancement through Health and Education (PATH); 2. Capacity development and implementation of the Steps to Work programme; 3. Public sector pension reform; 4. Development of a comprehensive social protection strategy. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security had responsibility for the execution of components 1 and 2, while the Ministry of Finance and the Public Service, and the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ) were responsible for components 3 and 4, respectively. The project ended in March 2018.

Integrated Social Protection and Labour Programme (2012-2016) consisted of several projects geared towards enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of select social protection programmes in order to improve human capital and labour market outcomes of the poor. The programme, which was granted an extension into 2017, was led by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and funded by the Inter-American Development Bank.

Integrated Support to Jamaica's Social Protection Strategy (2015-2019). This is a continuation of the Integrated Social Protection and Labour Programme. The major activity to be completed under this programme is the payment of cash grants to PATH beneficiaries.

75 Social Protection Systems in Latin America and the Caribbean: Jamaica (May, 2015). International Policy Center for Inclusive Growth, ECLAC. (Source: http://www.ipcundp.org/pub/eng/OP291_Social_Protection_Systems_in_Latin_America_and_the_Caribbean_Jamaica.pdf)

Box 6. (cont.)

Social and Economic Inclusion for Persons with Disabilities Project (2013-2017). A GOJ/World Bank supported project that aimed to increase the employability skills of persons with disabilities, improve the delivery of special education to poor children with disabilities, and to enhance the MIS for the Early Stimulation Programme.

The pillar of the contributory system is the National Insurance Scheme (NIS), a public contributory and compulsory social security fund, which covers all the employed persons in the country under a pay-as-you-go scheme.

Although significant efforts have been made to extend its coverage, the Jamaican social protection system still faces major challenges, such as the lack of efficiency of public services and, to a lesser extent, the low level of public funding.⁷⁶

National non-contributory social protection policies are implemented through the Jamaican Social Safety Net. The Public Assistance Division (PAD) is responsible for the administration of all non-contributory social assistance programmes as the Programme of Advancement Through Health and Education (PATH)⁷⁷ and the school feeding programme.⁷⁸

Another important instrument for social assistance policies is the Jamaican Social Investment Fund (JSIF),⁷⁹ which supports local development projects responding to the needs of the most disadvantaged population groups.⁸⁰

The Programme for Advancement through Health and Education (PATH) was created in 2001, as part of a wide-ranging reform of the welfare system carried out by the Government of Jamaica (GoJ) with support from multilateral institutions. It is still the main social assistance programme in Jamaica.⁸¹

PATH is a conditional cash transfer (CCT) programme targeted to poor families with children less than 17 years old, adults older than 60, people with disabilities, pregnant and/or breast-feeding women, and/or unemployed adults between the ages of 18 and 64. PATH provides cash transfers⁸² and free access to school feeding and health services.

76 Lavigne, M & Vargas, LH (2013). Social protection systems in Latin America and the Caribbean: Jamaica. Available from: https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2532622

77 Established in 2002, PATH is a conditional cash transfer programme which replaced social assistance programmes such as the Old Age and Incapacity Programme, the Food Stamp Programme and the Outdoor Poor Relief Programme.

78 <http://www.moe.gov.jm/node/60>. The Rehabilitation Programme is another non-contributory social assistance programmes administered by PAD, targeting immediate/emergency needs that may be successfully alleviated by one-off interventions.

79 <http://www.jsif.org/>

80 Lavigne, M & Vargas, LH (2013).

81 Policy Brief 4, February 2006. Inter-regional Inequality Facility. ODI

82 Delivery of cash grants is conditioned on compliance with established developmental conditionalities: school-age children 6 years and over are required to maintain an attendance rate of not less than 85 percent, while children under 6 years are required to comply with the schedule of preventive health visits established by the Ministry of Health.

Among its objectives, PATH aims to reduce child labour by requiring children to have minimum attendance in school.⁸³

Impact assessments of the benefits from PATH⁸⁴ show, however, that child employment was not affected by the programme, though it should be noted that child labour rates were extremely low in the sample.

The evaluation also finds that the programme increased school attendance and the use of preventive healthcare, but it did not seem to have an effect on school achievements, such as marks and advancements to the next grade. Furthermore, results are very similar for boys and girls, and also for different age groups (6–9, 10–12 and 13–17).⁸⁵ The only substantial and statistically significant difference in impacts relates to the geographical area of residence.⁸⁶

Results on the impact of the programme on school attendance were confirmed in its second evaluation; however, it was not possible to assess the impact on child labour due to small number of children in child labour in the sample.⁸⁷

The Government committed to increase its budgetary allocation to PATH by 30 percent by 1 June 2017.⁸⁸

The Jamaica Social Protection Strategy started in November 2015 and is being implemented by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, with support from the Inter-American Development Bank. The project aims to support, protect and promote the human capital accumulation of the PATH beneficiaries, and it also seeks to strengthen the overall capacity of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security to improve quality and access to the network of social services provided by the Ministry to poor and vulnerable populations.

In 2016/17, \$1.6 billion was allocated towards the continuation of the Integrated Support to the Jamaica Social Protection Strategy project, and the budget allocation is estimated at \$7.912⁸⁹ in 2018/19.

Besides government efforts, several social protection programmes are implemented by national and international NGOs. Among the most relevant ones are:

Food for the Poor⁹⁰ is the largest charity organization in Jamaica. It works to improve the health, economic, social and spiritual conditions of men, women and children through emergency relief aid and programmes in the areas of housing, food, medical, water, sanitation, education, agriculture, outreach and micro-enterprise.

83 <http://www.mlss.gov.jm/?s=path>

84 Policy Brief 4, February 2006. Inter-regional Inequality Facility. ODI

85 Levy, D & Ohls, J (2010), 'Evaluation of Jamaica's PATH conditional cash transfer programme', *Journal of Development Effectiveness* 2:4, 421–441, DOI: 10.1080/19439342.2010.519783

86 *ibid.*

87 Sanigest Internacional (2013). Impact Evaluation of the Programme of Advancement through Health and Education - PATH

88 <http://jis.gov.jm/increased-allocation-path/>

89 <http://projects.worldbank.org/P095673/jamaica-early-childhood-development-project?lang=en&tab=overview>

90 <https://foodfortheopoorja.org/>

Children First⁹¹ is the largest community-based organization in the country. Its mission is to work with street, working and vulnerable children to improve their life opportunities and enable their contribution to society, through active engagement with children and young people, their families, communities and institutions which affect their lives.⁹²

The project uses creative participatory and developmental approaches in providing life-changing programmes for children and adolescents by offering social and educational programmes for youngsters within the 10 to 24 age group.

8.3 National policies and programmes related to youth employment

This section discusses national efforts to promote youth employment. In several areas, Jamaica was found to be a pioneer in the Caribbean region including in the provision of entrepreneurship training within the education system and a wide suite of services assisting job-matching. Extensive efforts were also identified in providing young people with work experience and job attachment opportunities and in reintegrating young people from vulnerable backgrounds.

The National Development Plan: Vision 2030, as mentioned in the previous section, recognizes youth as an opportunity for its long-lasting development. At the same time, Jamaica also recognizes that the unemployment rate among young people is more than twice the overall rate for all age groups within the working population.⁹³ Efforts targeting young people employment are therefore planned within Vision 2030 in order to ensure that young people will be properly empowered through a set of policies and programmes supporting decent work. In order to engage and involve the future generation of Jamaicans in this transformation process, among the policy goals related to youth there are goals to strengthen mechanisms, to align training with the demands of the labour market⁹⁴ and to ensure that the secondary school system equips school leavers to access further education, training and/or decent work.⁹⁵

In addition, there is the aim to increase the efforts to improve and standardize the quality of education and training across all institutions, expand second chance opportunities for out-of-school youth to complete their education and acquire marketable skills, improve equitable opportunities to secondary, post-secondary and tertiary educational and other training platforms, improve education and vocational training and to be responsive to the changing demand for skills in the labour market and the economic development strategy of the country.⁹⁶

91 <http://www.childrenfirst.org.jm/html/>

92 <http://childrenfirst.org.jm/about-us/>

93 Vision 2030 Jamaica National Development Plan. Planning Institute of Jamaica.

94 Vision 2030 Jamaica National Development Plan, Planning Institute of Jamaica, p. 66.

95 *ibid.*

96 *ibid.*; Green Paper No. National Youth Policy 2015–2030, Ministry of Youth and Culture, April 2015. Available from: http://www.japarliament.gov.jm/attachments/article/1489/1489_2015%20Green%20Paper%203%20-Final%20Green%20Paper%20%202015.pdf.

In the 2015–2030 National Youth Policy⁹⁷ (previously, the National Youth Policy 2003)⁹⁸, Jamaica reaffirmed its commitments to youth development dating back to the 1980s when the first youth policy was drafted. These commitments are the foundation for the understanding that young people are important agents for social change, economic development and technological innovation.⁹⁹ The Government recognizes the development of young people as an imperative for national development. Therefore, the provision of decent work opportunities for youth is a clear objective.¹⁰⁰

Finally, as a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, Jamaica is a signatory of the Commonwealth Plan of Action for Youth Empowerment (PAYE) 2006–2015.¹⁰¹

The governmental authority that is primarily responsible for young people is the National Centre for Youth Development, the youth division within the Ministry of Youth & Culture that is “responsible for facilitating the co-ordination and integration of programmes, service and activities geared towards youth development, and recommending and designing programmes to enhance and propel youth development”.¹⁰²

The National Youth Council of Jamaica¹⁰³, an umbrella organization for youth clubs across Jamaica, seeks to foster young people participation at the community level, and advocate for youth participation in all levels of governance through providing assistance in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of government policy regarding youth.

The HEART Trust/NTA is the facilitating and coordinating body for technical, vocational education, training and workforce development in Jamaica. It operates 27 Technical and Vocational Education and Training locations which focus on providing a variety of training options to all Jamaicans seeking to advance their career options, with programmes geared at transforming the lives of school leavers as well as employed persons who require training and certification. Under the HEART Trust/ National Training Agency,¹⁰⁴ there are:

Youth Information Centres:¹⁰⁵ youth services, career development and supporting youth participation structures.

Graduate Work Experience Programme (GWEP): provides college graduates with the necessary work experience to increase their chances of finding employment.

HOPE Youth Summer Work Programme:¹⁰⁶ exposes young people to key employability skills, as well as developing and refining the characteristics that are important for gaining and retaining meaningful employment.

97 *ibid.* Green Paper.

98 In the National Youth Policy (2003), the definition of youth was: “youth are those between the ages of 15–24, who [have] passed through the dependent stage of childhood, in the semi-independence of adolescence or who will soon acquire the maturity of adulthood.” *Ibid.*

99 *ibid.*

100 *ibid.*

101 http://www.youthpolicy.org/library/wp-content/uploads/library/2006_Commonwealth_PAYE_Eng.pdf

102 <http://www.youthpolicy.org/factsheets/country/jamaica/>

103 <http://www.youthjamaica.com/content/national-youth-council-jamaica-ncyj>

104 Source: <https://www1.heart-nta.org/About1#>

105 <http://www.youthjamaica.com/content/about-youth-information-centers>

106 <https://www1.heart-nta.org/About1>

School Leavers Training Opportunity Programme:¹⁰⁷ provides on-the-job training to young people in a wide range of skill areas.

8.3.1 Supporting unattached youth

Many young people in the 16–24-age bracket are neither in school nor working. They have given up on school because they don't feel they are learning skills that will help them find a job. They want to work but do not have the needed job experience or training. In this context, Jamaica has designed two programmes to explicitly help these “unattached youth”. Both are financed in part by an IDB sovereign guaranteed loan of \$11 million.¹⁰⁸

The National Youth Service (NYS): aims to combat the high rates of youth unemployment and academic underachievement.¹⁰⁹ The NYS is under the rubric of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture and consists of a group of programmes for young people between 17 and 24, run in collaboration between the government and private institutions.¹¹⁰

The Career Advancement Programme (CAP) extends high school education for two years to keep young people off the streets and in school. It focuses on fundamental reading, math and vocational and life skills, along with a three-week work internship. This programme started in 2010 with 1,500 youth at more than 60 secondary schools and has served some 53,800 students since its inception.¹¹¹

107 <http://jis.gov.jm/hundreds-gain-employment-under-heartntas-school-leaving-training-programme/>

108 https://blogs.iadb.org/desarrolloefectivo_en/2017/09/26/positive-youth-development-in-jamaica-a-national-project/

109 *ibid.*

110 Lavigne, M & Vargas, LH (2013).

111 https://blogs.iadb.org/desarrolloefectivo_en/2017/09/26/positive-youth-development-in-jamaica-a-national-project/

Box 7. Other programmes of relevance for youth employment

The Education and Entrepreneurship Grants Programme¹ targets 'at risk' young people aged 16 to 40 years. This intervention will enable young people to pursue further education and training and/or be engaged in entrepreneurial activities. The Ministry intends to continue to provide this type of support to Jamaican youth as part of a comprehensive social intervention programme in collaboration with the Employment Programme.

Alternative Pathways to Secondary Education (APSE)² provides student with additional and improved teaching programmes. Under APSE, instruction is based on tailored curricula, enabling each learner to perform to their fullest potential, based on attitude, interest and ability.

New Employment Opportunities for Youth in Jamaica (NEO-Jamaica)³ provides participants with the skills to fill in-demand occupations. It builds the capacity of key national youth training and service provider organizations, strengthens job placement entities and aligns training programmes in educational institutions with labour market requirements. NEO-Jamaica is part of a regional youth empowerment initiative by countries in Latin America and the Caribbean that was launched at the Sixth Summit of the Americas in Colombia 2012; it aims to assist one million vulnerable young people across the region by 2022.

The Employment Programme¹ offers young people aged 18-35 years within the age group 18–35 the possibility of employment. It has the objective to introduce individuals to the world of work and equip them with marketable skills for long-term employment, as well as to promote economic opportunities and employment for vulnerable (unemployed, underemployed) groups. Through this programme, the Ministry has partnered with various private sector organizations to create decent and productive employment.

The Education and Entrepreneurship Grants Programme¹ will enable young people aged 16-40 years to pursue further education and training or be engaged in entrepreneurial activities. It has the objective to strengthen education and training opportunities for vulnerable and unattached youths and to also provide grants and technical support for entrepreneurship ventures and educational training.¹

The Youth Employment in Digital and Animation Industries Project⁴ aims to support youth employment in the digital and animation industries in Jamaica. The project been restructured in January 2018 because the overall progress of implementation was been 'Moderately Unsatisfactory' in May 2016 and 'Unsatisfactory' in January 2017.

¹ <http://www.mlss.gov.jm/departments/social-intervention-programme>.

² <http://www.moe.gov.jm/tags/apse>.

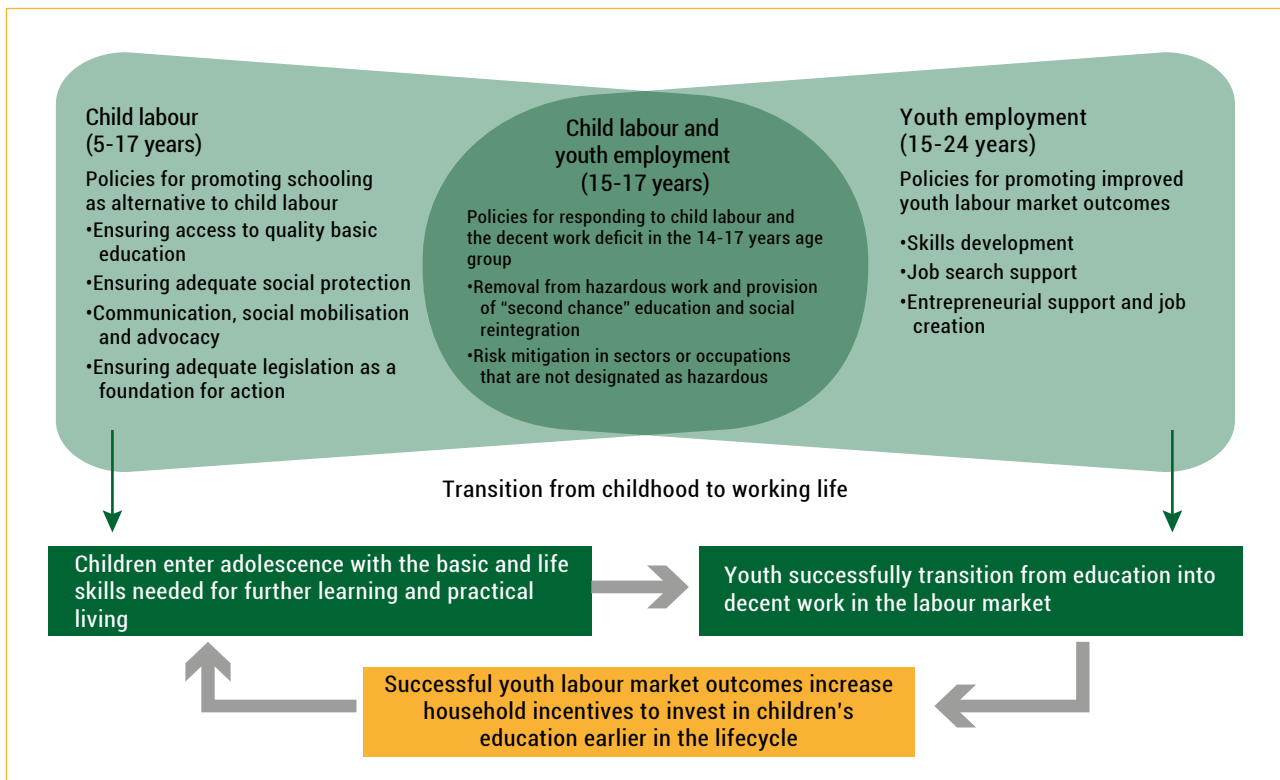
³ <https://jis.gov.jm/new-employment-opportunities-youth-jamaica>.

⁴ <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/163861515267585049/Jamaica-Youth-Employment-in-Digital-and-Animation-Industries-Project-restructuring>.

Chapter 9

Addressing child labour and the youth decent work deficit: policy priorities

This chapter discusses policy recommendations for addressing child labour and the youth decent work deficit drawing on the evidence presented above. Child labour and youth employment are closely linked, underscoring the importance of addressing the two issues hand in hand, following a lifecycle approach. The figure below illustrates key components of an integrated response. A set of child-centred policies are needed to promote schooling as an alternative to child labour, and, following from this, to ensure that children enter adolescence with the basic and life skills needed for further learning and practical living. This foundation is in turn crucial to the success of active labour market policies for promoting improved employment outcomes for young people, and to ensuring that youth successfully transition from education into decent work in the labour market. This causal chain can also work in the opposite direction: successful youth labour market outcomes can increase household incentives to invest in children's education earlier in the lifecycle. Similarly, an integrated and comprehensive social protection system is strategic to preventing vulnerable households from having to resort to child labour as a buffer against poverty and negative shocks.

Figure 34. An integrated response to child labour and youth employment problems

9.1 Addressing child labour

Child labour in Jamaica continues to affect almost 38,000 children aged 5-17 years, or 6 percent of all children in this age group. Out of this, 24,000 are children aged 5-14 years.

Child labour is a complex phenomenon requiring a policy response that is integrated and cross-sectoral in nature. Evidence from Jamaica and elsewhere point to a set policy pillars that are particularly relevant in this regard – access to basic services, basic education, social protection, public awareness, social mobilisation and advocacy – building on the foundation provided by comprehensive child labour legislation and a solid evidence base.

9.1.1 Education access and quality

There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school-aged children into work is to extend and improve schooling, so that families have the opportunity to invest in their children's education and it is worthwhile for them to do so. School attendance needs to be made an attractive prospect for children and parents both by addressing the costs of school attendance and by ensuring that schooling is inclusive and relevant. Providing schooling as an alternative to child labour is important not only for the individual children concerned, but also for society as a whole, as children who grow up compromised educationally by child labour are in a poor position to contribute to the country's growth as adults.

The results presented in this report indicate that children in child labour are disadvantaged in school attendance, and that the attendance gap increases, as children grow older. For children aged 15-17 years, the school attendance of those in child labour is almost 15 percentage points less. These results underscore the need to address the school access and quality issues influencing decisions to enrol and stay in school, within the framework provided by the [National Education Strategic Plan \(NESP 2011–2020\)](#).

Ensuring access to early childhood education (ECD). Evidence from a range of developing countries suggests that early childhood development programmes can promote learning readiness, increase school enrolment and school survival, and help children keep away from work in their early years. The Government of Jamaica recognizes early childhood development as a key strategic area for national development, as reflected in the Vision 2030 and in the National Strategic Plans (2008-2013, 2013-2018) developed by the Early Childhood Commission.

Promoting education access and quality, including alternative forms of education to all vulnerable children. Continued efforts are needed to remove access and quality barriers to schooling for all children, particularly in economically disadvantaged communities. Increasing school access is a particular challenge at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum. Foremost among the factors for being out of school is cost: 27 percent of out-of-school children report cannot afford their education. School-age girls who become pregnant are at particular risk of not enjoying their right to education. The National Policy for Reintegration of School-age Mothers in the Formal School System is a significant step towards supporting teenage mothers in completing their education.

School quality also remains an important challenge. Inadequacy of professionally trained teaching staff in rural communities, inadequate teaching resources (especially at ECC level), the shortage of upper secondary school spaces, involvement in school violence are among the issues affecting the quality of the education received by Jamaica's students. These quality challenges are reflected in students' results: the grade four literacy results for 2015/2016 show that the student demonstrate mastery in literacy, but numeracy continues to lag behind.¹¹² The Safe School Policy and the National Play Policies contribute to addressing security issues and making schools more child-friendly.

9.1.2 Social protection

The importance of social protection in reducing child labour is well-established. Social protection instruments serve to prevent vulnerable households from having to resort to child labour as a buffer against poverty and negative shocks. There is no single recipe for expanding social protection programmes to reduce household vulnerability and child labour. Unconditional and conditional cash transfer programmes, including various forms of child support grants, family allowances, needs based social assistance and social pensions, are all relevant to ensuring household livelihoods, supplementing the incomes of the poor and reducing household dependence on child labour. Public works schemes can serve both the primary goal of providing a source of employment to household breadwinners and the secondary goal of helping to rehabilitate public infrastructure and expand

112 UNICEF and Caribbean Policy Research Institute (2018). Situation Analysis of Jamaica Children - 2018

basic services, both being potentially relevant in terms of reducing reliance on child labour. Micro-loan schemes can help ease household budget constraints and mitigate social risk.

The Government of Jamaica has responded to the challenges posed by household poverty and vulnerability by overhauling its social security programmes, and replacing the fragmented programmes with the Programme for Advancement of Health and Education (PATH).

PATH provides cash transfers and free access to school feeding and health services. Evaluations found that PATH was effective in increasing school attendance and health centre visits, however no impact was found on child labour.

9.1.3 Enhancing public awareness

Strategic communication is needed as part of efforts to build a broad consensus for change. Child labour is a clear example in which both social norms and economic considerations are important, and strategic communication efforts need to be designed with this in mind. Households require information concerning the costs or dangers of child labour and benefits of schooling in order to make informed decisions on their children's time allocation. But factors that influence decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour can extend well beyond economics or work conditions. Cultural attitudes and perceptions can also direct household decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour, and therefore should also be targeted in strategic communication efforts.

Communication efforts are needed at both national and local levels. A mix of conventional (e.g., radio, television and print media) as well as of non-conventional communication channels (e.g., religious leaders, school teachers, health care workers) is important in order to achieving maximum outreach. The campaign "Breaking the Silence" is an example in this regard: celebrities and business leaders encouraged victims of abuse to come forward through radio and television advertisements, and information were posted on social media platforms. Social media represents another increasingly important communication tool in the context of both national awareness raising and global campaigns against child labour abuses. Baseline information on local knowledge and cultural attitudes towards child labour is needed to tailor communication messages, and to evaluate changes in awareness and attitudes following communication activities. Providing information on national child labour legislation, presented in terms that are understandable to the populations and communities concerned, is another communication priority. For girls in particular, there is also a need to educate families on what are acceptable domestic chores for children and what are not. While doing light chores around the house can be important for the socialization of children, research shows that children are working very long hours in the home and have little time for rest, study or leisure.

9.1.4 Social mobilisation and advocacy

Achieving sustainable reduction in child labour requires social consensus well beyond the level of the household. Policy responses to child labour are also unlikely to be effective in the absence of the active participation of civil society and of social partners in implementing them. Similarly, laws to protect children from child labour are unlikely to be effective if they are not backed by broad social

consensus. Various social actors, including, for example, NGOs, faith-based organisations, teachers' organizations, the mass media, trade unions, employers' organizations, have important roles to play in a broader societal effort against child labour.

9.1.5 Child labour legislation, inspections and monitoring

Achieving sustainable reductions in child labour requires a supportive policy and legislative environment, which is in line with international standards and effectively mainstreamed into national development plans and programmes. This has the important effect of signalling national intent to eliminate child labour and providing a framework in which this can be achieved.

While significant progress has been made in developing a comprehensive legal framework (see discussion in Section 8.1), this framework is not yet complete. The Government of Jamaica recently announced the development of a Light and Hazardous Work list that can contribute filling the gap.

The effectiveness of legislation in protecting children from child labour also depends on establishing and strengthening mechanisms for monitoring and enforcing laws, including provisions for inspections and for the removal children in child labour to safe places. Expanding the Government's actual capacity to monitor formal workplaces remains a major challenge, and unregistered businesses in the informal economy are largely outside formal inspection regimes. The labour inspectorate needs to be strengthened so that inspectors can effectively enforce labour legislation and workplace safety standards relating to child labour.

9.1.6 Improving the evidence base

Effective and well-targeted responses to child labour demand a strong body of knowledge on the issue, including an understanding of how many children are in child labour, which sectors and geographical areas they work in, the demographic characteristics of the children involved, and the type of work that they carry out. Despite recent national household surveys, data quality and comparability are uneven and significant information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. Better data is especially needed on programme impact, in order to identify good practices from the large number of child labour initiatives undertaken in the country, and, following from this, approaches with most potential for broader scale implementation. More evidence is also needed, inter alia, on the worst forms of child labour, recognizing that "the effective elimination of the worst forms of child labour requires immediate and comprehensive action".¹¹³

113 Preamble, Convention 182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, International Labour Organization, 1999.

9.2 Addressing child labour among adolescents aged 15–17 years

Even though young people aged 15–17 years are over the minimum working age they are still considered “children in child labour” under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 and national legislation if the work they do is hazardous. As we saw in Chapter 5 of this Report, child labour among children aged 15–17 years affects almost 8 percent of all children in this age group, or 13,500 children in absolute terms.

At the same time, about 59 percent of all children aged 15–17 years in employment are in child labour. Adolescents aged 15–17 years are therefore of common interest to programmes addressing child labour and the decent work deficit faced by young people, but they have not to date been accorded priority attention in either. While the policies articulated above for younger children are also largely relevant for combatting child labour among adolescents aged 15–17 years, there is also a need for additional policy measures tailored specifically to the unique challenges posed by child labour in this age group.

9.2.1 Removing young people from hazardous work in order that they are protected and afforded second chances for acquiring decent work

In instances in which adolescents in the 15–17 years’ age group are working in sectors or occupations that are designated as hazardous or where there is no scope for improving working conditions, the policy requirement is clear – they must be removed from the hazardous job. In these instances, it is imperative that there is an effective inspections and monitoring system for identifying the adolescents concerned and a strategy in place for providing withdrawn adolescents with adequate support services and opportunities for social reintegration. Community-based mechanisms close to where child labour is found are particularly relevant in this regard.

Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment and work conditions indicates that school enrolment declines as children enter the 15–17 years age group, and many of those leaving the school system end up in hazardous jobs. Options for reaching disadvantaged, out-of-school children with alternative learning opportunities includes mainstreaming (i.e., providing returning children with special remedial support within the regular classroom) and “bridging” education (i.e., separate intensive courses, delivered within or outside the formal school system, designed to raise academic proficiency prior to returning to the regular classroom). Second chance policies need to take place within the context of a broader effort improve secondary schooling access and quality, in order to make secondary schooling a more viable and attractive alternative to hazardous work.

For out-of-school children whose circumstances mean that they are unable to re-enter basic education, experience in a range of countries suggests that targeted packages of active labour market policies can be effective in terms of providing withdrawn adolescents (and other vulnerable young people) with second chances for securing decent work. Many of the elements discussed in the next section of this chapter are relevant in this context, including vocational and technical training, apprenticeships, job search training and support, and entrepreneurial support, with the critical

difference being that they are tailored to the special needs of this group of particularly vulnerable young people. Not infrequently, adolescents withdrawn from exploitative situations may also need a range of social services: emergency shelter, medical care, psychosocial counselling, legal support, family tracing and assessment and post-reintegration follow-up.

9.2.2 Mitigating risk in order to ensure that young people are not exposed to hazards in their workplace

Risk mitigation is a strategic option in instances where adolescents are exposed to hazards in sectors or occupations that are not designated as hazardous in national hazardous work lists and where there is scope for changing work conditions. Such a strategy involves measures to remove the hazard, to separate the child sufficiently from the hazard so as not to be exposed, or minimise the risk associated with that hazard.

The ILO speaks of this as “identifying hazards and reducing risks”. Strategies aimed at improving the working conditions of adolescent workers include various types of protective measures: hours of work can be reduced; work at night, or travel to and from work at night, can be prohibited; workplace policies against harassment can be established and enforced; adolescents can be barred from using dangerous substances, tools or equipment; and adequate rest periods can be provided.

Especially important in the context of risk mitigation is training and awareness-raising on occupational safety and health for employers and their young workers, including on adequate and consistent supervision. Another priority is the implementation of adequate monitoring mechanisms. Trade unions, business associations, chambers of commerce, community organizations, social protection agencies – when properly trained and linked with the labour inspectorate – can monitor minimum age guidelines, the safety of the workplace and its adolescent workers.¹¹⁴ Risk mitigation should be seen as part of a broader effort to ensure that young persons receive equal treatment and are protected from abuse and exposure to hazards.¹¹⁵ The enforcement of labour laws and collective agreements should be strengthened, and the participation of young people in employers’ and workers’ organizations and in social dialogue should be enhanced.

9.3 Addressing the decent work deficit among young people aged 15–24 years

The results presented in this report highlight a number of challenges facing Jamaican young people entering the labour market. Levels of human capital remain low for many Jamaican young people,

114 It is important to note that while we are focusing here on children, neither is hazardous work acceptable for adult workers. The ILO Conventions on occupational safety and health (OSH) and on labour inspection offer protection for all workers. In fact, nearly half of all ILO instruments deal directly or indirectly with OSH issues. It has long been recognized in this context that action against child labour can also be action for decent work for adults. In the case of hazardous work, where economic necessity or deeply ingrained tradition blocks attempts to improve conditions for adult workers, it is sometimes the call to stop child labour that can be the entry point to change. Eliminating hazardous work of children can help improve safety and health of all workers – the ultimate goal.

115 A recent learning package to support trade unions, employment services, education and training institutions, as well as youth organizations, in their initiatives aimed at raising young people’s awareness of their rights at work, see ILO (2014): *Rights@Work 4 Youth: Decent work for young people: Facilitators’ guide and toolkit* (Geneva).

compromising their future prospects. Twenty-eight percent of all young people are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and therefore at risk of social marginalisation. Jamaica has designed two programmes to explicitly target these “unattached youth”: the National Youth Service and the Career Advancement Programme.

Youth employment is dominated by low-skill, unremunerating jobs in the informal economy offering fewer chances for upward mobility. Underemployment, or “hidden unemployment”, affects over one-third of employed youth. These results point to the need for active labour market policies¹¹⁶ aimed at improving labour market outcomes for young people, building on the knowledge foundation acquired during childhood through improved basic education and preventing child labour.

9.3.1 Skills development

At the secondary level of Jamaican education system, students are prepared either to enter the job market or to continue their education. Besides the formal TVET system, the HEARTH Trust/NTA facilitates and coordinates body for technical, vocational education, training and workforce development in Jamaica. Ensuring training opportunities extend to vulnerable young people with limited levels of formal education remains a particularly important challenge facing the TVET system. This group of vulnerable young people includes those whose education was compromised by involvement in child labour. Access is also especially limited for young females and for the rural poor.

This discussion points to the importance of continued investment in providing “second chance” opportunities to former working children and other categories of vulnerable young people for acquiring the skills and training needed for work and life. Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment indicates that such policies are particularly relevant in Jamaica, where many students leave the system prior to the end of the primary education cycle.

There is already a number of second chance learning initiatives active in the country, some specifically targeting “unattached” youth. Effectively coordinating these wide-ranging efforts, and successfully extending them based on needs-based criteria to ensure they reach all unserved groups of vulnerable youth, however, remain key priorities. Integrating informal training and apprenticeships into the formal system is another priority. Additional investment is also needed in evaluating the impact of existing efforts and in tracing labour market outcomes of participants, in order to identify the approaches with most potential for expansion.

9.3.2 Job search support

The high levels of skills mismatch among Jamaican young people (see Section 7.5) is suggestive of a need for further investment in job search skills and in formal mechanisms linking young job seekers with appropriate job openings. It will again be especially important to ensure that at-risk young people

¹¹⁶ Active labour market policies are designed to improve labour market outcomes for young people within existing institutional and macro-economic constraints; the broader structural economic reforms needed to reduce youth unemployment in the long run are beyond the scope of this Report.

are able to access these employment services programmes. This can be difficult because most at-risk youth live in either marginal urban or rural areas, while most employment services are offered in more central locations. One criticism of employment services programmes elsewhere has been that those who benefit from the programmes are typically more qualified and connected to begin with and therefore more likely to become employed. This points to the importance of targeting job search support to disadvantaged young people most in need.

9.3.3 Public works programmes

The high percentage of young people who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and who are underemployed (see discussion in Chapter 7) points to the need for demand-side measures aimed at improving employment opportunities for young people. Labour-intensive public works programmes targeting young persons represent one important policy option in this context. Such programmes can provide both qualified and unqualified young people with an entry point into the labour market within broader efforts to reduce poverty and develop rural services infrastructure.

9.3.4 Youth entrepreneurship

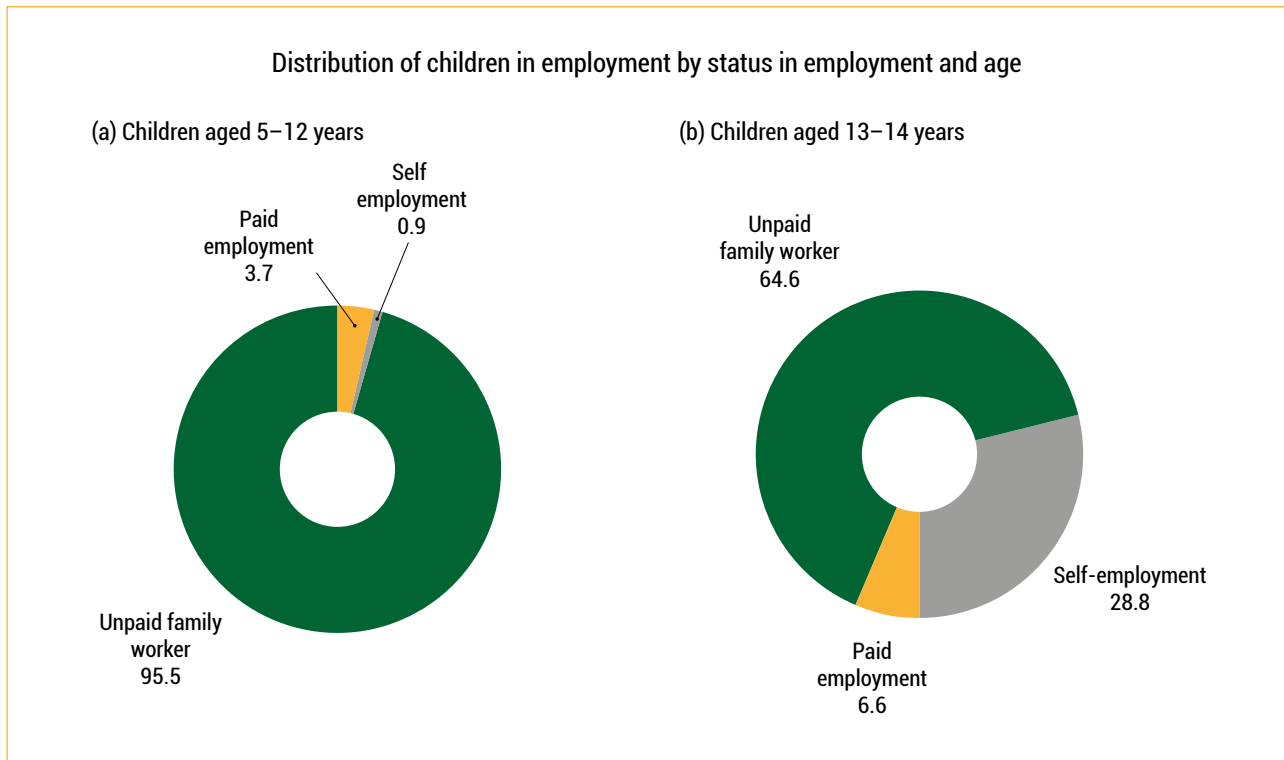
Promoting entrepreneurship for young people represents another important demand-side strategy for expanding employment opportunities and improving employment outcomes for the large proportion of Jamaican young people currently underemployed or outside of employment and education. A wide array of efforts promoting entrepreneurship is currently underway in the country. However, there remain a number of outstanding priorities for expanding entrepreneurship opportunities for young people, particularly for vulnerable youth. Priorities in this context include supporting an entrepreneurial culture by including entrepreneurship education and training in school. Easing access to finance, including by guaranteeing loans and supporting micro-credit initiatives, is also critical, as a major stumbling block for young entrepreneurs is the lack of access to credit and seed funding. Expanding access to effective business advisory and support services, and the capacity to deliver them, is another key element in promoting entrepreneurship, as isolation and lack of support prevent many potential young entrepreneurs experience from gaining a foothold in the business world. The formation of self-help groups, including cooperatives, by young people would also allow for better access to supplies, credit and market information.

Annex: Additional statistics

Table A1. Percentage distribution of child labour, by sector of employment, sex and area of residence, 5–14 years

Sector of employment	Sex		Area of residence		
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Total
Agriculture, hunting	21.6	10.7	18.4	16.8	17.3
Industry	5.4	0.9	5.5	2.8	3.6
Mining and quarrying	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.2
Manufacturing	1.2	0.9	2.6	0.5	1.1
Construction	3.8	0.0	2.9	2.0	2.3
Service	73.0	88.4	76.1	80.4	79.1
Wholesale and retail trade	11.3	21.9	25.0	11.7	15.5
Hotels and restaurants	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.3
Other community, social services.	0.8	0.2	1.7	0.1	0.6
Domestic workers	20.5	13.0	12.7	19.5	17.5
Fetching water/collecting firewood	39.9	53.3	36.3	48.8	45.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Figure A1. Children in child labour work within the family unit



Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Table A2. Summary descriptive statistics

	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Employment	0.06	0.242	0	1
Schooling	0.99	0.072	0	1
Female	0.49	0.500	0	1
Age	9.78	2.876	5	14
Age Square	104.02	55.915	25	196
Female-headed household	0.61	0.488	0	1
Education of the household head: primary or less	0.16	0.363	0	1
Education of the household head: secondary education	0.66	0.473	0	1
Education of the household head: vocational training	0.09	0.285	0	1
Education of the household head: tertiary education	0.09	0.290	0	1
Household size	5.38	2.621	2	16
Number of children aged 0–4	0.43	0.666	0	4
Number of adults aged 18–64	2.35	1.446	0	11
Number of adults aged 65+	0.24	0.498	0	3
Income quintile – bottom	0.24	0.425	0	1
Income quintile 2	0.23	0.421	0	1
Income quintile 3	0.18	0.384	0	1
Income quintile 4	0.19	0.396	0	1
Income quintile – top	0.16	0.364	0	1
Urban	0.50	0.500	0	1
Natural disaster	0.07	0.252	0	1
Other	0.11	0.308	0	1
Kingston	0.03	0.183	0	1
St. Andrew	0.19	0.390	0	1
St. Thomas	0.04	0.187	0	1
Portland	0.03	0.171	0	1
St. Mary	0.04	0.204	0	1
St. Ann	0.07	0.249	0	1
Trelawny	0.03	0.169	0	1
St. James	0.07	0.254	0	1
Hanover	0.03	0.163	0	1
Westmoreland	0.06	0.232	0	1
St. Elizabeth	0.06	0.232	0	1
Manchester	0.07	0.254	0	1
Clarendon	0.10	0.301	0	1
St. Catherine	0.19	0.393	0	1

Obs.: 3510

Note: other shocks include "problems in harvesting, shortage of water, economic downturn, epidemics"

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Table A3. Determinants of children's employment and schooling, marginal effect after biprobit estimations, 5–14 years

VARIABLES	Only employment		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat
Female	-0.0004	(-1.376)	0.0261***	(2.593)	-0.0228**	(-2.307)	-0.0029	(-1-1.511)
Age	-0.0006	(-1-1.469)	-0.0214	(-1-1.508)	0.0295**	(2.110)	-0.0075***	(-2.700)
Age Square	0.0000	(1.514)	0.0003	(0.400)	-0.0007	(-0.973)	0.0004***	(2.589)
Female-headed household	-0.0000	(-0.132)	0.0150	(1.384)	-0.0157	(-1-1.469)	0.0007	(0.388)
Head household with secondary education	-0.0002	(-0.587)	0.0233*	(1.708)	-0.0229*	(-1-1.718)	-0.0003	(-0.113)
Head household with vocational training	-0.0050*	(-1-1.847)	0.0728***	(2.619)	-0.0183	(-0.735)	-0.0493***	(-4.217)
Head household with tertiary education	0.0005	(1.090)	0.0043	(0.178)	-0.0110	(-0.466)	0.0062	(1.510)
Household size	-0.0000	(-0.301)	-0.0124***	(-3.087)	0.0135***	(3.427)	-0.0011	(-1-1.357)
Children below 5 years old	0.0002	(1.048)	0.0042	(0.423)	-0.0072	(-0.731)	0.0027*	(1.758)
Family members between 18 and 64 years old	0.0001	(0.810)	0.0116*	(1.933)	-0.0134**	(-2.269)	0.0017*	(1.694)
Elderly members above 64 years old	-0.0001	(-0.632)	0.0379***	(3.144)	-0.0388***	(-3.256)	0.0011	(0.561)
Quintile 2	-0.0007	(-1.575)	0.0403***	(3.126)	-0.0350***	(-2.766)	-0.0046*	(-1.804)
Quintile 3	-0.0007	(-1.579)	0.0221	(1.459)	-0.0149	(-1.002)	-0.0065**	(-2.083)
Quintile 4	-0.0011**	(-1.964)	0.0528***	(3.130)	-0.0431***	(-2.623)	-0.0086**	(-2.450)
Quintile 5	-0.0015	(-1.565)	0.0905***	(4.518)	-0.0784***	(-4.069)	-0.0106***	(-2.052)
Urban	-0.0003	(-1.473)	0.0330***	(2.838)	-0.0313***	(-2.728)	-0.0014	(-0.740)
Natural disaster	-0.0047*	(-1.899)	0.0452**	(2.443)	0.0072	(0.460)	-0.0477***	(-4.557)
Other shocks	0.0005	(1.193)	-0.0623***	(-3.638)	0.0610***	(3.608)	0.0008	(0.264)
St. Andrew	-0.0050**	(-1.990)	0.0459	(1.477)	0.0101	(0.348)	-0.0508***	(-4.260)
St. Thomas	-0.0046**	(-1.991)	-0.0341	(-1.126)	0.0902***	(3.217)	-0.0515***	(-4.345)
Portland	0.0006	(1.001)	-0.0909***	(-3.233)	0.0896***	(3.250)	0.0008	(0.173)

VARIABLES	Only employment		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat
St. Mary	-0.0052**	(-1.967)	0.0958***	(2.595)	-0.0405	(-1.151)	-0.0500***	(-4.288)
St. Ann	0.0002	(0.362)	0.0277	(0.863)	-0.0315	(-0.989)	0.0036	(0.866)
Trelawny	-0.0047**	(-1.984)	0.0048	(0.156)	0.0496*	(1.716)	-0.0497***	(-4.322)
St. James	0.0005	(0.916)	-0.0251	(-0.854)	0.0206	(0.712)	0.0040	(0.968)
Hanover	0.0003	(0.530)	-0.0151	(-0.492)	0.0129	(0.424)	0.0019	(0.425)
Westmoreland	-0.0001	(-0.229)	0.0371	(1.112)	-0.0383	(-1.155)	0.0013	(0.307)
St. Elizabeth	0.0001	(0.192)	-0.0521*	(-1.814)	0.0544*	(1.914)	-0.0024	(-0.494)
Manchester	-0.0048*	(-1.902)	0.0289	(0.929)	0.0251	(0.865)	-0.0492***	(-4.245)
Clarendon	0.0003	(0.539)	-0.0336	(-1.211)	0.0328	(1.196)	0.0005	(0.117)
St. Catherine	-0.0050**	(-2.013)	0.0585*	(1.854)	-0.0034	(-0.114)	-0.0501***	(-4.251)
Observations	3,366		3,366		3,366		3,366	

Notes: Other shocks include problems in harvesting, shortage of water, economic downturn and epidemics; z-statistics are in parentheses.

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Table A4. Determinants of children's employment and schooling, marginal effect after biprobit estimations, 15–17 years

VARIABLES	Only employment		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat
Female	-0.0219***	(-3.282)	0.1086***	(4.108)	-0.0497**	(-2.340)	-0.0371**	(-2.465)
Age	-0.0543	(-0.306)	0.1242	(0.140)	0.1867	(0.262)	-0.2566	(-0.513)
Age Square	0.0022	(0.404)	-0.0059	(-0.212)	-0.0060	(-0.269)	0.0096	(0.619)
Female-headed household	0.0067	(1.241)	-0.0300	(-1.090)	0.0081	(0.353)	0.0152	(1.088)
Head household with secondary education	-0.0051	(-0.728)	0.0274	(0.696)	-0.0157	(-0.457)	-0.0065	(-0.352)
Head household with vocational training	-0.0123	(-1.203)	0.0419	(0.740)	0.0127	(0.256)	-0.0423	(-1.622)
Head household with tertiary education	-0.0186	(-1.517)	0.0982	(1.449)	-0.0548	(-0.915)	-0.0248	(-0.844)
Household size	0.0084***	(2.663)	-0.0448***	(-3.771)	0.0255***	(2.856)	0.0109*	(1.814)
Children below 5 years old	-0.0027	(-0.573)	0.0153	(0.666)	-0.0102	(-0.547)	-0.0024	(-0.183)
Family members between 18 and 64 years old	-0.0108**	(-2.524)	0.0502***	(2.923)	-0.0170	(-1.299)	-0.0223**	(-2.422)
Elderly members above 64 years old	-0.0283***	(-3.581)	0.1514***	(4.406)	-0.0872***	(-3.212)	-0.0359**	(-2.048)
Quintile 2	-0.0130*	(-1.907)	0.0481	(1.330)	0.0059	(0.200)	-0.0410**	(-2.111)
Quintile 3	-0.0068	(-0.871)	0.0119	(0.295)	0.0316	(0.924)	-0.0367	(-1.633)
Quintile 4	-0.0261***	(-2.698)	0.1042**	(2.228)	-0.0055	(-0.143)	-0.0726***	(-2.777)
Quintile 5	-0.0131	(-1.371)	0.0519	(1.006)	-0.0021	(-0.049)	-0.0368	(-1.431)
Urban	0.0028	(0.502)	-0.0162	(-0.562)	0.0115	(0.477)	0.0019	(0.127)
Natural disaster	0.0083	(0.946)	-0.0576	(-1.497)	0.0536*	(1.843)	-0.0043	(-0.159)
Other shocks	-0.0025	(-0.231)	-0.0198	(-0.384)	0.0626*	(1.744)	-0.0404	(-1.338)
St. Andrew	0.0191	(1.159)	-0.0916	(-1.130)	0.0367	(0.589)	0.0359	(0.847)
St. Thomas	0.0304*	(1.869)	-0.2255***	(-2.891)	0.2280***	(3.629)	-0.0329	(-0.754)
Portland	0.0252	(1.539)	-0.1748**	(-2.184)	0.1633***	(2.785)	-0.0137	(-0.349)
St. Mary	0.0171	(1.101)	-0.0848	(-1.076)	0.0389	(0.651)	0.0288	(0.776)
St. Ann	0.0303*	(1.932)	-0.1692**	(-2.202)	0.1090*	(1.865)	0.0299	(0.789)
Trelawny	0.0395**	(2.421)	-0.2377***	(-3.041)	0.1786***	(3.050)	0.0195	(0.512)
St. James	0.0288*	(1.834)	-0.1558**	(-2.042)	0.0928	(1.564)	0.0342	(0.881)

VARIABLES	Only employment		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat	Coef.	tstat
Hanover	0.0166	(0.922)	-0.1201	(-1.373)	0.1184*	(1.871)	-0.0149	(-0.330)
Westmoreland	0.0267	(1.640)	-0.1113	(-1.352)	0.0149	(0.232)	0.0697*	(1.839)
St. Elizabeth	0.0368**	(2.224)	-0.2295***	(-2.939)	0.1835***	(2.995)	0.0092	(0.225)
Manchester	-0.0001	(-0.008)	0.0207	(0.240)	-0.0429	(-0.602)	0.0224	(0.517)
Clarendon	0.0076	(0.519)	-0.0549	(-0.733)	0.0540	(0.931)	-0.0067	(-0.181)
St. Catherine	0.0072	(0.477)	-0.0288	(-0.363)	0.0013	(0.021)	0.0203	(0.541)
Observations	1,048		1,048		1,048		1,048	

z-statistics in parentheses

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Table A5. Percentage of young people looking for a job, by length of job search

	Length of job search			
	Up to 3 months	4–12 months	13–24 months	More than 24 months
Young people looking for a job (%)	27.8	32.7	19.5	19.9

Source: Calculation from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Table A6. Percentage distribution of employed youth by sector of employment, sex and area of residence

Sector of employment	Sex		Area of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
Agriculture	21.7	5.8	6.7	22.9	14.7
Industry	20.1	3.1	10.9	14.3	12.6
Mining and quarrying	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.2
Manufacturing	7.3	1.3	3.9	5.4	4.7
Electricity and gas	0.1	1.1	1.0	0.2	0.6
Construction	12.3	0.7	6.0	8.4	7.2
Services	58.3	91.0	82.4	62.8	72.7
Wholesale and retail trade	19.8	29.2	30.5	17.2	23.9
Hotels and restaurants	8.9	14.2	12.6	9.9	11.3
Transport and storage	5.1	5.5	6.5	4.0	5.3
Financial intermediary	0.6	0.7	1.1	0.2	0.6
Real estate	4.0	9.6	9.8	3.0	6.4
Public administration	2.4	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.1
Education	1.2	2.4	2.5	1.0	1.8
Health and social work	0.5	3.3	1.9	1.6	1.7
Other community services and social services	4.3	5.5	5.9	3.7	4.8
Domestic workers	11.5	19.1	9.8	20.0	14.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

Table A7. Percentage distribution of employed youth by status in employment, and area of residence

	Area of residence		Total
	Urban	Rural	
Employee	66.0	57.8	62.0
Own-account worker	16.3	16.6	16.4
Contributing family worker	17.7	25.5	21.5
Total	100	100	100

Source: Calculations from Jamaica Youth Activity Survey 2016.

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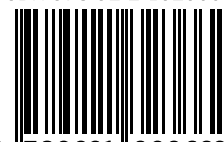
CH-1211 Geneva 22 – Switzerland

Tel.: +41 (0) 22 799 61 11 - Fax: +41 (0) 22 798 86 95

childlabour@ilo.org – www.ilo.org/childlabour

 @ILO_Childlabour

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