Work4Youth
Publication Series
No. 17

International Labour Office

The MasterCard Foundation

Labour market transitions of young women and men in Jamaica

The Statistical Institute of Jamaica;
The Planning Institute of Jamaica

July 2014

Youth Employment Programme
Employment Policy Department

Work4Youth Publication Series No. 17

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International Labour Office ● Geneva

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First published 2014

ILO Cataloguing in Publication Data

Labour market transitions of young women and men in Jamaica / International Labour Office ; The Statistical Institute of Jamaica ; The Planning Institute of Jamaica. - Geneva: ILO, 2014

Work4Youth publication series , No.17; ISSN 2309-6780 ; 2309-6799 (web pdf))

International Labour Office; Statistical Institute of Jamaica; Planning Institute of Jamaica

youth employment / youth unemployment / transition from school to work / data collecting / methodology / Jamaica

13.01.3

Cover design by: Creative Cow

Printed by the International Labour Office, Geneva, Switzerland

Preface

Youth is a crucial time of life when young people start realizing their aspirations, assuming their economic independence and finding their place in society. The global jobs crisis has exacerbated the vulnerability of young people in terms of: i) higher unemployment, ii) lower quality jobs for those who find work, iii) greater labour market inequalities among different groups of young people, iv) longer and more insecure school-to-work transitions, and v) increased detachment from the labour market.

In June 2012, the International Labour Conference of the ILO resolved to take urgent action to tackle the unprecedented youth employment crisis through a multipronged approach geared towards pro-employment growth and decent job creation. The resolution "The youth employment crisis: A call for action" contains a set of conclusions that constitute a blueprint for shaping national strategies for youth employment.[1] It calls for increased coherence of policies and action on youth employment across the multilateral system. In parallel, the UN Secretary-General highlighted youth as one of the five generational imperatives to be addressed through the mobilization of all the human, financial and political resources available to the United Nations (UN). As part of this agenda, the UN has developed a System-wide Action Plan on Youth, with youth employment as one of the main priorities, to strengthen youth programmes across the UN system.

The ILO supports governments and social partners in designing and implementing integrated employment policy responses. As part of this work, the ILO seeks to enhance the capacity of national and local-level institutions to undertake evidence-based analysis that feeds social dialogue and the policy-making process. To assist member States in building a knowledge base on youth employment, the ILO has designed the "school-to-work transition survey" (SWTS). The current report, which presents the results of the survey in Jamaica, is a product of a partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation. The "Work4Youth" Project entails collaboration with statistical partners and policy-makers of 28 low- and middle-income countries to undertake the SWTS and assist governments and the social partners in the use of the data for effective policy design and implementation. This study is the first covering the Caribbean region and the choice of Jamaica is strategic also given the previous engagement of the country in the Youth Employment Network and the regular South-South cooperation taking place in the Caribbean. The ILO looks forward to promote and exchange further with similar ventures in the sub-region.

It is not an easy time to be a young person in the labour market today. The hope is that with leadership from the UN system, with the commitment of governments, trade unions and employers' organizations and through the active participation of donors such as The MasterCard Foundation, the international community can provide the effective assistance needed to help young women and men make a good start in the world of work. If we can get this right, it will positively affect young people's professional and personal success in all future stages of life.

Azita Berar Awad	Giovanni di Cola
Director	Director
Employment Policy Department	ILO Decent Work Team and Office for the Caribbean

[1] The full text of the 2012 resolution "The youth employment crisis: A call for action" can be found on the ILO website at: http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/101stSession/texts-adopted/WCMS_185950/lang--en/index.htm.

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Acknowledgements

The Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) wishes to thank all individuals, agencies, groups and organizations that contributed in one way or another to this survey. Thanks must also go to the International Labour Organization (ILO), which provided technical and financial assistance for this survey.

We are especially thankful to the STATIN staff who were responsible for conducting the survey and preparing this report. In this regard, special mention must be made of the personal input from Douglas Forbes, Project Director, and Leesha Delatie-Budair, Project Coordinator.

We also acknowledge the diligent work of other STATIN staff members, in particular the Field Services Division headed by Merville Anderson and all the interviewers who assisted with collecting data for the survey, and the Information and Technology Division, headed by Howard Hamilton and supported by Sydna Amos and Avery Gaynor-Hylton who, respectively, guided the data processing and provided the programme to generate the data set. Special mention must be made of those who assisted in training the data collectors and those who contributed to writing sections of this report.

Survey implementation and editing of the report were supported by Sara Elder and Yves Perardel of the ILO Work4Youth team.

Mention must also be made, with gratitude, to the Steering Committee, which included representatives of both the public and private sectors. The Committee was chaired by Faith Innerarity, and then by Errol Miller from the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS). Special mention is made also of Dawn Ellis-Francis, who served as secretary for the Steering Committee. We appreciate the important role they played in making this survey a reality. Special thanks to our equally valuable partner, the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ), which contributed section 5 of this report.

Finally, this acknowledgement would not be complete without mentioning the cooperation of the respondents – the thousands of youth – who gave their time to speak to our interviewers. We appreciate the important role they played in the survey.

Carol Coy,
Director General,
Statistical Institute of Jamaica

1. Introduction and main findings

1.1 Overview

The school-to-work transition survey (SWTS) generates relevant labour market information on young people aged 15–29, including longitudinal information on transitions within the labour market. The SWTS thus serves as a unique tool to demonstrate the increasingly tentative and indirect paths to decent and productive employment that today's young men and women face. The 2013 round of the SWTS was the second such survey to be conducted in Jamaica, the first being in 2006. It proved to be a critical instrument in assessing the challenges youth in Jamaica confront as they search for appropriate and satisfactory employment.

The targeted age cohort is of particular interest to researchers and policy-makers, as this is the time when youth aim to assert their independence and start on a path to realizing their goals. One of youth's major goals is to obtain decent and satisfactory employment that will facilitate the attainment of their other goals. The employment goal, however, continues to be elusive for many, especially in light of the global economic crisis that has had far-reaching effects, particularly in small island developing states such as Jamaica.

This survey's findings aim to shed light on the experiences of youth in Jamaica today as they leave school and seek employment. It also provides insight into youth's current perceptions of their future prospects, life goals and aspirations.

1.2 Structure of the report

Section 2 presents a socio-economic overview of Jamaica and its labour force as shown in the quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS). It also outlines the survey processes, detailing the sample design, data collection and data processing activities. The main results of the Jamaican 2013 SWTS are presented in section 3. It begins with details on the characteristics of youth, then continues with an in-depth analysis of youth in the labour force and concludes with a look at youth who are outside it. Section 4 introduces the concept of labour market transition and assesses its various stages. This section also includes an analysis of the characteristics that increase the probability of a more successful labour market outcome, particularly the attainment of stable and satisfactory employment. The final part of the report, section 5, presents the policy framework affecting youth in Jamaica, along with policy recommendations arising from the survey's findings.

1.3 Main findings

Jamaican youth and higher education

Young Jamaicans understand the importance of gaining an education. The survey found that 50.1 per cent of youth were better educated than their fathers, and 43.9 per cent were better educated than their mothers. In addition, a majority of young students (58.4 per cent) indicated that "university/tertiary" education was the highest level they expected to complete, and another 21.5 per cent expected to complete postgraduate studies. Interestingly, females had a greater expectation of completing higher education than their male counterparts; approximately 62 per cent of females compared to 55 per cent of males expect to complete university/tertiary-level education. Additionally, 25 per cent of females compared to 18 per cent of males expect to complete postgraduate studies. Males were,

however, more inclined to pursue post-secondary vocational training (17.6 per cent) than their female counterparts (9.2 per cent).

Despite the desire to obtain higher education, 64.8 per cent or approximately 491,200 youth were not enrolled in a school or training programme at the time of the survey. Of this amount, more than one-half (53.5 per cent) were educated to the secondary level; 8.9 per cent had tertiary- or higher-level education, and 18.6 per cent had post-secondary vocational training. Among youth not enrolled in school, 26.2 per cent were early school leavers and did not complete their education or training programme. Economic reasons was the primary response (45.1 per cent) when youth were asked to identify the main reason for not completing their education or training.

Goals and aspirations of Jamaican youth

Jamaican youth largely desired career and personal success. When asked about their main goal in life, 39.5 per cent indicated to be successful at work. "Having a good family" (21.4 per cent) was the second most popular goal, while "making a contribution to society" (14.0 per cent) was the third.

Youth enrolled in school or training were asked to indicate their ideal job. The majority aspired to become "professionals" (54.3 per cent); other aspirations were "service workers, shop and market sales workers" (13.0 per cent), "technicians and associate professionals" (10.3 per cent) and "legislators, senior officials and managers" (9.6 per cent). Most young students also indicated they would ideally like to work for the "government" (51.2 per cent), for "themselves" (26.5 per cent) or for a "private company" (17.7 per cent).

Economic activity of Jamaican youth

The survey found that 59.5 per cent of Jamaican youth were economically active, split 39.9 per cent employed and 19.6 per cent unemployed (using the strict definition of unemployment). Using the relaxed definition, 72.4 per cent of youth were economically active, split 39.9 per cent employed and 32.5 per cent unemployed.

Among the employed, the majority were male (58.2 per cent) and from urban areas (57.9 per cent), and the largest age group was those aged 25–29 (46.6 per cent). Employed youth primarily worked as service workers, shop and market sales workers (28.1 per cent) in the services sector (75.1 per cent of the economy). Youth worked mainly in the informal sector (42.0 per cent) and in informal employment outside the informal sector (33.2 per cent).

Approximately 25 per cent of youth were entrepreneurs. Of these, 23.1 per cent were own-account workers and 1.7 per cent employers. Youth entrepreneurs were asked to indicate why they chose self-employment rather than being employed: the two main reasons cited were the inability to find a wage or salaried job (38.1 per cent) and the desire for greater independence (34.2 per cent).

Unemployed youth were mainly females (56.6 per cent), and the largest age group was those aged 20–24 (46.9 per cent). The same pattern was evident for the relaxed definition; Jamaican youth unemployment was 44.9 per cent using the relaxed definition, and 33.0 per cent using the strict. In addition, the data show that the unemployment rate decreased as the level of education increased. Unemployed youth were asked to state how long they were without work and actively seeking employment: 38.0 per cent had sought work for over 2 years; another 23.0 per cent were available and had actively been seeking work for at least 1 but less than 2 years; and 18.5 per cent were unemployed and had been seeking work for 6 months to less than 1 year.

Of the estimated 307,200 youth outside the labour force (strict), approximately 207,800 or 67.6 per cent were in school or training. The remaining 99,400 youth were neither seeking work nor enrolled in school/training; the main reasons they cited for their inactivity were "family responsibilities or housework" (31.5 per cent), "pregnancy" (20.2 per cent) and "Illness, injury or disability" (20.3 per cent).

The labour market transition

An estimated 269,000 or 35.5 per cent of Jamaican youth had successfully transited from school to work. Another 310,800 or 41.0 per cent were still in transition and the remaining 23.5 per cent had not yet started the transition. The survey showed that a higher proportion of males (41.6 per cent) than females (29.3 per cent) had transitioned, while a higher proportion of females (47.1 per cent) than males (35.5 per cent) were still in transition.

Education appears to impact the ability to transition, as the proportion of transited youth increases with educational attainment. Most transited youth did not have a smooth or direct transition (32.4 per cent), but instead experienced "spells of unemployment with or without spells of employment or activity" (38.7 per cent). On average, it took 33 months for youth to successfully make the transition from school to stable or satisfactory employment, with the average length of transition for females (33 months) slightly longer than for their male counterparts (32 months).

Youth still in transition were mostly unemployed (78.6 per cent), or were inactive non-students with future work aspirations (10.7 per cent). On average, youth in transition were in this stage for 68 months, almost 3 years longer than youth who had transited. Disaggregated by wealth index quintiles, the data show that youth from the poorest two quintiles had the longest current duration of transition, which declined from 73 months for the poorest quintile to 50 months for the wealthiest.

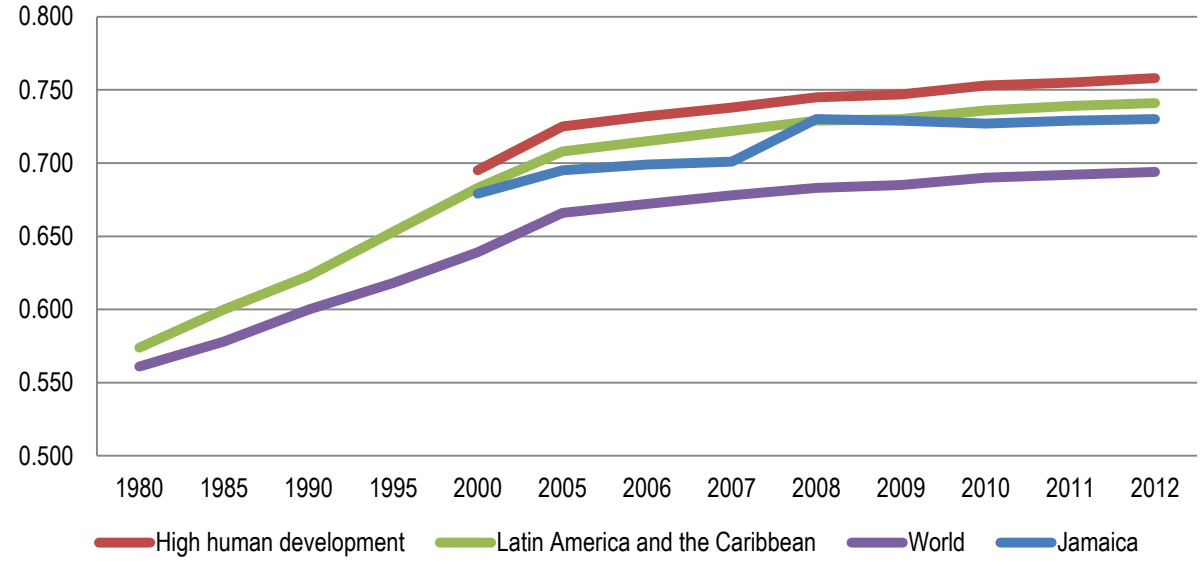
2. Overview of the labour market and survey methodology

2.1 The socio-economic context

With about 1 million hectares of land, Jamaica has a population of approximately 2.7 million, growing at an average annual rate of 0.3 per cent. The largest English-speaking island in the Caribbean, Jamaica is classified as an upper-middle-income country according to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and is ranked 85th out of 186 countries and territories on the 2012 Human Development Index (HDI). Jamaica's overall HDI score for 2012 was 0.730, placing it in the "middle human development" category. While Jamaica has consistently scored below its regional counterparts on the HDI, it generally ranks above the global average (figure 2.1).

The HDI represents a composite measure of three basic dimensions of human development: health, education and income. The disaggregation of Jamaica's HDI score shows that the country scored highest in health (0.841), followed by education (0.748) and income (0.621). A small island, Jamaica is a heavily indebted developing state; in 2012, it was ranked as one of the five most indebted countries in the world with regard to public debt (CIA, 2012). Coupled with the debt burden, Jamaica faces a high crime rate, low productivity, a weak dollar and a high cost of doing business (Schwab, 2012).

Figure 2.1 Comparative human development index scores 1980–2012



Source: UNDP, Human Development Report 2012.

2.1.1 Economic overview

The Jamaican economy is heavily dependent on services, which account for nearly 75 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP). The country relies greatly on external factors, and derives most of its foreign exchange from tourism, remittances, and the export of bauxite and alumina. For the second quarter of 2013, remittances accounted for nearly 10 per cent of GDP, and bauxite and alumina made up over 40 per cent of exports. The economy is very susceptible to external shocks, and has been adversely impacted by the latest global economic recession.

Bauxite and alumina production was most affected by the global downturn, with exports falling from 95,024 million Jamaican dollars (JMD) in 2008 to JMD 37,892 million in 2012. However, the tourism industry was resilient, with tourist arrivals increasing more than 15 per cent over the same period. Tourism accounts for over 7 per cent of GDP, as estimated by STATIN.

Jamaica's economy has faced numerous challenges in recent years, with negative or anaemic growth and repeated adverse shocks. Economic development has been constrained by a series of natural disasters and external shocks. These include hurricanes in 2001, 2004, 2005, 2007, 2010 and 2011; the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks in the United States; international recessions in 2000 and 2007; and steep rises in oil prices, particularly in the early 1970s and continuous bouts of increases from 2004 to the present. The economy saw 14 consecutive quarters of negative growth in 2007–10, before recording positive real GDP growth of 1.7 per cent in 2011. This was short lived, however, as the economy returned to negative growth in 2012. The total public debt increased from 129.3 per cent of GDP in financial year (FY) 2009–10 to 131.6 per cent in FY 2011–12.

However, despite the difficult global economic environment, Jamaica showed improvements in a number of its macroeconomic indicators (table 2.1). The fiscal balance improved from -10.87 per cent of GDP in FY 2009–10 to -6.39 per cent of GDP in FY 2011–12, while the annual inflation rate declined from 16.8 per cent in 2008 to 8.0 per cent in 2012. The average annual foreign exchange rate of the Jamaican dollar appreciated by 2.7 per cent, from JMD88.49 to one US dollar (US$) in 2009 to JMD86.08 to one US dollar in 2011. This appreciation in the Jamaican dollar was short lived, however, as it slid

2.3 per cent in 2012 and 12 per cent in the first 10 months of 2013 compared to the US dollar.

Table 2.1 Selected socio-economic indicators (2008–12)

Indicator	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
GDP value added at market prices, constant (JMD million)	879 031	840 255	827 819	841 918	838 116
Real annual GDP growth, constant (%)	-0.7	-4.4	-1.5	1.7	-0.5
Total debt/GDP (%)	117.25	129.68	131.63	128.02	134.07
Average annual unemployment rate (%)	10.8	11.4	12.4	12.6	13.7
Net remittances/GDP (%)	12.4	12.8	12.5	12.2	12.0
Contribution of services to GDP value added (%)	75.2	76.0	76.2	75.6	75.6
Average annual foreign exchange rate (JMD to US$1.00)	72.92	88.49	87.38	86.08	88.99
Annual inflation rate (%)	16.8	10.2	11.7	6.0	8.0
Population ('000)	2 677	2 686	2 696	2 704	2 711
Population growth rate (%)	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
Poverty headcount at national poverty line (% of population)	12.3	16.5	17.6	–	–

– = nil or negligible

Comparatively, Jamaica lags behind its regional counterparts in competitiveness. The 2013–14 Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) ranks Jamaica 94th out of 148 countries and characterizes it as a country in the efficiency-driven stage of development. This means that, although some elements of the competitiveness pillars exist, in most cases they are not efficiently or effectively supporting Jamaica's transition to the third stage of development – that is, an innovation-driven economy. In the index, Jamaica is ranked 95th in "pay and productivity" and 100th in "capacity to retain talent", both within the Labour Market Efficiency pillar. The country, however, ranked higher in "quality of education" (85th) and "quality of the educational system" (66th), among others.

2.1.2 Social and environmental overview

As previously stated, Jamaica is ranked in the medium human development category of the HDI, with a value of 0.730 and a rank of 85 out of 186 countries and territories in the 2012 Index. The prevalence of poverty has increased to 17.6 per cent in 2010 (table 2.1), up from 9.9 per cent in 2007, with the highest prevalence of poverty in rural areas.

Amid the challenges of the global economic crisis, the government embarked on reforming some social safety nets, with a view to widening the scope and reach in a cost-effective and efficient manner. This included consolidating existing programmes such as the Programme of Advancement Through Health and Education (PATH), and the reform of the National Insurance Scheme.

Jamaica continues to rank high among developing countries on health indicators. In 2011, average life expectancy at birth was 70.40 years for men and 78.02 years for women. The main causes of mortality and morbidity in Jamaica are chronic non-communicable diseases (NCDs) such as hypertension, cardiovascular (heart) conditions, diabetes, obesity and some cancers, as well as violence, injuries, mental illness, and lifestyle practices such as tobacco consumption and substance abuse.

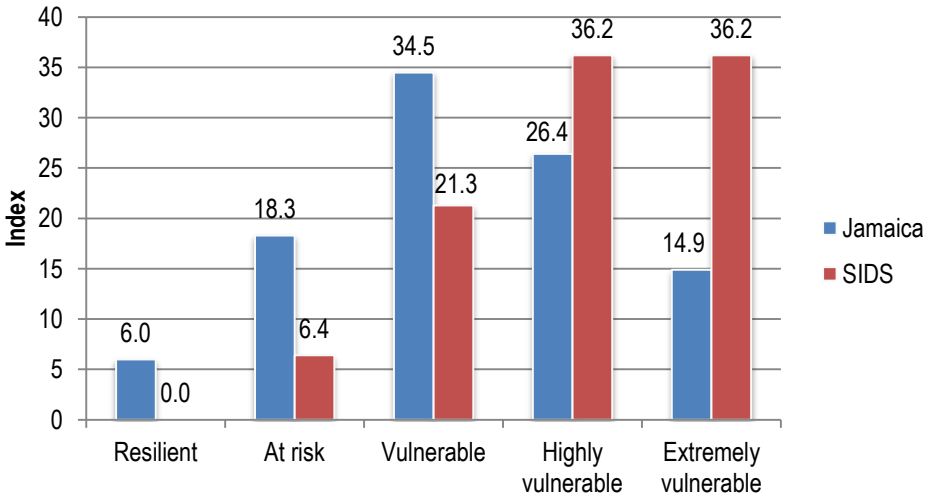
Jamaica has achieved universal access to early childhood, primary and lower-secondary levels of education. The adult literacy rate, as reported by the Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions in 2010, was 91.7 per cent compared to 86.8 per cent estimated in 2009 (based on United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization projections).

During 2012, significant focus was placed on improving the literacy and numeracy of school-aged children and enhancing the provision of education at the early childhood level.

Student performance at key national examinations at the various levels showed overall improvement in 2012. Passes in the Grade 4 literacy test increased from 71 per cent in 2011 to 74 per cent in 2012 for all schools (public and private). The Grade 4 numeracy test saw passes increase from 49.2 to 54.3 per cent between 2011 and 2012. In the Caribbean Examination Council's Secondary Education Certification examinations, the pass rate for English language declined significantly from 63.9 per cent in 2012 to 46.0 per cent in 2011. There was a relatively small decline in the pass rate for mathematics, which fell from 33.2 per cent in 2011 to 31.7 per cent in 2012.

Jamaica's economic and social sustainability is dependent on its natural resources. Its limited natural resource base and environmental vulnerability can easily negate any gains on the social or economic front. In 2011, Jamaica was ranked as "*extremely vulnerable"* on the Environmental Vulnerability Index (EVI),[2] which is not uncommon given its Small Island Developing State (SIDS) status.[3] A vast majority of SIDS are ranked as vulnerable (21.3 per cent), highly vulnerable (36.2 per cent) or extremely vulnerable (36.2 per cent) (figure 2.2). With respect to environmental protection and sustainability, Jamaica ranked 63rd out of 147 countries in the 2012 Environmental Performance Index.

Figure 2.2 Environmental Vulnerability Index scores



Source: SOPAC.

2.1.3 Developmental challenges and opportunities

Despite the numerous challenges, Jamaica is on a quest for development, with the creation of its first long-term development plan, *Vision 2030. "*This Plan aims to put Jamaica in a position to achieve developed country status by 2030, as indicated by enhanced quality of life for all citizens and world-class standards in areas including

[2] The EVI, a vulnerability index for the natural environment, was developed by the South Pacific Applied Geoscience Commission (SOPAC), the United Nations Environment Programme and their partners. It assesses data gathered from 235 countries around the globe (SOPAC).

[3] Forty-seven SIDS are represented in the EVI.

education, health care, nutrition, civility and social order, and access to environmental goods and services" (PIOJ, 2009). The development challenges and opportunities were further outlined in the medium-term socio-economic framework for inclusive growth and sustainable development in 2012–15 (figure 2.3). The development and protection of human capital (figure 2.4) is one of the framework's eight themes; this speaks directly to the ability of young people to transition effectively from the world of school to decent employment.

Figure 2.3 Developmental challenges and opportunities

Developmental Challenges	Developmental Opportunities
•High levels of crime and violence •Inefficient justice system •Consistently low macroeconomic growth •Lack of competitiveness and low productivity •Persistent fiscal deficits and high public debt •Inefficient tax system •Rising levels of unemployment and poverty •Low levels of student education outcomes, particularly among males •Rising incidence of chronic diseases •High dependency on imported petroleum and inefficient use of energy •High cost of production inputs including energy and capital •Poor environment management •Vulnerability to disasters and the impact of climate change •Inadequate transparency and accountability in governance	•Increasing access to regional and world markets •Demographic dividend with growth of the working age population •Growth in economic value of global cultural industries and markets •Competitive advantages in creative industries and sport •Expansion of the Panama Canal and regional cargo traffic •Global advances in science, technology and innovation •Development of the Green Economy •Large Jamaican Diaspora •Strength of Jamaica's Nation Brand •Strong relationship with international development partners

Source: PIOJ, 2012, p. 10.

Figure 2.4 Medium-term framework for inclusive growth and sustainable development, 2012–15

2.2 Labour market overview

The LFS conducted by STATIN on a quarterly basis is the primary source of Jamaican labour market information. The survey covers the population aged 14 and older, living in private households in all of Jamaica's parishes. STATIN estimates the Jamaican labour force comprised 1,322,500 people in April 2013, or 48.7 per cent of the total population (table 2.2). Of the labour force, 83.7 per cent were employed and 16.3 per cent unemployed. Approximately 753,700 people were estimated to be outside the labour force for various reasons; this represents 36.3 per cent of the working-age population (aged 14+).

Table 2.2 Labour market indicators, April 2012 and 2013

Indicator	April 2012	April 2013
Total population	2 070 600	2 713 300
Population aged 14 & older	1 283 600	2 076 200
Total labour force	1 283 600	1 322 500
Employed labour force	1 098 700	1 107 400
Unemployed labour force	184 900	215 100
Outside the labour force	787 000	753 700
Employment rate (%)	85.6	83.7
Unemployment rate (%)	14.4	16.3
Job seeking rate (%)	8.8	10.0
Population aged under 14 (%)	23.5	23.5
Population aged 14 & older (%)	76.5	76.5
Population aged 14 & older outside the labour force (%)	38.0	36.3
Labour force as % of total population	47.4	48.7
Labour force as % of population aged 14 & older	62.0	63.7

Source: STATIN, LFS.

The labour force was fairly equitably distributed across genders, with 54.1 per cent male and 45.9 per cent female and, according to the survey's categorization, it consisted mainly of the following occupations: service workers, shop and market sales workers (20.4 per cent); professionals, senior officials and technicians (19.5 per cent); skilled agricultural and fishery workers (15.7 per cent); and elementary occupations (13.8 per cent). As far as sectors, people were mostly from the wholesale and retail, repair of motor vehicle and equipment industry (20.5 per cent), agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (16.3 per cent), construction (8.2 per cent), and hotel and restaurant services (6.9 per cent).

The informal sector[4] is a primary employer in Jamaica, engaging an average 416,000 people or 38.3 per cent of the labour force in 2012, compared to 430,400 (39.6 per cent) from the formal sector. According to the data, a majority of informal sector workers were male (60.0 per cent). The largest proportion (31.8 per cent) was aged 35–44; 27.4 per cent were aged 25–34 and 7.9 per cent were in the 20–24 age group.

As of April 2013, the 15–29 age group, classified as youth, accounted for 29.0 per cent of the labour force. According to the LFS, 69.1 per cent of youth were employed,

[4] Agricultural and domestic workers are not classified as formal or informal, but are presented separately.

while 30.9 per cent were unemployed. Compared to the national unemployment rate, the unemployment rate for youth was 14.6 percentage points higher.

2.3 Survey objectives and methodology

The main objective of the SWTS is to generate more and better information on the challenges of young men and women in the labour market. Youth unemployment, and situations in which young people give up on job searching or work under inadequate conditions, incur costs to the economy, to society and to the individual and their families. A lack of decent work, if experienced at an early age, threatens to compromise a person's future employment prospects and frequently leads to unsuitable labour behaviour patterns that last a lifetime.

The SWTS offers important additional information over traditional labour force surveys by providing an opportunity to produce indicators on labour market transitions. This is achieved by including questions on the history of young respondents' economic activity. Currently, labour force surveys hardly capture indicators to demonstrate the transitions from school to work. The SWTS also allows for the development of normative indicators related to areas of decent work within the analytical framework. According to the ILO, having "decent" work means having attained a stable or satisfactory job. This, it argues, is the end goal for most young people in developing economies. The stages of transition applied to SWTS results are therefore based on the various combinations of the two variables, stability and satisfaction.

The SWTS is a household survey of young people aged 15–29. The survey was introduced as part of the Work4Youth partnership. Work4Youth aims to strengthen the production of labour market information specific to youth, and to work with policy-makers on interpreting data, including transitions to the labour market and the design or monitoring of youth employment policies and programmes. The partnership supports the SWTS in 28 target countries, with data from the first round made available throughout 2013. A second round of the SWTS will take place in each of the 28 countries in 2014–15, including Jamaica.

Box 1. Work4Youth: An ILO project in partnership with The MasterCard Foundation

The Work4Youth (W4Y) project is a partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation. The project has a budget of US$14.6 million and will run for 5 years to mid-2016. Its aim is to "promot[e] decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action". The immediate objective of the partnership is to produce more and better labour market information specific to youth in developing countries, focusing in particular on transition paths to the labour market. The assumption is that governments and social partners in the project's 28 target countries will be better prepared to design effective policy and programme initiatives once armed with detailed information on:

- what young people expect in terms of transition paths and quality of work;
- what employers expect in terms of young applicants;
- what issues prevent the two sides – supply and demand – from matching; and
- what policies and programmes can have a real impact.

W4Y target areas and countries:

Asia and the Pacific: Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, Samoa, Viet Nam

Eastern Europe and Central Asia: Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Ukraine

Latin America and the Caribbean: Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador, Jamaica, Peru

Middle East and North Africa: Egypt, Jordan, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Tunisia

Sub-Saharan Africa: Benin, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia

2.3.1 Sample design and selection

While the SWTS in Jamaica was conducted independently of the quarterly LFS, both surveys employed the same concepts and definitions, thereby facilitating comparison of the results. The sample design for the SWTS was a multi-stage probability sampling design, with the first stage a selection of geographical areas called enumeration districts (EDs), and the second stage a selection of dwellings within the selected EDs. All individuals within the age cohort were selected. The main focus of this design was to select a nationally representative sample that would provide estimates on the transition of youth from school to work, at both the national and regional (and urban/rural) levels.

The sample's target population comprised usual residents aged 15–29, who were living in private dwelling units at the time of the survey. Excluded from the survey were non-private dwellings including group dwellings (e.g. military camps, mental institutions, hospitals, prisons).

The sample was stratified by urban and rural geographical areas and by parish. Of the 852 EDs in the Master Sample Frame, 187 EDs were selected. Twenty-five dwellings were selected from each ED, making a total of 4,675 dwellings in the sample. From each of the dwellings, all individuals within the age cohort were surveyed. This sample size allowed for a response rate of 95 per cent of eligible respondents. Table 2.3 summarizes the number of EDs and dwellings selected per parish.

Table 2.3 Jamaican SWTS: Number of EDs and dwellings selected by geographic area and parish

Parish	EDs in master sample			EDs selected			Dwellings selected per parish		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Kingston	34	–	34	7	–	7	175	–	175
St Andrew	159	20	179	36	4	40	900	100	1 000
St Thomas	9	25	34	2	5	7	50	125	175
Portland	3	23	26	2	4	6	50	100	150
St Mary	10	34	44	2	6	8	50	150	200
St Ann	14	37	51	3	7	10	75	175	250
Trelawny	4	19	23	3	2	5	75	50	125
St James	34	26	60	8	6	14	200	150	350
Hanover	4	20	24	2	4	6	50	100	150
Westmoreland	10	38	48	2	9	11	50	225	275
St Elizabeth	6	40	46	2	8	10	50	200	250
Manchester	23	39	62	5	9	14	125	225	350
Clarendon	25	44	69	5	11	16	125	275	400
St Catherine	106	46	152	22	11	33	550	275	825
Total	441	411	852	101	86	187	2 525	2 150	4 675

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

2.3.2 Training of trainers

Training people who would then train the interviewers was an important stage of the survey process. These people were instructed on the questionnaire's content, particularly on understanding each question so that they were able to train the interviewers. The training of survey trainers, on 4 January 2013 in STATIN's boardroom, was facilitated by the project manager and the project coordinator. Fifteen people participated, including

eight trainers and resource people. Participants were exposed to the survey's key concepts, and were instructed on aspects of the survey to emphasize during the training of the interviewers.

2.3.3 Training of interviewers

Interviewer training was conducted 8–11 January 2013 as part of the SWTS implementation. Forty-eight people were selected to be trained from all parishes across the island, and two trainers were assigned to each training class. The two instruments used in the SWTS, namely the household and individual questionnaires, were explored in detail. Specific areas covered in the training were:

With the aid of a survey manual, the training included class exercises, practice interviews and a final test. The trainers kept in constant touch with each other by telephone and email to ensure that all problems encountered were solved similarly to avoid any measurement error.

Based on the final test results and trainer assessments, 10 people were chosen to be supervisors and 35 were selected to be interviewers.

2.3.4 Fieldwork

Data collection for the SWTS in Jamaica started on 1 February 2013 in all parishes. The survey's initial sample design was a selection of 187 EDs, from which 15 dwellings from each of the selected EDs were chosen for data collection. The design further stated that data should be collected from all eligible members in the selected households.

After the third week of data collection, a significant number of the selected dwellings were yielding very few eligible respondents. It was therefore decided to increase the number of dwellings per ED from 15 to 25, and to extend the data collection period to the end of April 2013.

At the end of the proposed data collection period, a decision was made to further extend it, as a number of interviewers were experiencing problems locating the

respondents and had to make additional call-backs. Given the low response rate, it was deemed necessary to extend the data collection an additional 2 weeks.

A total of 2,690 people (1,325 males and 1,365 females) within the target age group were identified. Of these, 2,584 (1,270 males and 1,314 females) were successfully interviewed. Given the target of 2,750 completed questionnaires, 94 per cent of the target was completed.

A sample of 20 per cent of the selected dwellings was assigned for field verification by all the field supervisors. Care was taken to ensure that all the interviewers' work was included in this verification exercise. If discrepancies were found, the supervisors were instructed to re-interview the respondents.

2.3.5 Data processing

The editing and coding of SWTS questionnaires began on 18 March 2013 and was completed within 1 week following data collection. A team of three editors/coders and four data entry operators were involved in processing the data, and assisted in monitoring the flow of the questionnaires from the field. The data entry programme was designed and developed by STATIN's Information and Technology Division using CS-Pro software, which included consistency and error checks. The data entry began on 8 April 2013 and was completed on 31 May 2013.

3. Characteristics of youth in the sample survey

The SWTS provides vital socio-demographic information on Jamaican youth aged 15–29. This section presents demographic characteristics of youth such as age, sex, marital status, education and training, as well as the respondents' wealth status, area of residence, perceptions, aspirations and health.

3.1 Individual characteristics of youth

3.1.1 Age and sex distribution

According to 2012 population estimates, youth aged 15–29 in Jamaica accounted for 27.9 per cent of the total population, of which 49.8 per cent were females and 50.2 per cent were males. When the youth population is disaggregated by age, both sexes are distributed in similar proportions across the different age groups (table 3.1). The 15–19-year-olds made up the largest subgroup (37.3 per cent of males; 36.2 per cent of females), closely followed by those aged 20–24 (33.5 per cent of males; 33.3 per cent of females) and, finally, the 25–29 age cohort (30.5 per cent of females; 29.1 per cent of males). The mean age of respondents was 21.9 and the median age was 21. An analysis of youth by age in years shows that the greatest in number were those aged 17 (8.1 per cent).

Table 3.1 Jamaican youth by age and sex

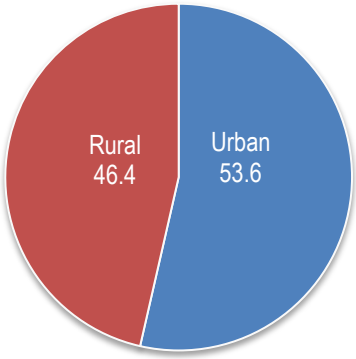
Age group	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15–19	137 000	36.2	142 000	37.3	279 000	36.8
20–24	125 700	33.3	127 500	33.5	253 300	33.4
25–29	115 400	30.5	110 900	29.1	226 300	29.8
Total	378 100	100.0	380 400	100.0	758 600	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.1.2 Area of residence and the migration of youth

Information on the area of residence and youth mobility was also collected in this survey. More than one-half of youth (53.6 per cent) lived in urban areas while the remaining 46.4 per cent were from rural areas (figure 3.1). The majority (80.0 per cent) indicated they had always lived in the area where they resided at the time of the survey.

Figure 3.1 Youth by area of residence (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

In assessing youth mobility, those reporting that they previously resided elsewhere were asked to give the area of their prior residence and their reason for moving (table 3.2). As to where they previously lived, 49.8 per cent indicated in rural areas, 29.2 per cent in other urban centres and 19.3 per cent in the Kingston metropolitan area. Fewer than 2 per cent previously resided in another country.

Table 3.2 Youth by area of residence, mobility and sex

Area of residence and mobility	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Area of residence						
Urban	204 900	54.2	201 500	53.0	406 400	53.6
Rural	173 200	45.8	179 000	47.0	352 100	46.4
Total	378 100	100.0	380 500	100.0	758 500	100.0
Always lived in this area						
Yes	293 700	77.7	313 000	82.3	606 800	80.0
No	84 300	22.3	67 200	17.7	151 500	20.0
Total	378 100	100.0	380 200	100.0	758 300	100.0
Area previously resided in						
Kingston metropolitan area	13 600	16.1	15 700	23.4	29 300	19.3
Other urban centres	25 800	30.6	18 300	27.3	44 200	29.2
Rural area	43 900	52.1	31 600	47.1	75 500	49.8
Another country	1 000	1.2	1 500	2.2	2 500	1.7
Total	84 300	100.0	67 200	100.0	151 500	100.0
Main reason for moving to current residence						
To accompany family	46 400	56.0	36 500	55.3	83 000	55.7
For education/training	6 100	7.3	10 300	15.6	16 400	11.0
To work/for employment-related reasons	8 900	10.7	7 600	11.4	16 500	11.0
Other	21 500	25.9	11 700	17.7	33 200	22.3
Total	82 900	100.00	66 100	100.0	149 100	100.0

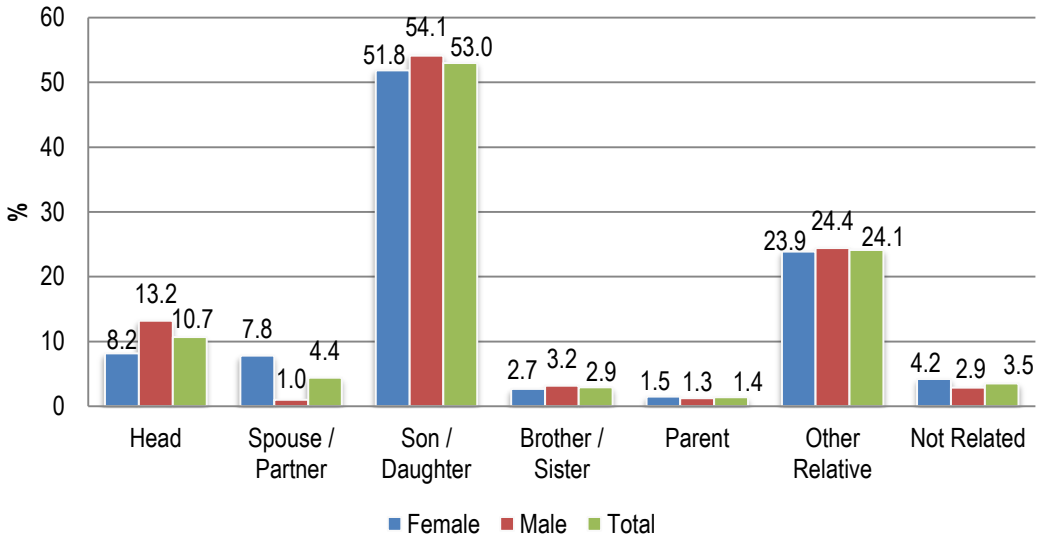
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

With regard to the reason for relocating, youth primarily moved to accompany family members (55.7 per cent); in addition, 22.3 per cent moved for "other" reasons, 11.0 per cent "to work/for employment-related reasons" and 11.0 per cent "for education/training". When disaggregated by sex, a greater proportion of females than males (25.9 and 17.4 per cent, respectively) indicated they moved for "other" reasons, while a greater proportion of males moved because of "education/training" (15.3 per cent, compared to 7.2 per cent of females).

3.1.3 The household

More than one-half of youth (52.8 per cent) reported they were the children of the head of the household, while 24.1 per cent were "other relative" and 10.7 per cent were the head of their household (figure 3.2). Of the latter, most (62.0 per cent) were male. Youth in the 25–29 age group made up the majority of heads of households (69.0 per cent), followed by the 20–24 age group (27.1 per cent).

Figure 3.2 Youth's relationship to the head of household

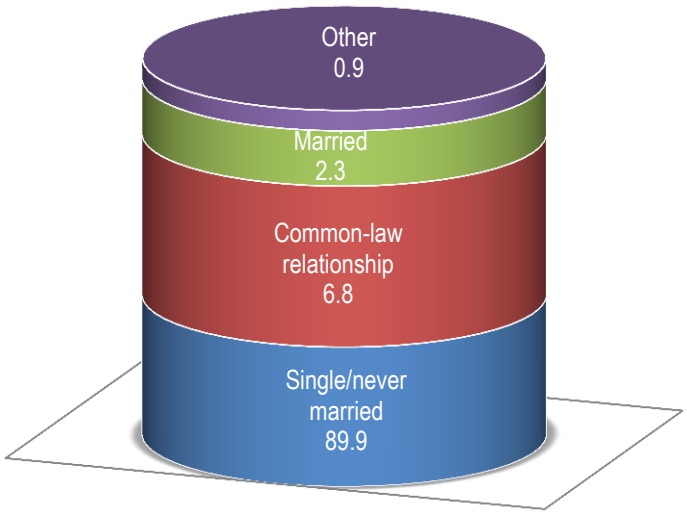


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

For this survey, "union status" was divided into six categories: single/never married; engaged to be married; married; divorced or legally separated; widowed; and common-law relationship. Most youth (89.9 per cent) were single or had never been married, while 6.8 per cent were living in common-law relationships (figure 3.3). A mere 2.3 per cent were married. The proportion of males who were single was slightly higher (91.8 per cent) than females (88.1 per cent). On the other hand, proportionally more females were living in common-law relationships than males (8.4 per cent and 5.3 per cent, respectively).

Among cohabiting youth, most had their first such relationship between the age of 20 and 24 (44.8 per cent), and 43 per cent between the age of 14 and 19. Moreover, 12.2 per cent started living with a spouse when they were between the age of 25 and 29.

Figure 3.3 Youth by union status (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

In Jamaica, the minimum age of consent for sex is 16. According to the survey, the average age of youth who married for the first time or entered into a common-law relationship was 20. Table 3.3 reveals that females first entered into a cohabitating relationship at an earlier age than males. The data also show that, on average, females who cohabited for the first time in a common-law relationship did so at an earlier age (19) than those who married for the first time (22), or who had other union statuses (e.g. separated, divorced). On the other hand, males who had other union statuses started cohabiting at an earlier age (20) than those who were in common-law relationships (21) or were married (22).

Table 3.3 Youth by mean age of first marriage/common-law relationship

Union status	Female	Male	Total
Married	22	22	22
Common-law relationship	19	21	20
Other	23	20	22
Total	20	21	20

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The data also show that most females (63.3 per cent) entered their first common-law relationship between the age of 14 and 19, compared to 38.3 per cent of males who started cohabiting in this age group. Most males, however, entered into a first common-law relationship between the age of 20 and 23 (44.7 per cent) compared to 29.0 per cent of females.

Regarding the economic activities the spouses of youth engaged in at the time of the survey (table 3.4), 47.5 per cent of youth indicated their spouse worked for "salary or wages with an employer", 25.5 per cent were "self-employed or own-account workers" and 12.8 per cent were "available and actively looking for work". By sex, the data show that spouses of females were more likely to be employed than spouses of males.

Table 3.4 Spouses of youth by economic activity and sex

Economic activity	Spouse of female youth		Spouse of male youth		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Work for salary/wage with an employer	22 300	53.8	10 100	37.9	32 500	47.5
Work as self-employed/own-account worker	14 800	35.7	2 600	9.7	17 400	25.5
Available & actively looking for work	2 600	6.2	6 200	23.0	8 700	12.8
Engage in home duties	800	1.9	4 900	18.4	5 700	8.3
Attend education/training	1 000	2.5	2 300	8.6	3 300	4.9
Unable to work owing to sickness & disability	0	0.0	700	2.5	700	1.0
Total	41 500	100.0	26 800	100.0	68 300	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Of the 89.5 per cent of the spouses of females who were employed, 53.8 per cent were working for a salary or wage with an employer, and 35.7 per cent were self-employed or working as own-account workers. On the other hand, only 47.6 per cent of the spouses of males were employed, of which 37.9 per cent were working for a salary or wage with an employer, and 9.7 per cent were self-employed or working as own-account workers. As to those "available and actively looking for work", 23.0 per cent of the males' spouses and 6.2 per cent of the females' spouses fell into this category.

Table 3.5 Youth with children by number of children and sex

Children	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Have children (currently living)						
Yes	159 900	42.3	66 800	17.6	226 700	29.9
No	218 100	57.7	313 700	82.4	531 800	70.1
Total	378 000	100.0	380 500	100.0	758 500	100.0
Number of children (currently living)						
1	98 700	61.7	46 400	69.5	145 200	64.0
2	37 900	23.7	13 300	19.8	51 100	22.6
3	16 300	10.2	5 100	7.6	21 300	9.4
4 or more	4 400	2.8	800	1.1	5 200	2.3
Not stated	2 600	1.7	1 300	1.9	3 900	1.7
Total	159 900	100.0	66 900	100.0	226 700	100.0

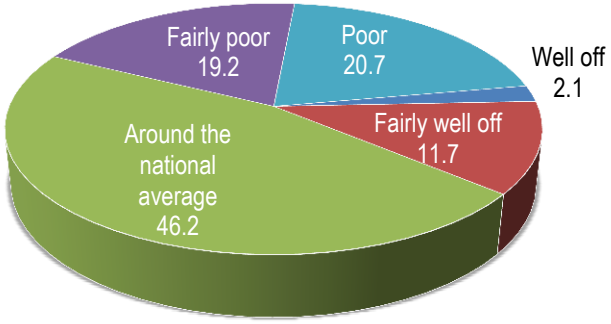
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The majority of youth (70.1 per cent) had no children (table 3.5). Of the 29.9 per cent of youth having children, 70.5 per cent were female and 29.5 per cent male. As to the number of children, 64.0 per cent of youth who had children had one, 22.6 per cent had two, 9.4 per cent had three, 2.3 per cent had 4 or more and the remaining 1.7 per cent refused to state how many children they had.

3.1.4 Financial situation

This section of the survey assessed both how the young respondents perceived their socio-economic status, and their interaction with financial institutions. The respondents were asked to describe their households' overall financial situation; the greatest proportion (46.2 per cent) described it as "around the national average", 20.7 per cent stated they were "poor" and 19.2 per cent "fairly poor". The remaining 13.8 per cent said they were "well off" or "fairly well off" (figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 Youth's perception of household financial situation (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

A wealth index constructed from data collected on household assets and housing quality was used as a proxy for youth's socio-economic status and broken out into quintiles (table 3.6). A marginally higher proportion of males (21.2 per cent) than females (19.6 per cent) were in the wealthiest quintile, while a higher proportion of females (19.5 per cent) than males (17.9 per cent) were in the poorest quintile. Segmented by age group, the data indicate those younger were more likely to be in the poorest quintile than older youth. The greatest disparity in the distribution across wealth quintiles was in the area of residence. More than one-quarter (25.5 per cent) of youth living in rural areas were from the poorest quintile, compared to 12.8 per cent in urban areas. On the other hand, youth from urban areas were primarily from the wealthiest quintile (29.4 per cent), compared to only 10.1 per cent of youth from rural areas.

Table 3.6 Youth by socio-economic status, sex, age group and area of residence

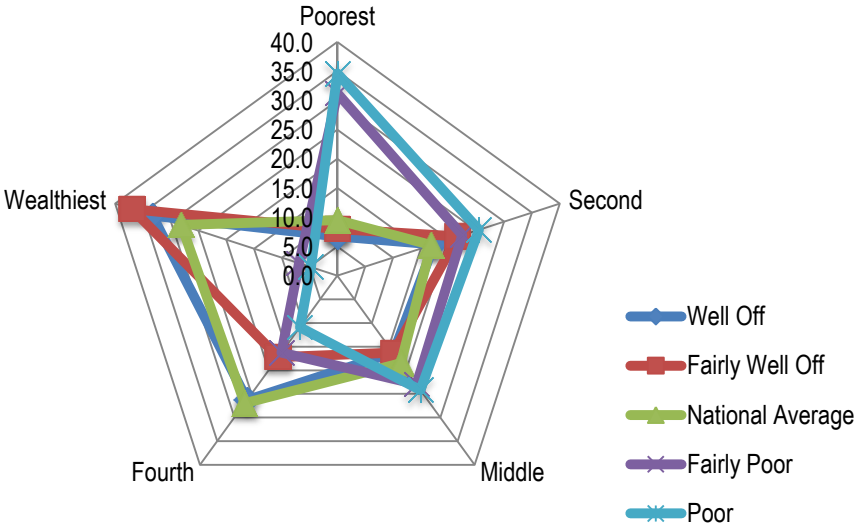
Wealth index quintile	Sex		Age group			Area of residence		Total	
	Male	Female	15-19	20-24	25-29	Urban	Rural	Number	%
Poorest	17.9	19.5	20.4	18.9	16.4	12.8	25.5	142 000	18.7
Second	20.1	20.4	19.5	20.6	20.8	15.0	26.3	153 500	20.2
Middle	20.0	20.5	20.6	18.4	22.0	19.9	20.7	153 600	20.3
Fourth	20.7	20.0	18.9	22.2	20.1	22.9	17.4	154 400	20.4
Wealthiest	21.2	19.6	20.7	19.9	20.8	29.4	10.1	155 100	20.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	758 500	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

A comparison between the wealth index and youth's perception of their household financial situation was done to determine the relationship between their perception and the wealth index category to which they were assigned. Of those who thought they were "well off", 33.3 per cent were in the wealthiest quintile while 6.7 per cent were in the poorest

(figure 3.5). Among youth who thought they were "fairly well off", the greatest proportion (36.9 per cent) were in the wealthiest quintile. Those who thought their household financial situation was "around the national average" were primarily in the wealthiest quintile (28.1 per cent), while 18.5 per cent fell in the middle and 9.5 per cent in the poorest quintile. However, the greatest proportion of youth who saw their household financial situation as "fairly poor" were in the poorest quintile (31.2 per cent), and those who considered themselves as poor were also mostly in the poorest quintile (34.6 per cent).

Figure 3.5 Youth by socio-economic status and perception of their household financial situation (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Youth were also asked about financial services they used when needing money, the main sources of these financial services as well as how they covered unforeseen expenses. (As these questions allowed for multiple responses, the respondents were able to select more than one option.) As shown in figure 3.6, more than one-half (56.0 per cent) of the respondents indicated they did not use any financial services apart from their income when they needed money. Fewer than one-third (28.8 per cent) of youth relied on their savings to supplement their income when they needed money, while 11.2 per cent relied on remittances/money transfer services. As to the sources of financial services used by youth (figure 3.7), the bank was the most popular (28.0 per cent); friends and relatives (11.7 per cent) were the next most popular source, followed by money transfer operators (9.2 per cent) and informal financial operators (2.3 per cent).

Figure 3.6 Youth by financial services used

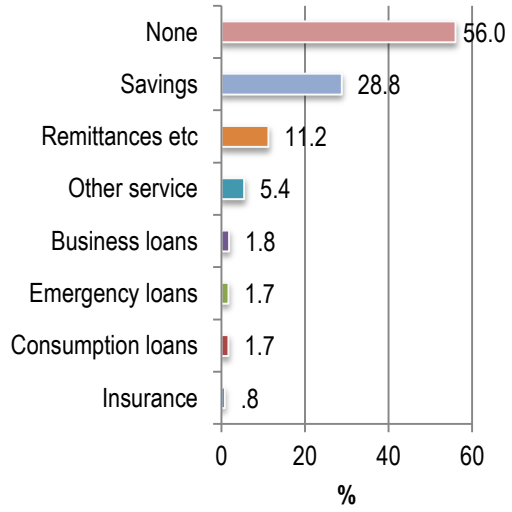
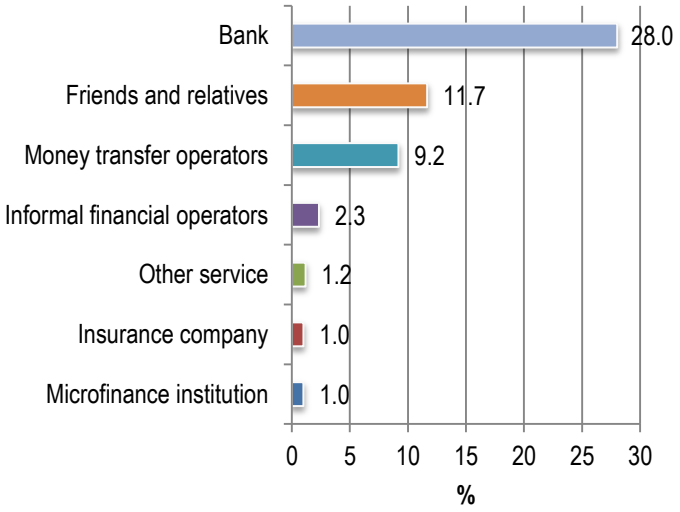


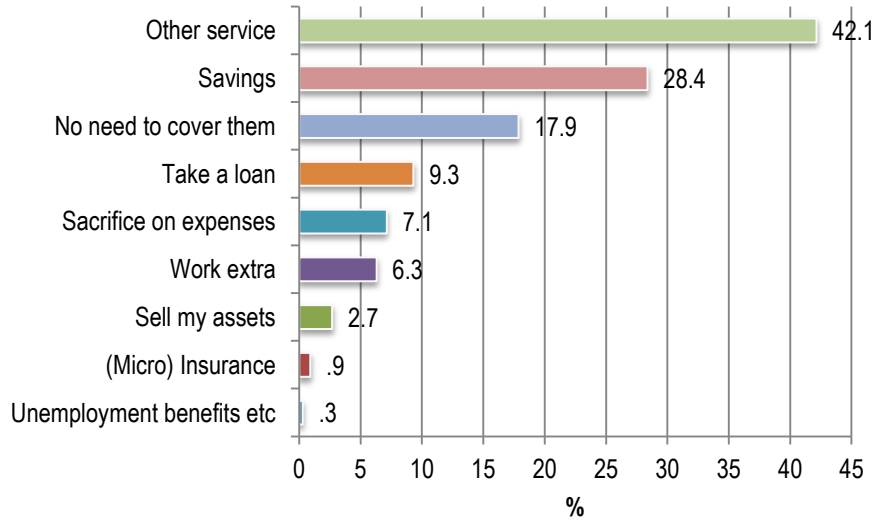
Figure 3.7 Youth by sources of financial services



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Respondents were asked to state how they would cover unforeseen expenses. The primary method indicated was "other service" (42.1 per cent) (figure 3.8). Further investigation revealed that within this group, the vast majority indicated they would rely on friends and family to assist them in covering unforeseen expenses. Less than one-third of youth (28.4 per cent) claimed they would rely on their savings, while 17.9 per cent indicated there would be no need for them to cover unforeseen expenses. Otherwise, 9.3 per cent of youth would take a loan, while 7.1 per cent would sacrifice on their expenses and 6.3 per cent would work extra.

Figure 3.8 Youth by methods used to cover unforeseen expenses



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.1.5 Health problems

As shown in table 3.7, the majority of youth (over 90 per cent) reported no difficulty in doing the selected activities (seeing, hearing, walking or climbing steps, remembering or concentrating, self-care and communicating). For respondents who reported some or a lot of difficulty, eyesight, even if wearing glasses, was the area with the highest percentage of respondents (8.1 per cent), followed by 5.6 per cent who had difficulty remembering or concentrating. For the other activities, approximately 2 per cent each had difficulty hearing (even if wearing hearing aids), walking or climbing steps, and communicating, while 0.9 per cent had difficulty with self-care.

Table 3.7 Youth by level of difficulty in selected activities

Health area	No difficulty		Some difficulty		A lot of difficulty		Cannot do it at all	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Seeing	696 800	91.9	58 400	7.7	3 300	0.4	0	0.0
Hearing	741 000	97.8	15 700	2.1	1 000	0.1	0	0.0
Walking or climbing steps	740 000	97.6	14 700	1.9	3 200	0.4	0	0.0
Remembering or concentrating	715 000	94.4	39 000	5.1	3 700	0.5	0	0.0
Self-care	751 000	99.1	6 100	0.8	1 000	0.1	0	0.0
Communicating	741 300	97.8	14 700	1.9	2 100	0.3	0	0.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

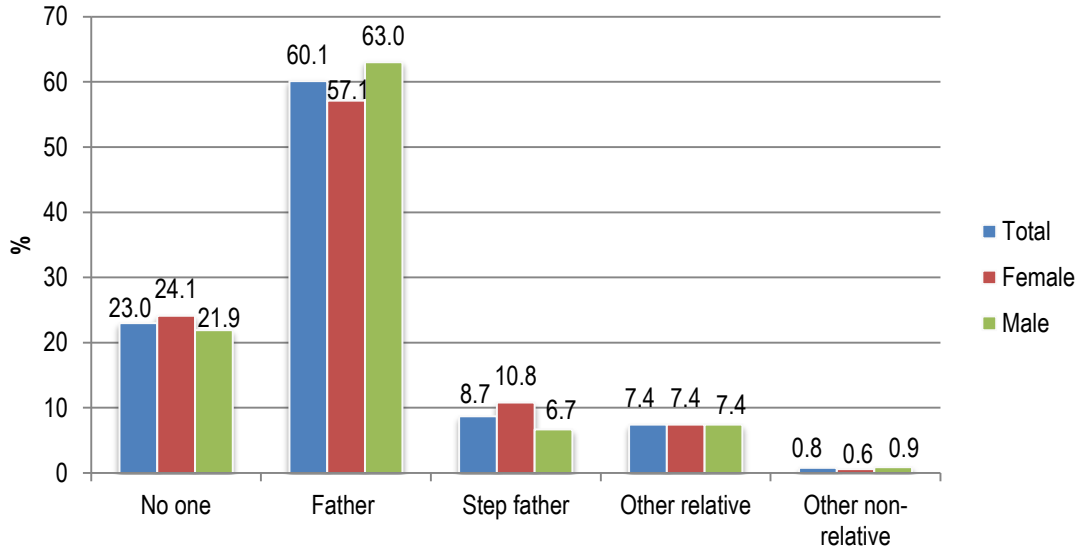
3.1.6 Primary caregivers/parents

Parenting plays a significant role in youth development. According to the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), the family is the "fundamental group of society and natural environment for the optimal growth and development of children". In the survey, youth were asked whether or not they had primary male/female caregivers in their lives as a child. In other words, the survey sought to ascertain whether youth had a father- or mother figure during their formative years. Those who had a father- and a mother figure were asked to state their relationship to each individual. Questions were also asked about the level of education and occupation of both the male and female caregivers to determine whether a relationship existed between parents' or caregivers' educational attainment and occupation and youth's labour market transition.

Figure 3.9 shows that over 60 per cent of youth had their biological fathers as their primary male caregiver while growing up. Another 8.7 per cent of youth had a stepfather, 7.4 per cent had other relatives and 0.8 per cent had a non-relative. The data suggest that 77 per cent of youth had a father figure in their lives as a child.

On the other hand, 23.0 per cent of youth reported that they did not have a father figure during their childhood. This was more the case for females (24.1 per cent) than for males (21.9 per cent). Male youth were more likely to have their biological fathers in their lives (63.0 per cent) than female youth (57.1 per cent). However, female youth were more likely to have had a stepfather (10.8 per cent) than male youth (6.7 per cent).

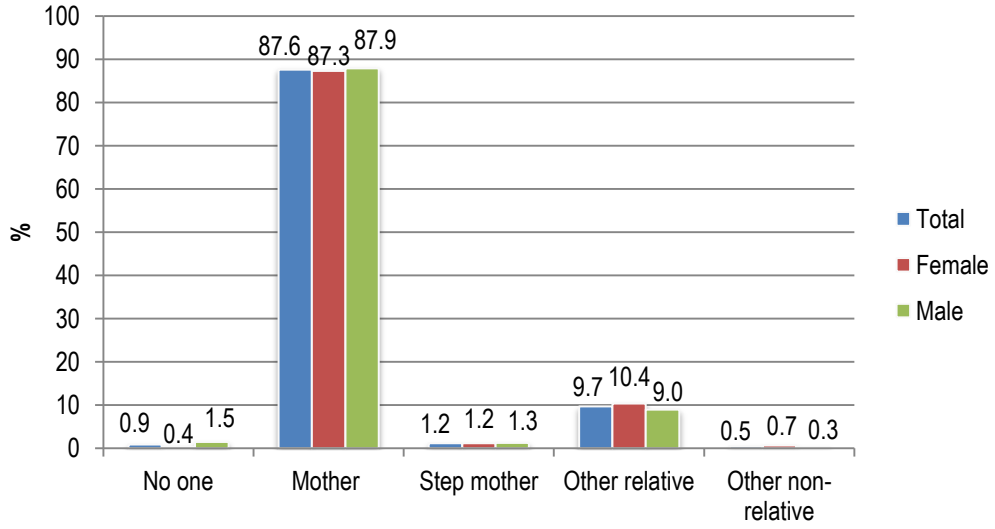
Figure 3.9 Youth by primary male caregiver and sex



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

In terms of female caregivers, the majority of youth (87.6 per cent) grew up with their biological mother as their primary female caregiver (figure 3.10). The remainder were primarily raised by other relatives (9.7 per cent) and stepmothers (1.2 per cent). Regarding their caregivers' educational attainment, respondents indicated that the highest level of education attained by both male and female caregivers was "secondary" (45.5 per cent of female and 36.0 per cent of male caregivers).

Figure 3.10 Youth by primary female caregiver and sex

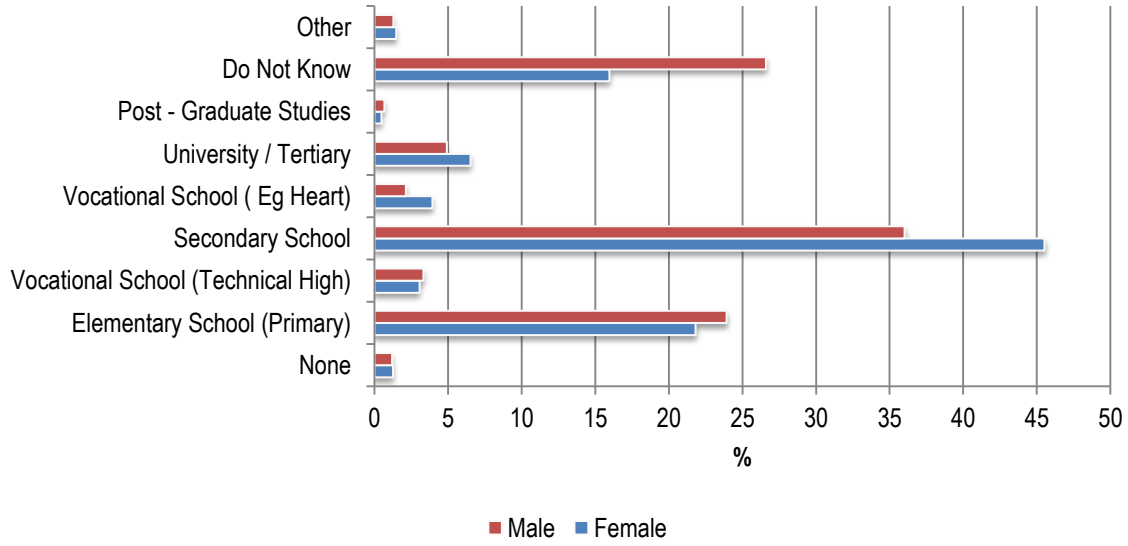


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Female caregivers attained a higher level of education than their male counterparts. As indicated in figure 3.11, 59.5 per cent of female caregivers completed secondary-level

education or higher,[5] compared to 47.0 per cent of male caregivers. However, a larger percentage of respondents were unaware of their male caregivers' educational attainment than that of their female caregivers.

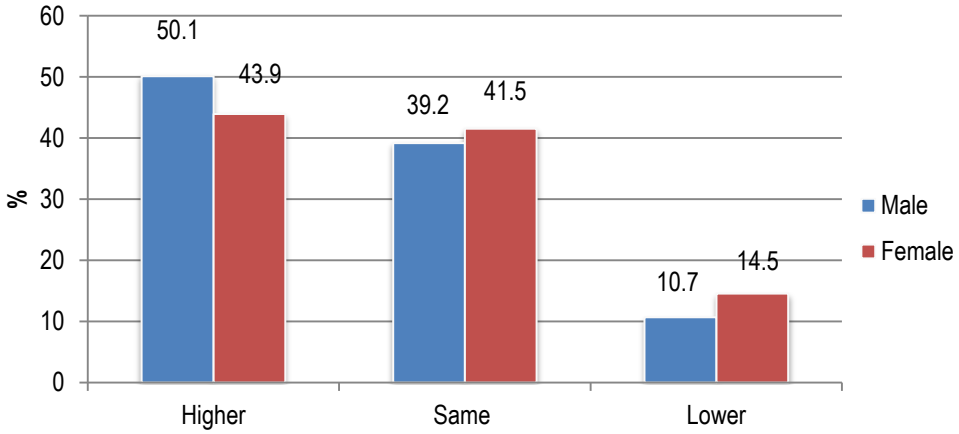
Figure 3.11 Male and female caregivers by highest level of completed education as attested by youth



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Youth's educational attainment was compared to that of their caregivers. This comparison revealed that 50.1 per cent of youth were better educated than their primary male caregivers, and 43.9 per cent were better educated than their primary female caregivers (figure 3.12).

Figure 3.12 Youth by educational attainment compared to their primary male and female caregivers

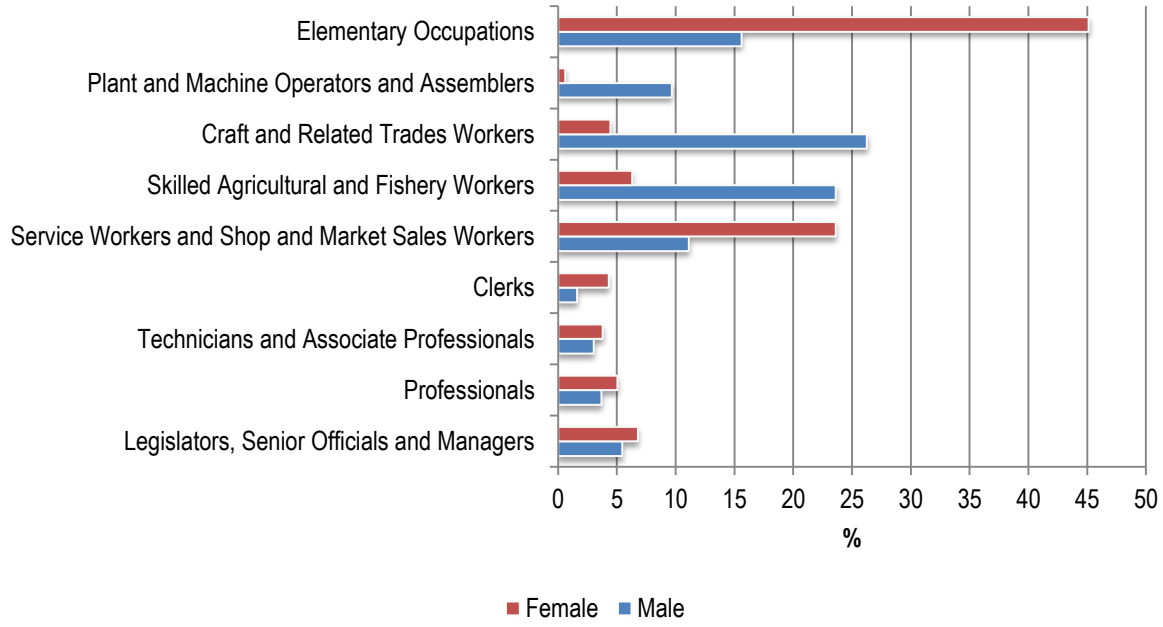


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

[5] This includes vocational school (technical high); secondary school; vocational school (e.g. Human Employment and Resource Training [HEART]); university/tertiary education; and postgraduate studies.

With respect to occupations, the majority (45.1 per cent) of female caregivers were in "elementary occupations" while the majority (26.2 per cent) of male caregivers were "craft and related trades workers" (figure 3.13). Almost one-quarter (23.6 per cent) of male caregivers were "skilled agricultural and fishery workers" compared to 6.3 per cent of females, while 23.6 per cent of female caregivers were "service workers, shop and market sales workers" compared to 11.1 per cent of males.

Figure 3.13 Male and female primary caregivers by occupation



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.1.7 Education and training

Education and training play a critical role in school-to-work transition; they can influence youth's preparedness for work and their employment opportunities in securing decent and stable employment. The survey results showed that all respondents had participated in the formal education system by attending either school or a training programme.

At the time of the survey, 35.2 per cent of youth, an estimated 267,300, were enrolled in school or a training programme. The remaining 64.8 per cent were not enrolled because they either had completed their education/training (47.8 per cent) or had left the programme prematurely (17.0 per cent).

Among youth enrolled in school/training, the majority (63.7 per cent) were in secondary school, 18.7 per cent were at the university or tertiary level and 11.9 per cent were in vocational school (such as Human Employment and Resource Training [HEART]) (table 3.8). The proportion of males studying at the secondary level was slightly higher than that of females (66.1 and 61.5 per cent, respectively). However, proportionally more females (20.7 per cent) were studying at the university or tertiary level than males (16.5 per cent) (table A.7).

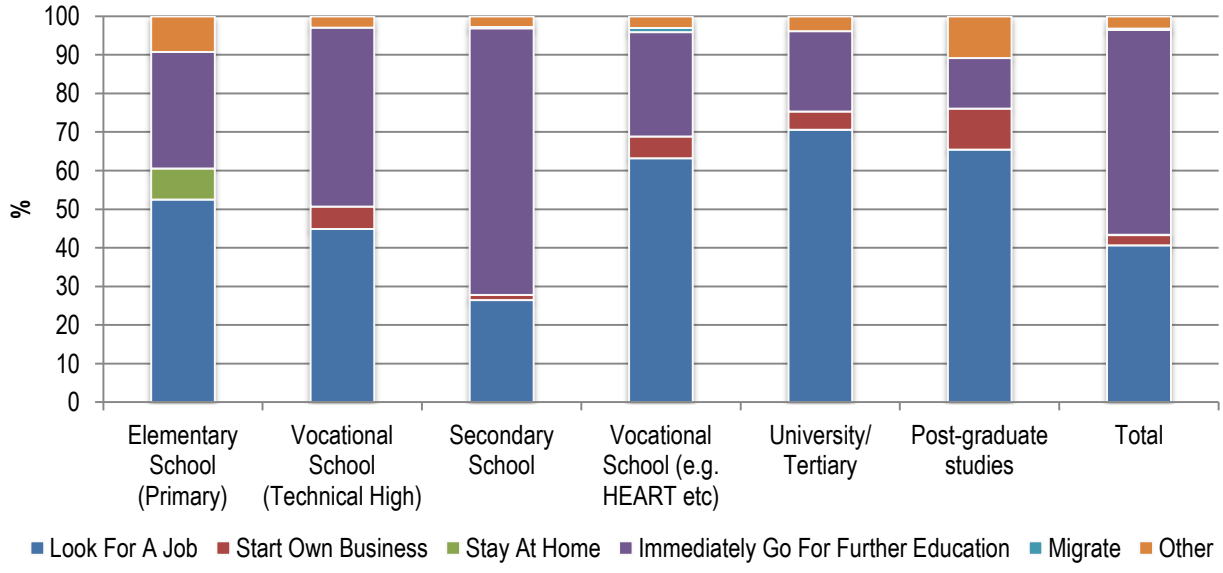
Table 3.8 Youth by level of formal education and enrolment in school/training programme (%)

Level of formal education	Enrolled	Not enrolled	Total
None	0.3	0.7	0.6
Elementary school (primary)	0.9	14.1	9.4
Vocational school (technical high)	3.2	4.3	3.9
Secondary school	63.7	53.5	57.1
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	11.9	18.6	16.2
University/tertiary education	18.7	8.7	12.2
Postgraduate studies	1.3	0.2	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Over one-half of the youth (53.1 per cent) attending school or a training programme at the time of the survey indicated they planned to go for further education/training or an apprenticeship immediately after completing their programme (figure 3.14). Two-fifths (40.6 per cent) stated they would look for a job, and 2.7 per cent said they planned to start their own business. Moreover, 70.6 per cent of those studying at the university/tertiary level, 65.5 per cent of youth in postgraduate studies and 63.2 per cent of those in post-secondary vocational school were disposed to seek employment after completing their current education level. Those most inclined to start a business upon completing their studies/training were youth in postgraduate studies (10.6 per cent of this group) and those in vocational training (secondary: 5.8 per cent; post-secondary: 5.7 per cent). Only some of those studying/being trained at the primary level had plans to stay at home, while migration was a favoured option of a small minority at the post-secondary vocational level (1.1 per cent) and in secondary school (0.3 per cent).

Figure 3.14 Youth by level of education and plans after completing current education/training programme

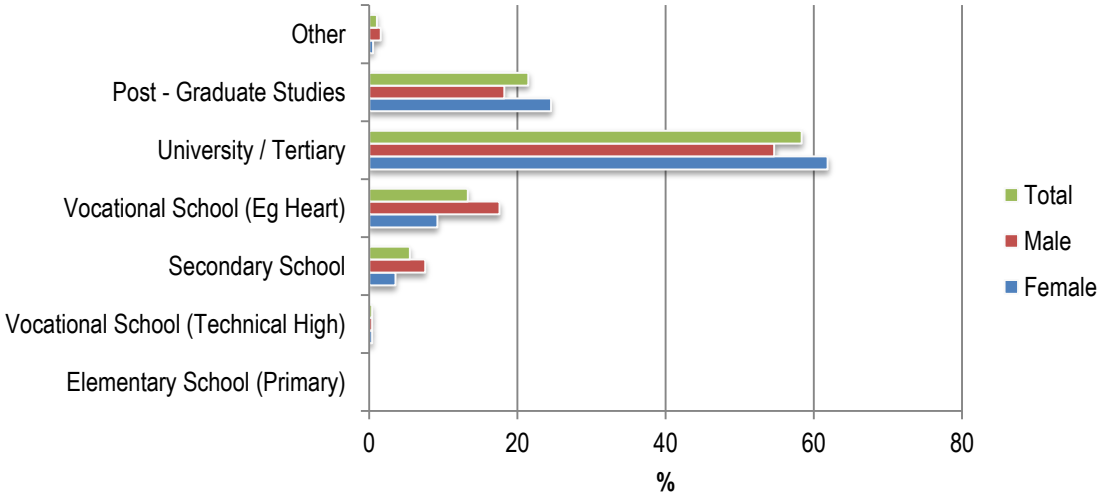


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The results show that young Jamaicans recognize the importance of getting an education. The majority (58.4 per cent) of respondents indicated that university/tertiary was the highest level of education they expected to complete (figure 3.15). Over one-fifth (21.5 per cent) were expecting to complete postgraduate studies, 13.3 per cent vocational

education (e.g. HEART) and 5.5 per cent expected to end their education at the secondary level.

Figure 3.15 Youth by highest level of education they expect to complete



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Disaggregation by sex reveals a disparity in the highest level of education that youth expect to complete. Females had a greater expectation of completing higher levels of education than males. Proportionally more females than males expect to complete university/tertiary education (61.9 per cent compared to 58.4 per cent) and postgraduate studies (24.5 per cent compared to 18.2 per cent). On the other hand, a higher percentage of males (17.6 per cent) than females (9.2 per cent) expect to complete post-secondary vocational education.

As shown in table 3.9, 41.8 per cent of the respondents were studying/being trained in "general programmes", 15.8 per cent in "social sciences, business and law" and 9.4 per cent each in "science, mathematics and computing" and "engineering, manufacturing and construction". When asked in what field they would like to study/be trained, the largest proportion of youth (22.2 per cent) indicated "social sciences, business and law", 15.6 per cent stated "engineering, manufacturing and construction" and 14.3 per cent responded "health and welfare".

Table 3.9 Youth by field currently studying, field would like to study and sex (%)

Field	Currently studying			Would like to study		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
General programmes	40.5	43.3	41.8	4.7	6.1	5.4
Education	8.1	2.4	5.3	14.9	3.7	9.5
Humanities & arts	3.5	3.8	3.6	4.5	5.0	4.7
Social sciences, business & law	18.8	12.7	15.8	24.1	20.1	22.2
Science, mathematics & computing	8.1	10.8	9.4	11.1	13.7	12.3
Engineering, manufacturing & construction	1.8	17.5	9.4	2.2	29.9	15.6
Agriculture & veterinary	1.6	0.9	1.2	1.7	2.6	2.1
Health & welfare	8.2	1.4	4.9	23.6	4.4	14.3
Services	6.3	1.8	4.1	9.5	7.3	8.4
Other	3.3	5.4	4.3	3.8	7.1	5.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The young students were asked to state their ideal job and whom they would like to work for. The top four occupational groups chosen were "professional" (54.3 per cent), "service worker, and shop and market sales worker" (13.0 per cent), "technicians and associate professional" (10.3 per cent) and "legislator, senior official and manager" (9.6 per cent) (table A.8). Most respondents (51.2 per cent) indicated they would like to work for the government, 26.5 per cent for themselves and 17.7 per cent for a private company (table A.9). While the desire for public-sector employment is understandable on the part of young students (given its perception as a sector with good pay, status and job security), it is unrealistic to think that the public sector will be able to absorb a large share of young graduates over the coming years. Interestingly, whereas more females (59.0 per cent) than males (43.1 per cent) wanted to work for the government, more males than females (30.7 per cent and 22.6 per cent, respectively) desired to work for themselves. Similarly more males than females (21.4 per cent and 14.1 per cent, respectively) indicated wanting to work for a private company.

Youth not enrolled in school/training

Of the estimated 491,200 youth not enrolled in school during the survey, 73.8 per cent completed their education or training programme, while 26.2 per cent left before completing their programme.

More than one-half (53.5 per cent) of the youth who already finished their school/training completed secondary school (table 3.10); 18.6 per cent finished post-secondary vocational school (e.g. HEART), 14.1 per cent completed elementary school and 8.7 per cent completed university/tertiary education. While a slightly higher percentage of males than females (56.9 per cent and 50.0 per cent, respectively) gave "secondary school" as their highest level of completed education, a larger proportion of females (11.2 per cent) than males (6.2 per cent) indicated "university/tertiary" education as the highest level completed.

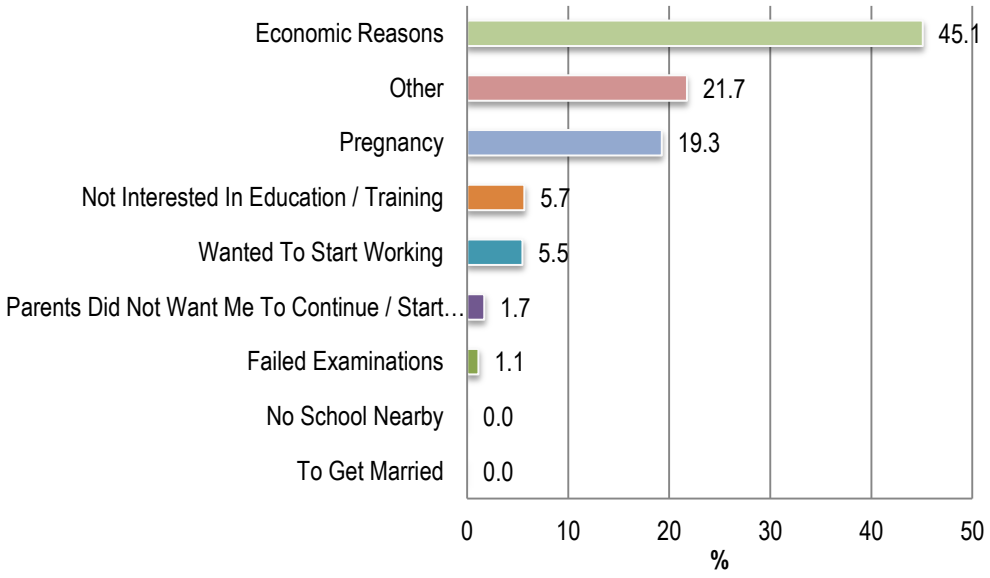
Table 3.10 Out-of-school youth by level of formal education completed (%)

Level of education completed	Female	Male	Total
None	0.5	0.9	0.7
Elementary school (primary)	13.1	15.1	14.1
Vocational school (technical high)	3.5	5.0	4.3
Secondary school	50.0	56.9	53.5
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	21.3	15.9	18.6
University/tertiary education	11.2	6.2	8.7
Postgraduate, postdoctoral	0.3	0.0	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

In total, 17.0 per cent of young Jamaicans or 26.2 per cent of those not enrolled in school or training left before completion. "Economic reasons" was the main answer given by respondents (45.1 per cent) when asked to identify why they did not complete their education (figure 3.16); they either could not afford it or were too poor or needed money to support their family. Just over one-fifth (21.7 per cent) cited "other" reasons and 19.3 per cent gave "pregnancy" as the reason.

Figure 3.16 Early school leavers by reasons for leaving school



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.1.8 Main goal in life

The main goal in life cited by the largest proportion of young respondents (39.4 per cent) was to be successful in work (table 3.11). "Having a good family" was the second most-cited goal (21.3 per cent), followed by "making a contribution to society" (14.0 per cent). The distribution of results was similar for both females and males.

Most of the surveyed youth (91.4 per cent) never had serious thoughts of committing suicide, regardless of age, sex or geographical location. A larger share of females (11.7 per cent) than males (5.5 per cent), however, indicated that they had serious thoughts of ending their own lives.

Table 3.11 Youth by main goal in life and suicidal tendency

Life goal/suicidal tendency	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Most important goal in life						
Being successful in work	153 600	40.7	145 300	38.3	298 900	39.5
Making a contribution to society	56 100	14.9	49 700	13.1	105 800	14.0
Having lots of money	25 800	6.8	49 700	13.1	75 600	10.0
Having a good family life	78 900	20.9	82 600	21.8	161 500	21.4
Being a good Christian	28 900	7.7	19 400	5.1	48 300	6.4
Other	33 900	9.0	32 300	8.5	66 200	8.8
Total	377 200	100.0	379 000	100.0	756 300	100.0
Serious thoughts of ending own life						
Yes	44 000	11.7	20 800	5.5	64 700	8.6
No	331 100	88.3	354 100	94.5	685 200	91.4
Total	375 100	100.0	374 900	100.0	749 900	100.0

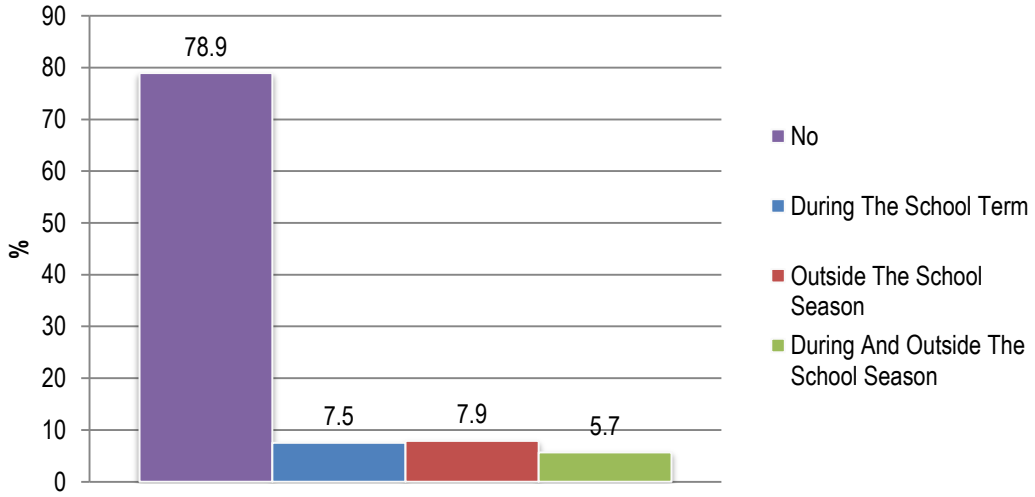
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.2 Economic activity of youth

3.2.1 Work study combination

The survey revealed that 21.1 per cent of youth who completed their education were economically active while attending school or in training. Of those who worked, 7.5 per cent did so during the school term, 7.9 per cent worked outside the term (e.g. summer breaks and holidays), while 5.7 per cent worked both during and outside the term (figure 3.17). At the time of the survey, 15.4 per cent of students (41,100) were also employed.

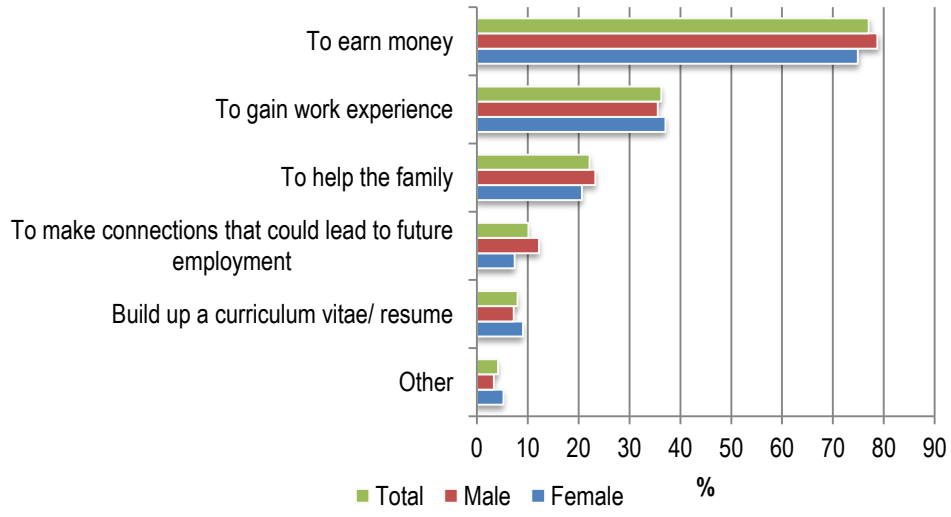
Figure 3.17 Youth who completed their education by work–study combination



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Youth were asked to state the reasons why they worked during their studies. Over three-quarters (77.0 per cent) indicated that earning money was their primary motivation to work while studying, followed by "to gain work experience" (36.2 per cent) and "to help the family" (22.2 per cent) (figure 3.18).

Figure 3.18 Youth by reasons for working while studying



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.2.2 Status of economic activity

The measures associated with the economically active population are guided by international standards for the tabulation of labour statistics, as defined by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). For the purpose of this survey, a person is considered to be employed if they "worked for pay, profit or family gain for at least 1 hour during the reference week, plus the number of persons who are temporarily absent from their jobs" (Elder, 2009). The ILO has two approaches for defining unemployment. According to the strict definition of unemployment, a person is considered to be unemployed if "without work", "currently available for work" and "actively seeking work" during the reference period. On the other hand, according to the relaxed definition of unemployment, a person is considered to be unemployed if "without work" and "currently available for work". Using the relaxed definition, a person does not have to be actively seeking work to be considered as unemployed. Together, both the employed and the unemployed make up the labour force or the economically active population.

According to the SWTS, approximately 302,300 or 39.9 per cent of youth were employed at the time of the survey (table 3.12). Of this number, 41,100 indicated they were also enrolled in either a school or training programme. Using the strict definition of unemployment, 149,000 or 19.6 per cent were estimated to be unemployed, of which 18,400 were students. Using the strict definition, 307,200 were outside the labour force, meaning they were neither working nor available or actively seeking work. Using the relaxed definition of unemployment makes a significant difference in the Jamaican results: 246,300 or almost one-third (32.5 per cent) of the youth population was considered to be unemployed, while the remaining 209,800 (27.7 per cent) were outside the labour force.

Table 3.12 Youth and economically active students by economic activity status

Economic activity	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Status of economic activity						
Employed	126 300	33.4	176 000	46.3	302 300	39.9
Unemployed	84 300	22.3	64 700	17.0	149 000	19.6
Outside the labour force	167 400	44.3	139 800	36.7	307 200	40.5
Total	378 000	100.0	380 500	100.0	758 500	100.0
Status of economic activity, with relaxed unemployment definition						
Employed	126 300	33.4	176 000	46.3	302 300	39.9
Unemployed (relaxed)	139 600	36.9	106 800	28.1	246 300	32.5
Outside the labour force	112 200	29.7	97 700	25.7	209 800	27.7
Total	378 100	100.0	380 500	100.0	758 400	100.0
Economically active students						
Employed students	21 700	66.0	19 400	72.8	41 100	69.0
Unemployed students	11 200	34.0	7 300	27.2	18 400	31.0
Total	32 900	100.0	26 700	100.0	59 500	100.0
Economically active students, with relaxed unemployment definition						
Employed students	21 700	44.7	19 400	44.8	41 100	44.7
Unemployed students (relaxed)	26 800	55.3	24 000	55.2	50 800	55.3
Total	48 500	100.0	43 400	100.0	91 900	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3 Employed youth

As stated earlier, at the time of the survey 302,300 youth were employed, of which 176,000 (58.2 per cent) were male and 126,300 were female (table 3.13). As expected, a greater proportion of those aged 25–29, the oldest age group, were employed (46.6 per cent) than those aged 15–19, the youngest age group (14.0 per cent).

Table 3.13 Employed youth by age group, geographical area, level of completed formal education and sex

Characteristic	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Age group						
15-19	18 000	14.2	24 400	13.8	42 300	14.0
20-24	47 400	37.5	71 600	40.7	119 000	39.4
25-29	61 000	48.2	80 000	45.5	141 000	46.6
Total	126 400	100.0	176 000	100.0	302 300	100.0
Geographic area						
Urban	77 200	61.1	97 800	55.6	175 000	57.9
Rural	49 200	38.9	78 200	44.4	127 300	42.1
Total	126 400	100.0	176 000	100.0	302 300	100.0
Level of completed formal education[6]						
None	600	0.5	800	0.5	1 300	0.5
Elementary school (primary)	8 400	8.1	23 700	15.3	32 200	12.4
Vocational school (technical high)	3 700	3.5	5 900	3.8	9 600	3.7
Secondary school	47 200	45.1	85 300	55.1	132 400	51.0
Vocational school (e.g. HEART etc.)	26 300	25.2	26 800	17.3	53 100	20.5
University/tertiary	18 400	17.6	12 400	8.0	30 800	11.9
Postgraduate studies	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	104 600	100.0	154 900	100.0	259 400	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

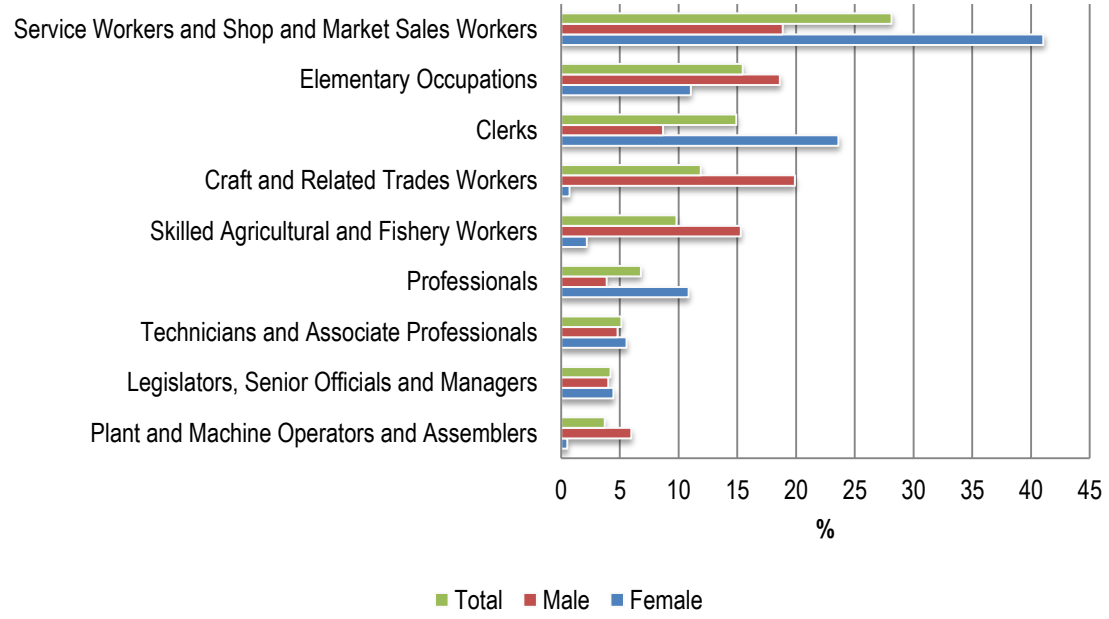
Youth residing in urban areas accounted for the majority of those employed (57.9 per cent). The data show some disparity across sex; while more males than females were employed in urban areas (97,800 compared to 77,200), a higher proportion of employed females were from urban areas (61.1 per cent) than employed males (55.6 per cent). Females from rural areas who did not complete any formal education were among the least likely to be employed.

Concerning occupations, 28.1 per cent of employed youth were working as service workers, shop and market sales workers (figure 3.19). This was followed by elementary occupations (15.4 per cent), clerks (14.9 per cent) and craft and related trade workers (11.9 per cent). Analysis by sex shows that craft and related trade workers was the occupation held by the greatest proportion of males (19.9 per cent), followed by service workers (18.9 per cent) and elementary occupations (18.6 per cent). Young women were primarily engaged as service workers, shop and market sales workers (41.0 per cent), clerks (23.6 per cent) and in elementary occupations (11.0 per cent). Interestingly, very few females

[6] Does not include those currently enrolled in school or training.

were engaged as craft and related trade workers (0.7 per cent) or as plant and machine operators and assemblers (0.5 per cent). However, a greater proportion of females than males were professionals (10.8 per cent and 3.9 per cent, respectively).

Figure 3.19 Employed youth by occupation



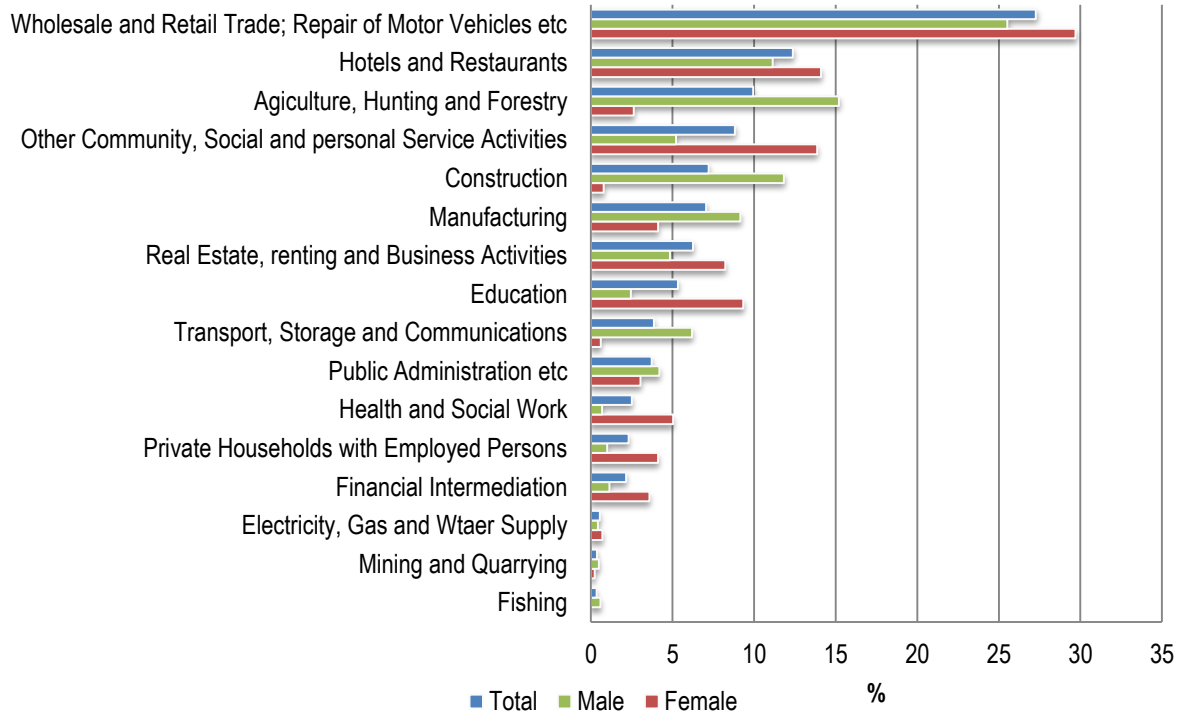
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Industrial activity in Jamaica is classified according to the Jamaica Industrial Classification (JIC).[7] The JIC has three broad sectors, namely agriculture, industry and services, which together contain 16 major groups.[8] A majority of employed youth were engaged in wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, etc. (27.3 per cent), followed by hotels and restaurants (12.4 per cent) and agriculture, hunting and forestry (9.9 per cent) (figure 3.20).

[7] Based on the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC).

[8] Agriculture includes agriculture, hunting and forestry; and fishing. Industry includes mining and quarrying; manufacturing; and construction. Services includes electricity, gas and water supply; wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods; hotels and restaurants; transport, storage and communications; financial intermediation; real estate, renting and business activities; public administration and defence; compulsory social security; education; health and social work; other community, social and personal service activities; and private households with employed persons.

Figure 3.20 Employed youth by 1-digit sector



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Analysis by sex shows that the "wholesale and retail trade" group was the largest employer of both females and males (29.7 and 25.5 per cent, respectively). However, significantly more males than females were employed in agriculture, hunting and forestry, and in construction, and more females were working in hotels and restaurants as well as in other community, social and personal service activities.

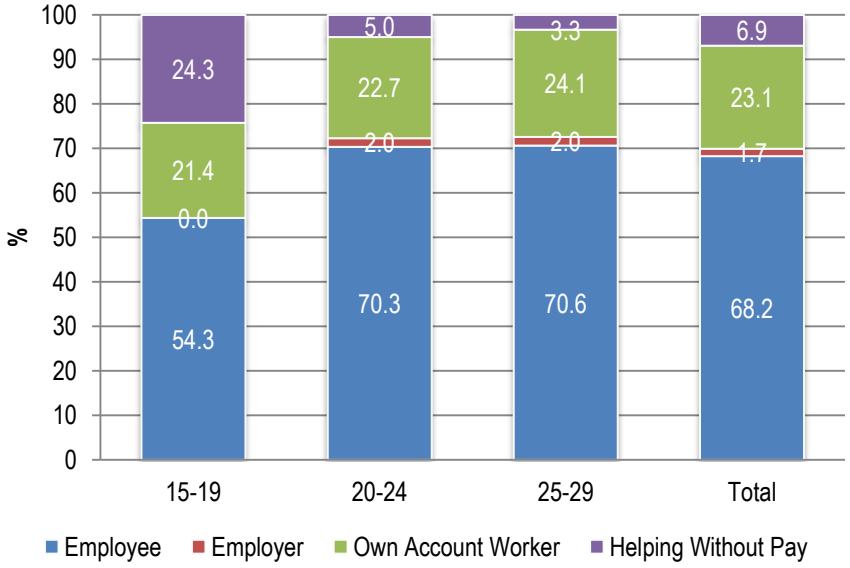
As shown in figure 3.21, 10.3 per cent of employed youth worked in the agriculture sector, 14.6 per cent in industry and 75.1 per cent in services. Females were more likely to have worked in the services sector than their male counterparts (92.3 and 62.8 per cent, respectively).

Figure 3.21 Employed youth by aggregated sector and sex

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Regarding their status when employed, 68.2 per cent of youth were in paid work, 23.1 per cent were own-account workers and 6.9 per cent were working without pay. Disaggregated by age group, a similar distribution existed of employed youth in the 20–24 and 25–29 age groups regarding their status in employment (figure 3.22). The youngest (15–19) age group, however, had a noticeably different distribution. Whereas over 70 per cent of employed older youth reported they were in paid work, the share was 54.3 per cent among employed youth aged 15–19. Additionally, a noticeably higher proportion of youth in this age group (24.3 per cent) were working without pay compared to 5.0 per cent in the 20–24 age group and 3.3 per cent in the 25–29 age group. The results are not surprising, given that many youth in the youngest age group will be studying full time and less able to engage in employment outside the family establishment

Figure 3.22 Employed youth by status of employment and age group



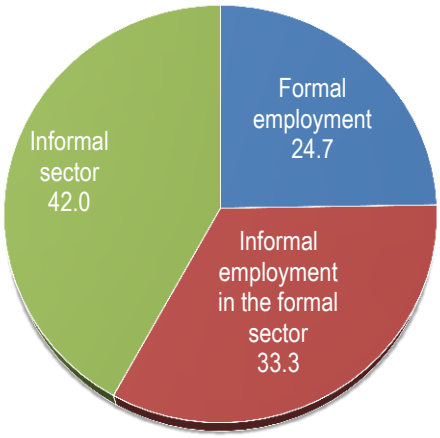
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3.1 Informal employment and employment in the informal sector

Less than one-quarter of employed youth (24.7 per cent) were engaged in formal employment (figure 3.23). In other words, the survey showed that of the 302,300 employed youth, approximately 74,800 were employed formally, working for pay at a legally registered enterprise in the formal sector, and entitled to social protection and certain employment benefits. The remaining 227,500 youth (75.3 per cent) were in informal employment,[9] either employed in the informal sector (127,000 or 42.0 per cent) or informally employed in the formal sector (100,500 or 33.3 per cent).

[9] Informal employment is measured according to the guidelines recommended by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians. It includes the following sub-categories of workers: (a) paid employees in "informal jobs", i.e. jobs without either a social security settlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave; (b) paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (c) own-account workers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (d) employers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; and (e) contributing family workers.

Figure 3.23 Employed youth by informal employment (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3.2 Wage and salaried workers (employees)

An estimated 206,300 youth were classified as wage and salaried workers. Within this group, 50.7 per cent or 104,700 youth were employed on the basis of a written contract, while the remainder worked by oral agreement (table 3.14). More than three-quarters of wage and salaried youth (75.1 per cent) had employment contracts of unlimited duration, and 24.9 per cent had limited-duration contracts. Similarly, the majority of wage and salaried youth (67.9 per cent) were satisfied with their contract, while less than one-third were not.

Table 3.14 Young wage and salaried workers by contract type, tenure and satisfaction with contract

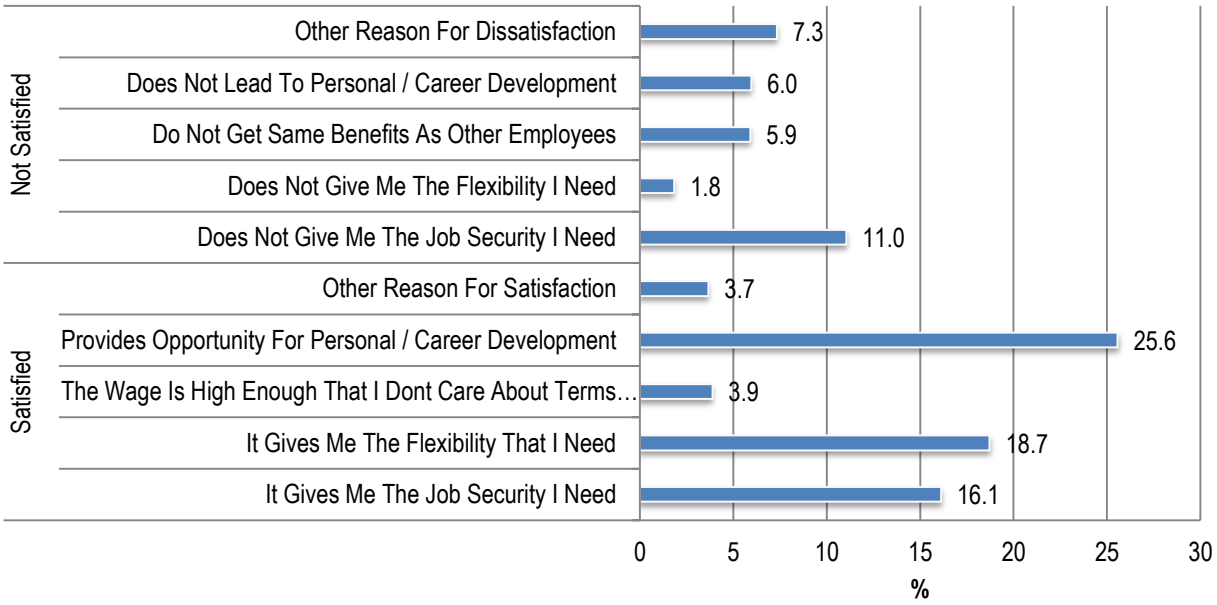
Contract	Number	%
Type of contract		
Written	104 700	50.7
Oral agreement	101 600	49.3
Total	206 300	100.0
Contract tenure		
Unlimited duration	154 600	75.1
Limited duration	51 200	24.9
Total	205 800	100.0
Satisfaction with contract		
Satisfied	140 100	67.9
Not satisfied	66 200	32.1
Total	206 300	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Youth expressing satisfaction with their contracts were mainly so because their jobs provided opportunities for personal/career development (25.6 per cent) (figure 3.24). Flexibility proved to be another key source of satisfaction (18.7 per cent), as did the feeling of job security (16.1 per cent). Interestingly, lack of job security (11.0 per cent) was the

primary reason for dissatisfaction, followed by lack of personal/career development (6.0 per cent) and not getting the same benefits as other employees (5.9 per cent).

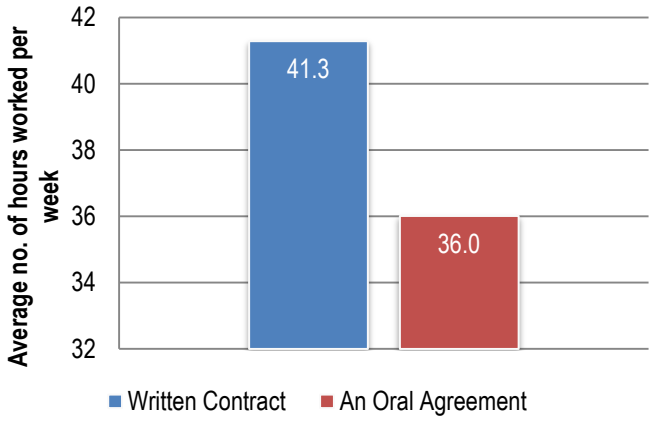
Figure 3.24 Wage and salaried workers by reason for satisfaction and dissatisfaction with contract



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The survey found that, on average, wage and salaried youth worked for 39 hours per week, and that those with a written contract worked more hours than those with an oral agreement (41 and 36 hours, respectively) (figure 3.25).

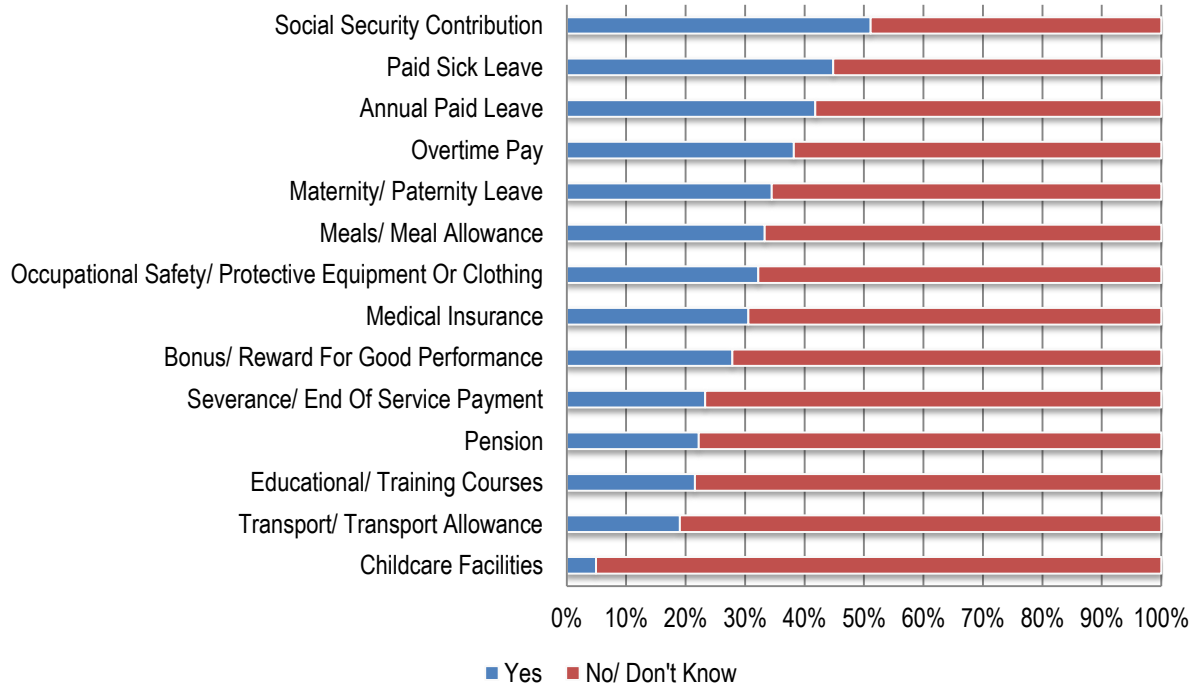
Figure 3.25 Young wage and salaried workers by number of hours worked per week and type of contract



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Wage and salaried youth were asked about their access to benefits/entitlements in the workplace. Figure 3.26 shows that 51.1 per cent said they were able to benefit from social security contributions, 44.8 per cent received paid sick leave, 41.8 per cent received annual paid leave and 38.2 per cent benefited from overtime pay. While this access to benefits is encouraging, a concern is that fewer than one-half of young employees benefited from standard entitlements such as paid sick and annual leave. Only a small share of employed youth received benefits for childcare facilities and transport/transport allowance. Importantly, a large portion of salaried youth did not have or did not know of access to a pension scheme (77.8 per cent) or medical insurance (69.5 per cent) at their place of employment.

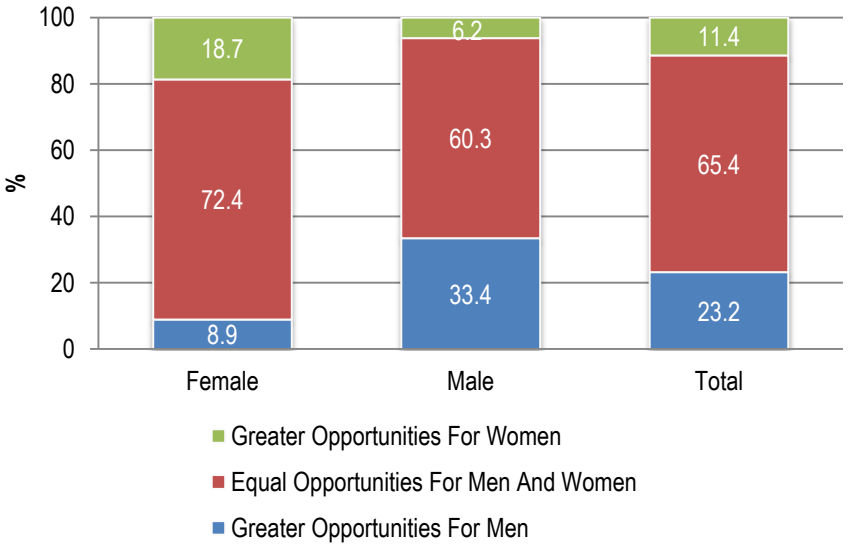
Figure 3.26 Young wage and salaried workers by benefits received



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Youth in paid work were asked about perceived gender bias in the workplace – whether, in their current job, they felt that a woman had the same opportunities as a man to be promoted or to be successful. Overall, in their current jobs, less than two-thirds (65.4 per cent) responded that gender bias did not exist in their workplace (figure 3.27). However, among those perceiving a gender bias, a larger proportion saw greater opportunities for men (23.2per cent) than for women (11.4 per cent).

Figure 3.27 Youth's perceived gender bias in the workplace by sex



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Interestingly, youth's perception of gender bias in the workplace was affected by their sex. A larger proportion of females than males (18.7 per cent versus 6.2 per cent, respectively) saw greater opportunities for women, while a larger proportion of males than females (33.4 per cent versus 8.9 per cent, respectively) saw greater opportunities for men.

3.3.3 Own-account workers and employers (self-employed)

An estimated 75,200 youth were working for profit, of which 70,000 were own-account workers and the remaining 5,200 were employers. (No members of producers' cooperatives appeared in this survey.) When asked why they chose to be self-employed rather than work as an employee, youth most frequently cited the inability to find a wage or salaried job (38.1 per cent) – an involuntary motivation – followed by the desire for greater independence – a positive, voluntary motivation (table 3.15). Being required by the family (1.9 per cent) was the least cited reason.

As expected, the two categories of self-employed workers had different motivations. Employers were primarily motivated to work for themselves to gain greater independence (57.7 per cent) and, second, to have a higher income (20.5 per cent). Own-account workers, however, were motivated mostly by the inability to find a wage or salaried job (40.5 per cent), and then by the desire for greater independence (32.5 per cent).

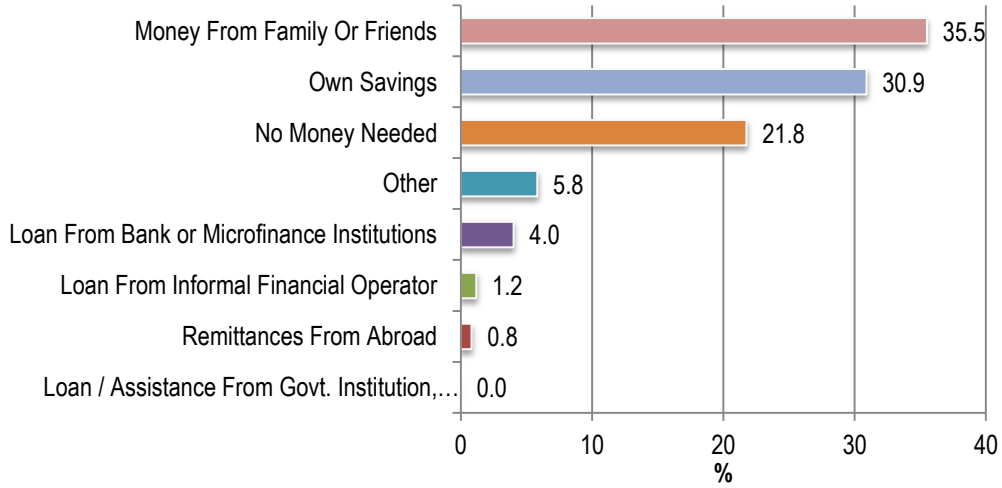
Table 3.15 Self-employed youth by employment category and reason for being self-employed (%)

Reason	Employer	Own-account worker	Total
Could not find a wage or salary job	5.6	40.5	38.1
Greater independence	57.7	32.5	34.2
More flexible hours of work	0.0	9.3	8.6
Higher income level	20.5	6.6	7.6
Required by the family	5.4	1.7	1.9
Other	10.9	9.4	9.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

When asked about the main source of funding for their current entrepreneurial endeavour, youth cited family and friends (35.5 per cent) and their own savings (30.9 per cent) (figure 3.28). A sizeable portion (21.8 per cent) did not require any start-up funding.

Figure 3.28 Self-employed youth by sources of funding for start-up activity

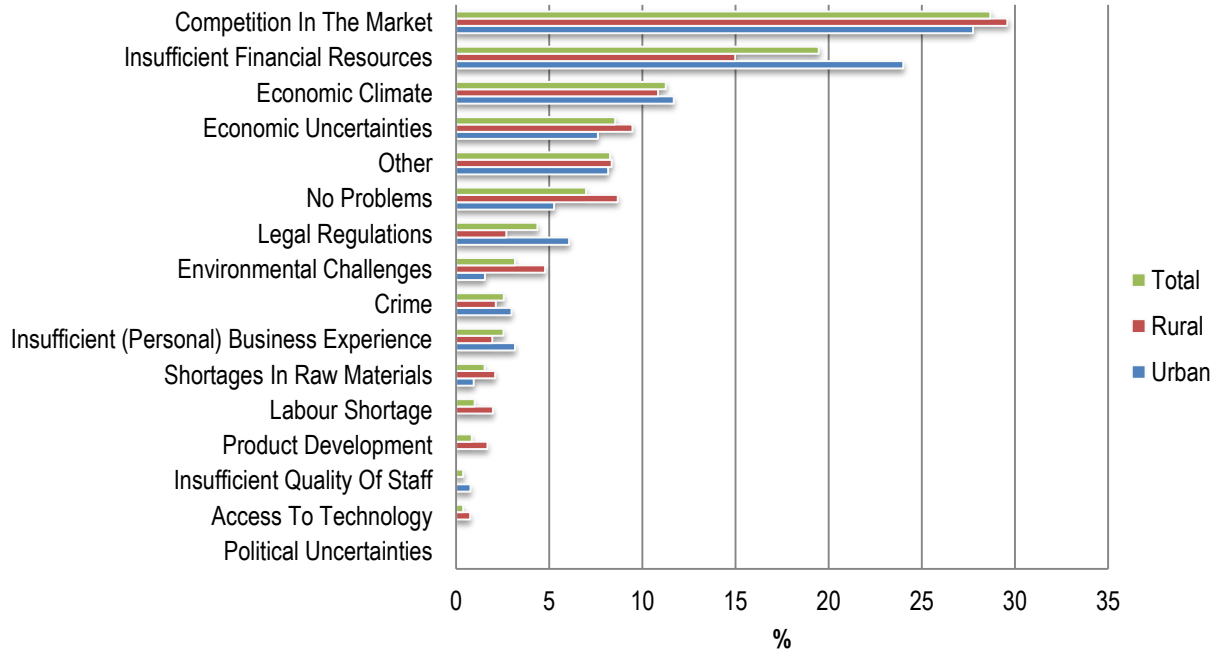


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Competition in the market was the problem faced by the greatest proportion (28.7 per cent) of self-employed youth (figure 3.29). This was followed by insufficient financial

resources (19.5 per cent) and issues associated with the current economic climate (11.3 per cent), such as the high rate of bad debt.

Figure 3.29 Self-employed youth by most important problem faced and area of residence

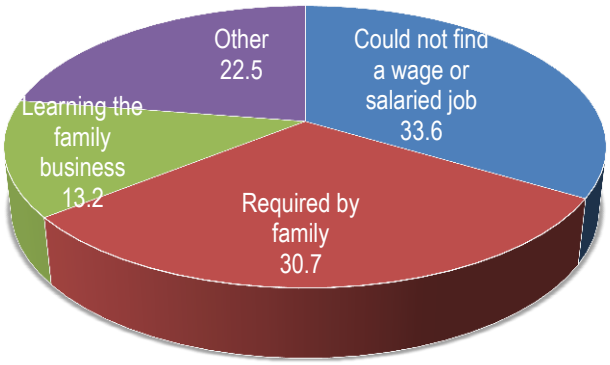


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3.4 Contributing family workers

Youth working without pay in their family businesses were primarily engaged as contributing family workers because they could not find a wage or salaried job (33.6 per cent) (figure 3.30). A large proportion was required by the family to work in the family business (30.7 per cent). Over 13 per cent wanted to learn the family business, while 22.5 per cent had other reasons (e.g. working without pay in the family business by choice or to keep busy while seeking paid employment).

Figure 3.30 Contributing family workers by reason for engagement (%)

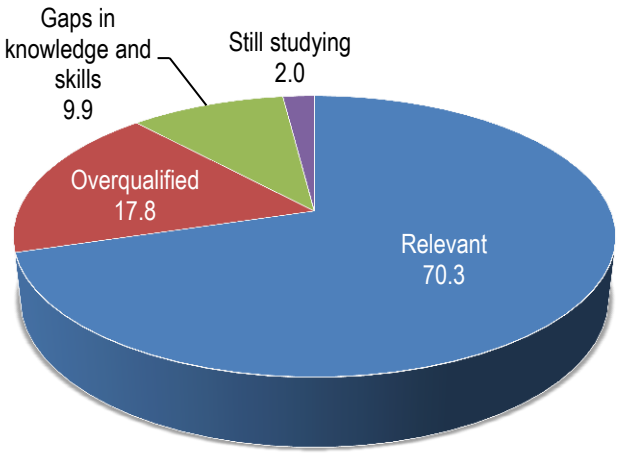


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3.5 Perceived adequacy of education/training and education mismatch

Employed youth were asked whether or not they thought their current education or training qualification was relevant in performing their job. An overwhelming majority (70.3 per cent) indicated that their education/training qualifications were relevant to performing their current job (figure 3.31). Another 17.8 per cent believed that they were overqualified for the job they were engaged in, while 9.9 per cent identified gaps in their knowledge and skills that would merit additional training. A small proportion (2.0 per cent) thought the question was irrelevant as they were still studying/being trained to improve their skill set.

Figure 3.31 Employed youth by perceived adequacy of education/training (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Disaggregated by education level, the data show that youth with lower levels of education were more inclined to see gaps in their education and skill sets than those with higher levels (table 3.16). Those with university/tertiary education tended to think they were overqualified for their jobs. Interestingly, a high proportion of those whose highest education was secondary-level vocational school felt they were overqualified for their job (27.2 per cent). By sex, a greater proportion of females than males (20.6 per cent compared to 16.4 per cent) believed they were overqualified, while a larger proportion of males than females (11.9 per cent compared to 7.5 per cent) saw gaps in their knowledge or skills.

Youth from urban areas were more likely to feel their education/skills were relevant to their jobs held at the time (73.7 per cent) than youth from rural areas (69.1 per cent). A noticeably larger proportion of youth from the poorest quintile (20.1 per cent) believed gaps existed in their education/skills compared to youth from the wealthiest quintile (7.9 per cent).

Table 3.16 Youth by perceived appropriateness of education/training, level of education, sex, age group, area of residence and wealth index quintile

Characteristic	Relevant	Overqualified	Gaps in knowledge and skills	Total	
	%	%	%	Number	%
Level of completed formal education[10]					
None	80.1	0.0	19.9	1 300	100.0
Elementary school (primary)	61.2	10.4	28.5	32 200	100.0
Vocational school (technical high)	62.9	27.2	9.9	9 400	100.0
Secondary school	73.3	17.9	8.9	132 400	100.0
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	68.6	20.9	10.5	52 600	100.0
University/tertiary education	79.2	19.7	1.1	30 600	100.0
Postgraduate studies	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	100.0
Total	71.2	18.0	10.8	258 500	100.0
Sex					
Female	71.9	20.6	7.5	121 300	100.0
Male	71.6	16.4	11.9	174 500	100.0
Total	71.8	18.1	10.1	295 800	100.0
Age group					
15–19	63.2	22.3	14.5	39 000	100.0
20–24	69.5	20.7	9.8	117 700	100.0
25–29	76.1	14.8	9.1	139 000	100.0
Total	71.8	18.1	10.1	295 700	100.0
Area of residence					
Urban	73.7	17.4	8.9	171 000	100.0
Rural	69.1	19.2	11.8	124 800	100.0
Total	71.8	18.1	10.1	295 800	100.0
Wealth index quintile					
Poorest	62.4	17.5	20.1	51 400	100.0
Second	73.5	16.3	10.2	54 100	100.0
Middle	73.3	17.5	9.1	57 500	100.0
Fourth	71.2	23.5	5.3	64 800	100.0
Wealthiest	76.7	15.4	7.9	67 900	100.0
Total	71.8	18.1	10.1	295 700	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

An alternative means of generating information on the skills mismatch is to look at a person's educational attainment against the level of qualifications typically expected of the job. Objectively, the skills mismatch between the job executed and the educational qualification is measured by applying the normative measure of occupational skills categories from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) (ILO, 2013, p. 44). ISCO-08 includes the categorization of major occupational groups (first-digit ISCO levels) by level of education in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Table 3.17 summarizes the ISCO-based educational classification.

[10] Does not include those who are enrolled in school or training.

Table 3.17 ISCO major groups and education levels

ISCO major group	Broad occupation group	Education level
Managers		
Professionals	High-skilled non-manual	Tertiary (ISCED 5–6)
Technicians & associate professionals		
Clerical support workers	Low-skilled non-manual	
Service & sales workers		
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers		Secondary (ISCED 3–4)
Craft & related trades workers	Skilled manual	
Plant & machine operators & assemblers		
Elementary occupations	Unskilled	Primary (ISCED 1–2)

Workers in a particular group who have the assigned level of education are considered well-matched. Those who have a higher (lower) level of education are considered overeducated (undereducated). For example, a university graduate working as a clerk (a low-skilled non-manual occupation) is overeducated, while someone whose highest education level is secondary school but who is working as an engineer (a high-skilled non-manual occupation) is undereducated.

The results in Jamaica show there were many more young surveyed workers in occupations that match their level of education (67.4 per cent) than in occupations for which they were overeducated or undereducated. Table 3.18 provides the breakdown: 17.5 per cent of young workers were overeducated and 18.3 per cent were undereducated. Interestingly, the share of overeducated youth matches quite closely the share of young workers who stated they felt overqualified for their job (17.8 per cent, figure 3.31).

The phenomenon of overeducation tends to take place when an insufficient number of jobs match a certain level of education, which forces some of the degree holders to take up available work for which they are overqualified. One consequence is that overeducated youth are likely to earn less than they otherwise could have and are not making the most of their productive potential. Another consequence is the crowding out of youth at the bottom of the educational pyramid. The less-educated youth find themselves at the back of the queue even for those jobs for which they are best qualified.

Table 3.18 presents the indicators by major occupational category of young Jamaican workers. The data support the premise that some highly educated young people must "settle" for jobs for which they are overqualified, with a particularly high proportion of overeducated youth engaged as elementary labourers (80.5 per cent). On the other hand, young people also hold positions that do not perfectly match their education level. Legislators, senior officials and managers (major category 1) as well as technicians and associate professionals (major category 3) included the greatest proportion of undereducated (71.6 per cent and 74.0 per cent, respectively). In addition, 38.1 per cent of young professionals were undereducated as were 23.1 per cent of youth working in skilled agriculture and fishery.

Table 3.18 Shares of overeducated and undereducated young workers by major occupational category (ISCO-08, %)

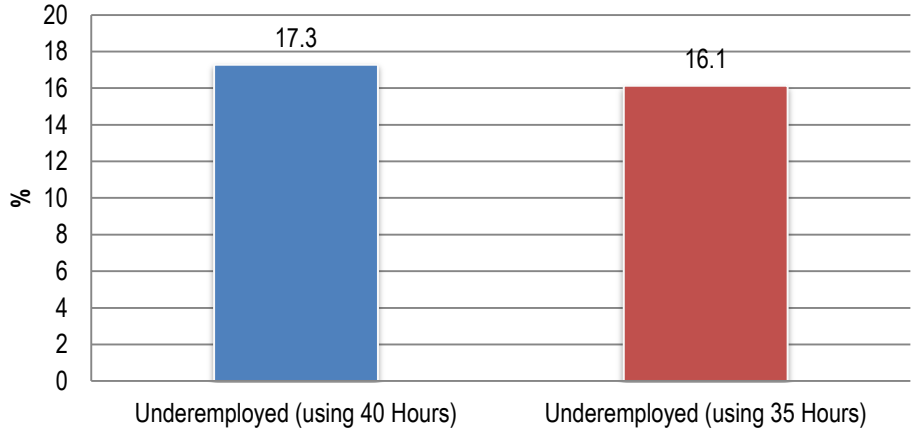
Major occupational category (ISCO-08)	Overeducated	Undereducated
1: Legislators, senior officials & managers	0.0	71.6
2: Professionals	0.0	38.1
3: Technicians & associate professionals	0.0	74.0
4: Clerks	20.4	0.0
5: Service workers, shop & market sales workers	4.7	15.3
6: Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	2.6	23.1
7: Craft & related trade workers	3.9	17.1
8: Plant & machine operators & assemblers	3.2	10.8
9: Elementary occupations	80.5	0.7
Total	17.5	18.3

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3.6 Time related underemployment and other inadequate employment situations

Underemployment reflects underutilization of the labour force, and is broadly interpreted as any sort of employment deemed "inadequate" from the worker's perspective. Time-related underemployment relates to "all persons in employment who, during the reference period used to define employment, were willing to work additional hours, were available to work additional hours, and whose hours actually worked in all jobs during the reference period were below a threshold to be determined according to national circumstances" (Elder, 2009). For the purposes of this survey, the threshold for time-related underemployment is defined according to two criteria: 35 hours per week and 40 hours per week. Using the 35-hour criteria, approximately 48,800 youth (16.1 per cent of employed youth) were estimated to be underemployed (figure 3.32). Increasing the minimum number of hours worked to 40 hours per week yielded an estimated 52,200 underemployed youth (17.3 per cent of employed youth).

Figure 3.32 Employed youth who are underemployed by hours-per-week criteria



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Table 3.19 provides indicators relating to job satisfaction and the desire to change jobs. Job satisfaction was high among employed youth: 73.7 per cent indicated they were satisfied or very satisfied with their main job. Of the remaining 26.3 per cent, only 7.2 per cent were very unsatisfied with their main job.

Interestingly, however, the majority of youth, when asked, wanted to change their current employment situation (61.1 per cent). Finding a higher hourly pay was the primary motivator (48.9 per cent), followed by better utilizing qualifications/skills (19.1 per cent), wanting to improve working conditions and desiring more permanent employment (both 11.0 per cent).

Table 3.19 Youth by inadequate employment situation

Employment situation	Number	%
Extent of satisfaction with main job		
Very satisfied	76 800	25.4
Somewhat satisfied	146 100	48.3
Somewhat unsatisfied	57 700	19.1
Very unsatisfied	21 800	7.2
Total	302 300	100.0
Would like to change current employment situation		
Yes	184 700	61.1
No	117 600	38.9
Total	302 300	100.0
Main reason for wanting to change current employment situation		
Present job is temporary	20 300	11.0
Fear of losing the present job	3 700	2.0
To work more hours paid at the current rate	8 400	4.6
To have higher pay per hour	90 100	48.9
To work less hours with a reduction in pay	800	0.4
To better use qualification/skills	35 200	19.1
To have more convenient working time	5 400	2.9
To improve working conditions	20 300	11.0
Total	184 200	100.0
Looked for another job/activity to replace current one during the last 4 weeks		
Yes	59 400	32.3
No	124 700	67.7
Total	184 200	100.0
Looked for extra work in addition to current job/activity during the last 4 weeks		
Yes	50 700	27.5
No	133 500	72.5
Total	184 200	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Despite wanting to change their employment situation, less than one-third of employed youth did something to effect that change. The data show that 32.3 per cent of employed youth who indicated a desire to change their current employment situation looked for another job in the 4 weeks prior to the survey and, in the same period, an even smaller percentage (27.5 per cent) sought extra work to complement their job.

As for the average wages of young Jamaicans, young men earned more than young women. While a young wage or salaried worker earned JMD 249.50 per hour, a young

man earned JMD 279.10 and a young woman JMD 206.00 (table 3.20). Another important finding concerns the wage premium that comes with increased education.[11] For example, the average wage of a young employee with a university education was double that of a young employee with primary education. At the aggregate level, the young self-employed worker (own-account worker or employer) earned less than the paid employee. However, a clear divergence exists between the sexes. While young female self-employed workers earned well below (nearly one-sixth) what was paid to female employees, self-employed males earned more than their paid counterparts. In addition, the wage advantage of education does not hold for self-employed youth; for them, having vocational training or less than secondary education appears to be an advantage.

Table 3.20 Mean hourly wages of young wage and salaried workers and self-employed workers by sex and level of completed education (Jamaican dollars)

Characteristic	Wage and salaried workers		Self-employed workers		All	
	Mean hourly wage	Std dev.	Mean hourly wage	Std dev.	Mean hourly wage	Std dev.
Sex						
Female	206.00	0.6	36.80	0.4	167.60	0.6
Male	279.10	1.1	321.50	6.7	289.00	2.4
Level of education						
Primary	198.60	1.3	348.50	14.2	260.70	6.6
Secondary	208.00	0.7	134.30	3.3	191.00	1.3
University	407.20	2.4	77.00	2.1	381.50	2.4
Vocational	281.70	2.3	432.20	15.9	309.90	4.9
Total	249.50	0.7	208.60	4.1	240.10	1.5

Std dev = Standard deviation.

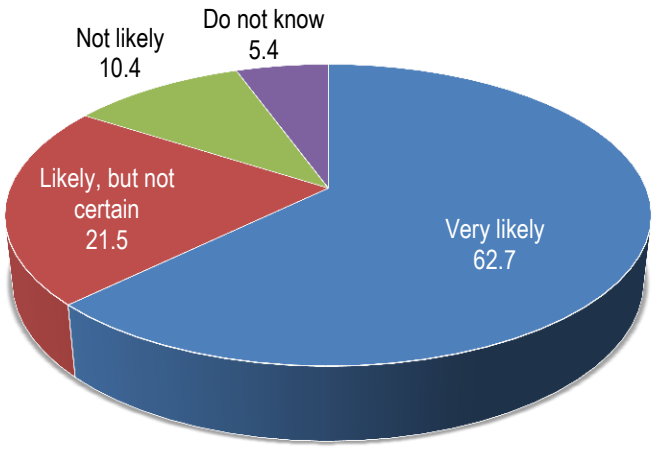
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3.7 Future prospects

The youth were asked questions aimed at assessing their outlook as it relates to job stability. Whereas 75.1 per cent of youth indicated that their employment contract was of an unlimited duration (table 3.14), only 62.7 per cent believed that in the next 12 months they would be able to keep their main job if they wanted to (figure 3.33). Another 21.5 per cent were uncertain but positive, while the remaining 15.8 per cent either had a negative outlook or did not know about their future employment.

[11] The UN operational rate of exchange on 1 March 2013 (the period of the survey's field work) was JMD 95.05 per US dollar. The average hourly wage of a young Jamaican employee was therefore the equivalent of US$2.53. The university graduate in paid employment earned the equivalent of US$4.28 per hour.

Figure 3.33 Youth's perceived ability to keep current job (%)

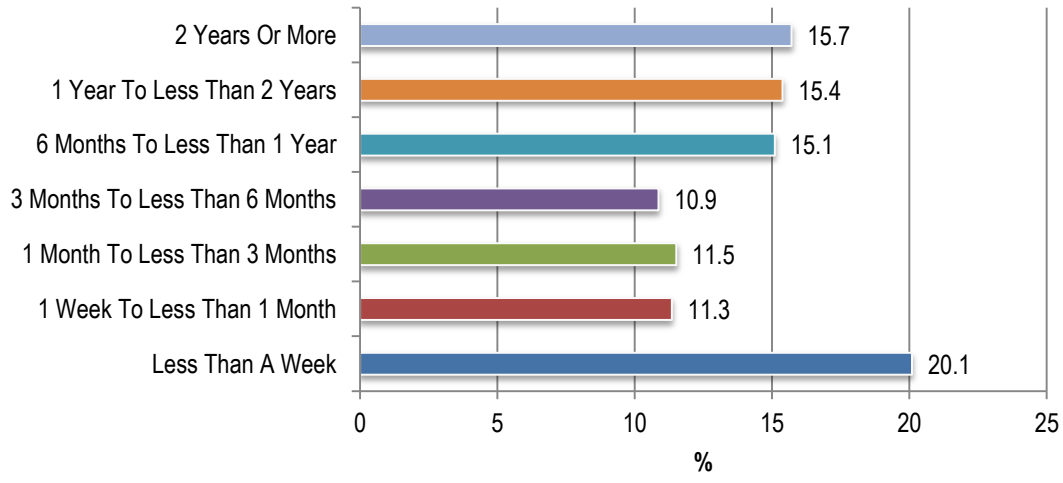


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.3.8 The job search

The distribution of the length of job search of youth currently employed implies that those who did not find employment relatively quickly were likely to have had an extended job search lasting 6 months or more (figure 3.34). A high percentage of youth (42.9 per cent) found their current job in less than 3 months after becoming available and actively seeking employment. Almost 11 per cent found their job within 3 to just under 6 months, while the remaining 46.2 per cent were available and actively seeking employment for at least 6 months before finding their current job.

Figure 3.34 Currently employed youth by length of job search



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

When seeking employment, youth applied for an average of five jobs in the 12 months prior to starting their current job. On average, females applied for more jobs (7) than males (3) (table 3.21); 95 per cent of females applied for 26 or fewer jobs, whereas the same percentage of males applied for 15 or fewer jobs.

Table 3.21 Youth by number of jobs applied for and interviews attended in the 12 months prior to starting current job

Sex	Mean	Maximum	75th percentile	95th percentile	Std. Dev.
In the past 12 months before starting your current job how many jobs did you apply for?					
Female	7	100	7	26	14
Male	3	200	3	15	10
Total	5	200	4	20	12
In the past 12 months before starting your current job how many interviews did you go to?					
Female	1	30	1	5	3
Male	1	27	1	3	2
Total	1	30	1	4	2

Std dev. = Standard deviation.

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Despite applying to an average of five jobs, youth were only able to secure one interview, on average, in the 12 months prior to starting their current job. Along with having a higher number of job applications, females were able to secure more interviews than males; while 95 per cent of females had up to five interviews, 95 per cent of males had only up to three.

Approximately 48,400 or 18.0 per cent of employed youth reported they had previously refused a job that was offered to them. Of those who had refused a job, 32.8 per cent did so because the wages were too low; 14.7 per cent cited the inconvenient location; 14.0 per cent said the work was not interesting; and 24.5 per cent gave other reasons (table 3.22). Almost no youth who reportedly refused a job did so because it required too few hours, their family did not approve, the contract length was not offered or because it would require them to work too many hours.

Table 3.22 Employed youth who refused a job by reason for refusal

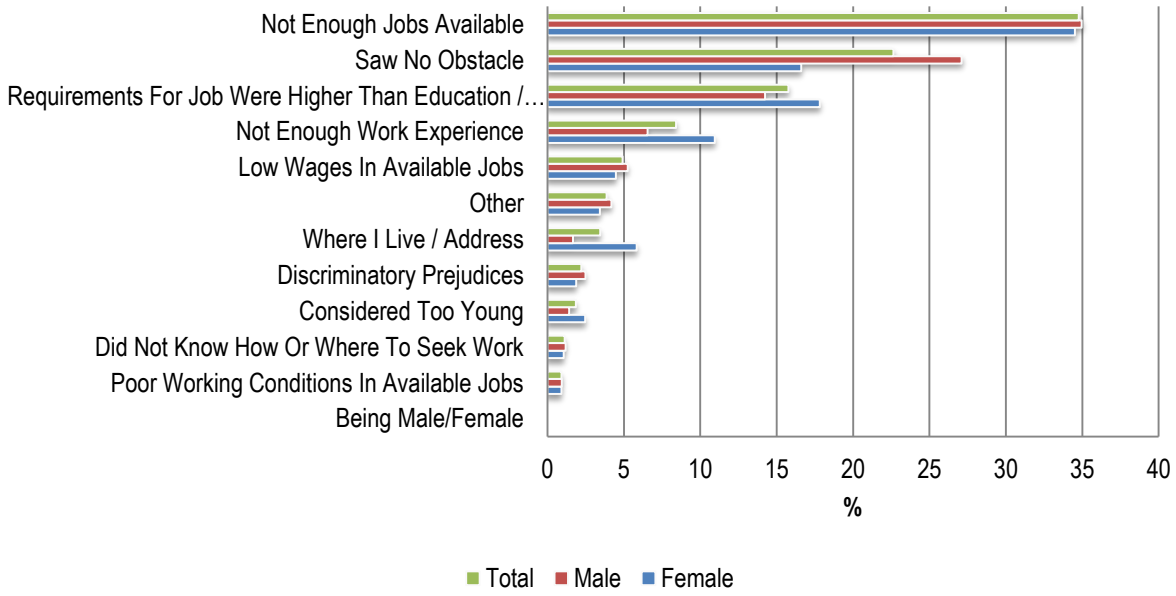
Reason	Number of employed youth who refused a job	%
Wages offered were too low	15 900	32.8
Work was not interesting	6 800	14.0
Location was not convenient	7 100	14.7
Work would not match level of qualifications	2 600	5.4
Work would require too few hours	0	0.0
Work would require too many hours	700	1.5
Family did not approve of the job offered	200	0.5
Waiting for a better job offer	1 300	2.6
No contract length offered	700	1.4
Saw no possibilities for advancement	1 200	2.5
Other	11 800	24.5
Total	48 400	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

As to their main obstacle in finding a job, employed youth cited most often that not enough jobs were available (34.8 per cent) (figure 3.35), and a significant number felt their

level of education was inadequate given job requirements (15.8 per cent). However, a large proportion (22.6 per cent) saw no obstacle in finding a job.

Figure 3.35 Employed youth by main obstacle to finding a job



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

As previously stated, the unemployed are those not engaged in any kind of work or economic activity, be it paid employment, self-employment or working for family gain, but are available for work and actively seeking work. The relaxed definition of unemployment includes those available for work but not actively seeking it. This section focuses on unemployed youth, their characteristics and their perceptions.

The survey estimates there are about 149,000 unemployed Jamaican youth, using the strict definition, or 246,300 using the relaxed definition (table 3.12). The strict and relaxed youth unemployment rates are very high, at 33.0 per cent and 44.9 per cent, respectively.

The survey found that a majority of unemployed youth were female (56.8 per cent, with 43.2 per cent male). By age, 47.0 per cent were 20–24, 29.6 per cent were 25–29 and the remaining 23.4 per cent were 15–19 (table 3.23). With the relaxed definition of unemployment, those aged 20–24 were still the largest group (41.0 per cent); in this category, however, the 15–19 age group made up a higher percentage of unemployed youth, most likely because this group included young people engaged in educational pursuits and thus not actively seeking employment, although they would have taken up work if a job had become available. The mean age of unemployed youth was 22.5 years. Using the relaxed definition, the average age declines to 21.8 years.

3.4 Unemployed youth

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Table 3.23 Unemployed youth by age group (%)

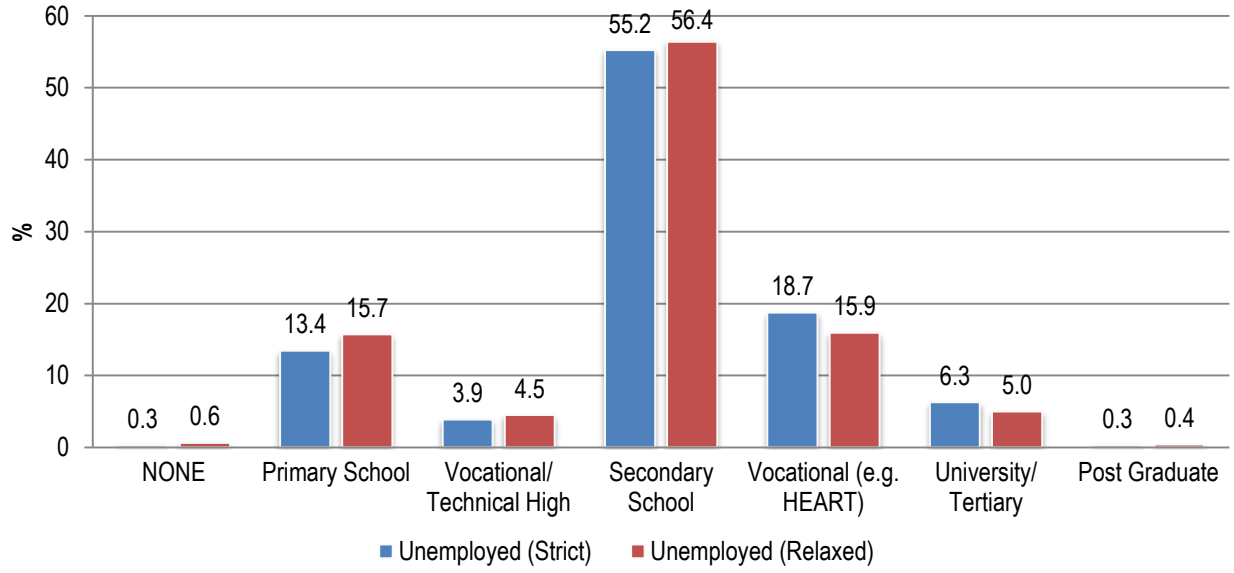
Age group	Strict unemployed	Relaxed unemployed
15–19	23.4	32.1
20–24	47.0	41.0
25–29	29.6	26.9
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

A majority of unemployed youth, using either the strict (53.5 per cent) or relaxed (52.6 per cent) definition of unemployment, were located in Jamaica's urban areas.

Unemployed youth who completed their education were asked to state the highest level of formal education or training they received, which for the majority was the secondary level (figure 3.36).

Figure 3.36 Unemployed youth by highest educational attainment



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Using the strict definition, 12.4 per cent of unemployed youth were enrolled in an educational institution at the time of the SWTS. Of these, 33.7 per cent were at the university/tertiary level, 32.1 per cent at the post-secondary vocational level and 30.8 per

cent at the secondary level. Using the relaxed definition of unemployment, 20.6 per cent were attending school. Of these, 51.9 per cent were in secondary school while 21.7 per cent were in university/tertiary-level education (table A.13).

The youth unemployment rate showed a tendency to decrease as the level of education increased (table 3.24). The (strict) unemployment rate among young people who completed primary-level education was 35.3 per cent compared to 21.8 per cent among those who completed tertiary-level education or higher. The gap between the two levels is even greater when the relaxed definition is used. The evidence thus demonstrates that the lesser skilled have a harder time finding work, and that investing in higher education leads to better labour market returns.

Table 3.24 Youth unemployment rate and level of formal education completed (%)

Formal education completed	Strict	Relaxed
Elementary school (primary)	35.3	48.9
Vocational school (technical high)	34.6	47.7
Secondary school	35.1	45.4
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	31.5	37.0
University/tertiary, postgraduate education	21.8	25.4

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Concerning caregivers, over 50 per cent of unemployed youth had a father as the primary male caregiver (53.8 per cent – strict-definition – and 56.3 per cent –relaxed definition) (table 3.25). In contrast, a higher proportion of employed youth (58.8 per cent) had a father as primary male caregiver. The disparity is less significant in the percentages of youth who had no one playing the role of father in their lives as children.

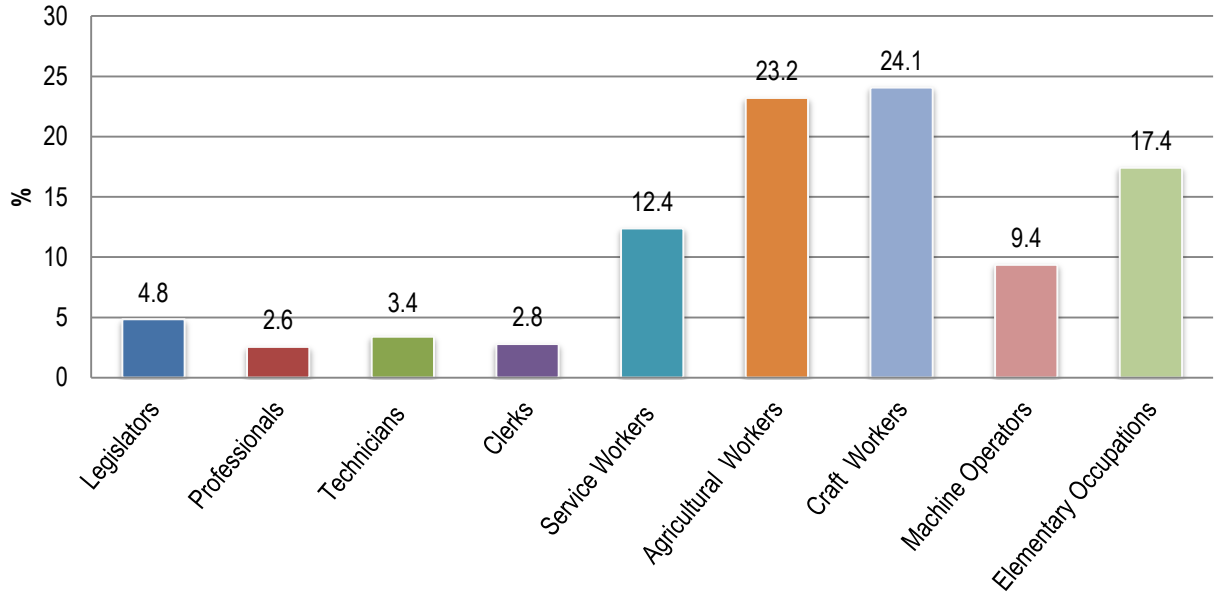
Figure 3.37 shows the greatest percentage of unemployed youth had male caregivers who worked as craft and related trade workers (24.1 per cent), skilled agricultural and fishery workers (23.2 per cent) and in elementary occupations (17.4 per cent). Notably, fathers of unemployed youth were generally not engaged as legislators, senior officials and managers; professionals; technicians and associate professionals; or clerks.

Table 3.25 Unemployed youth by type of father-figure caregiver (%)

Male caregiver	Strict unemployed	Relaxed unemployed
No one	26.6	24.7
Father	53.8	56.3
Stepfather	11.7	10.9
Other relative	7.2	7.4
Other non-relative	0.6	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Figure 3 37 Unemployed youth by male caregiver's occupation



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The vast majority of unemployed youth (87.4 per cent) had a mother as their primary female caregiver (table 3.26). A very small proportion (0.8 per cent) had no one. Over 10 per cent reported that another relative played the role of female caregiver; those respondents listed grandmothers, aunts, sisters and cousins.

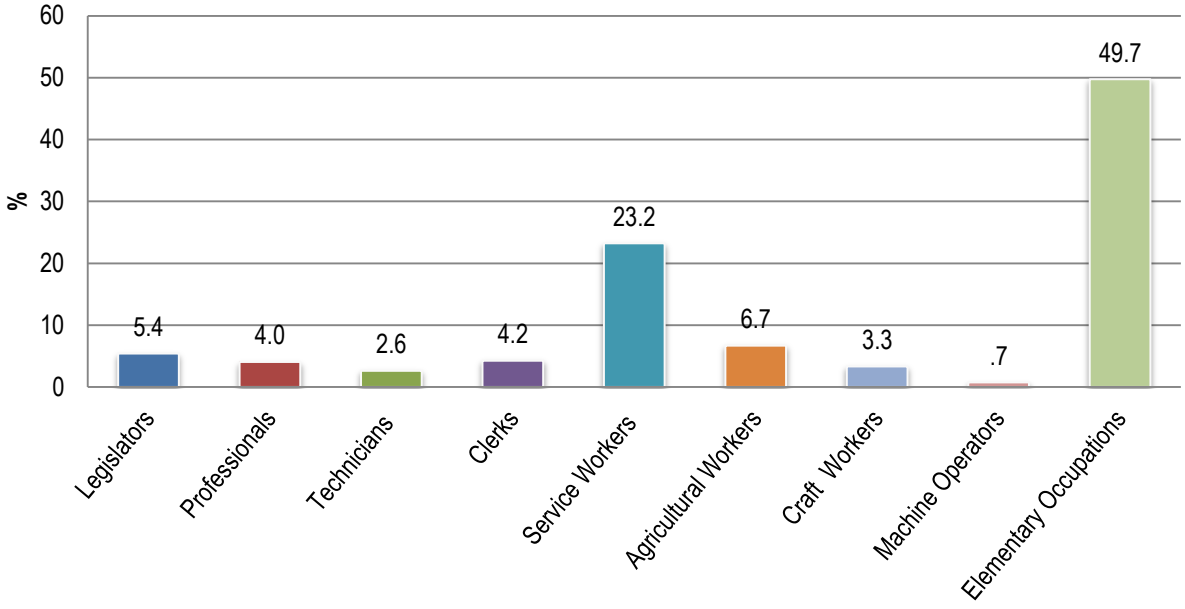
Table 3.26 Unemployed youth by type of mother-figure caregiver (%)

Female caregiver	Strict unemployed	Relaxed unemployed
No one	0.8	0.8
Mother	87.4	87.9
Stepmother	1.2	1.0
Other relative	10.4	10.1
Other non-relative	0.2	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Of note is the fact that the largest proportion of female caregivers of unemployed youth were elementary workers (49.7 per cent), the lowest occupational group with generally very low-paying, low skilled jobs (figure 3.38). A significant proportion of female caregivers were engaged as service workers, shop and market sales workers (23.2 per cent). As with the male caregivers, very few mothers were employed in the usually high-paying occupational groups such as legislators, senior officials and managers, or professionals.

Figure 3.38 Unemployed youth by female caregiver's occupation



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Regarding the perception of their household's income, 40.2 per cent of unemployed youth thought it was "around the national average", while 24.9 per cent felt their household was "poor" and 22.8 per cent "fairly poor". Interestingly, a small proportion (1.4 per cent) thought their household was "well off" and 10.3 per cent felt it was "fairly well off" (table A.15).

Analysis by socio-economic status shows that 18.7 per cent of youth listed as unemployed fell into the poorest quintile. It also found that 23.6 per cent of unemployed youth were in the second, 22.6 per cent were part of the middle, and 22.1 per cent were in the fourth quintile (table 3.27). The smallest proportion of unemployed youth (13.0 per cent) were from the wealthiest quintile, thus negating the hypothesis that unemployment is a "luxury" for those supported by wealthy families while they search for a good job, while the poor must take up whatever work is available to them.

Table 3.27 Youth by labour market and socio-economic status

Socio-economic status	Employed		Strict unemployed		Relaxed unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Poorest	52 000	17.2	27 900	18.7	49 100	19.9
Second	54 800	18.1	35 200	23.6	56 200	22.8
Middle	58 000	19.2	33 700	22.6	57 800	23.5
Fourth	67 200	22.2	32 900	22.1	52 100	21.2
Wealthiest	70 300	23.2	19 300	13.0	31 200	12.6
Total	302 300	100.0	149 000	100.0	246 400	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Despite being out of work, 43.1 per cent of unemployed youth thought that "being successful in work" was the most important goal in life. "Having a good family life" was the most important goal for 22.4 per cent. Other goals indicated as most important to unemployed youth included "having lots of money" (10.4 per cent) and "making a contribution to society" (10.5 per cent) (table A.15).

Unemployed youth were asked whether they had ever had serious thoughts of committing suicide. Notwithstanding the difficulties attached to unemployment, 89.4 per cent had not given suicide any serious consideration (table 3.28). Another 9.2 per cent seriously considered ending their lives and 1.3 per cent did not indicate whether they had thought about it. These percentages are comparable to those reported by all youth involved in the survey.

Of particular interest is that a higher proportion of unemployed youth had thoughts of ending their lives (9.4 per cent) than the national average (8.5 per cent) (table 3.28). In fact, there is little difference in the proportion of employed and unemployed youth who had seriously contemplated suicide.

Table 3.28 Youth suicidal tendency by economic activity status (%)

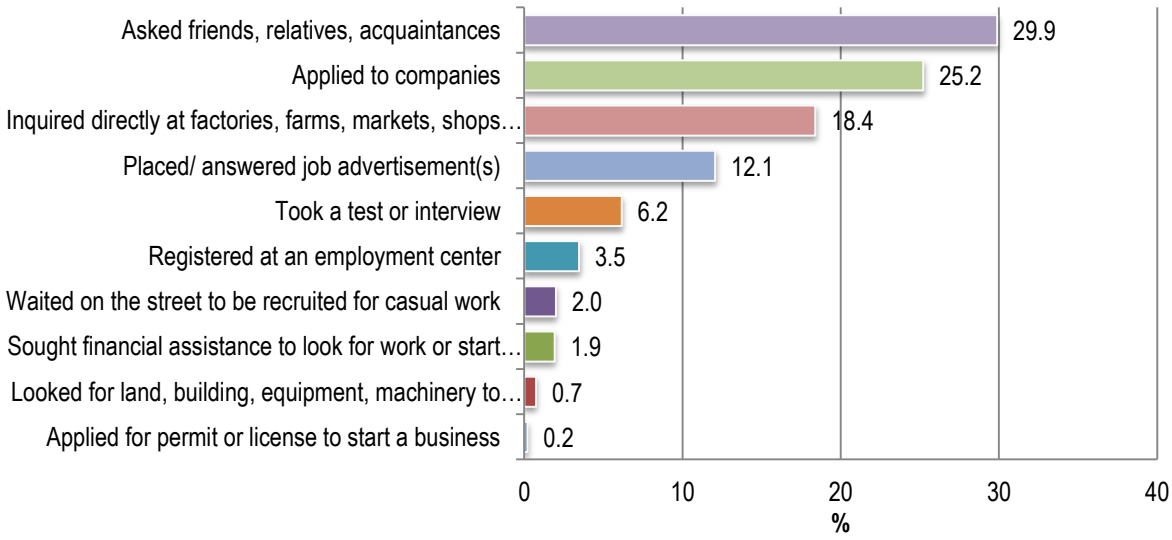
Economic activity status	Serious thoughts of ending own life			
	Yes	No	Not stated	Total
Employed	9.0	89.6	1.4	100.0
Unemployed (strict)	9.2	89.4	1.3	100.0
Unemployed (relaxed)	9.6	89.1	1.2	100.0
National average	8.5	90.3	1.1	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

3.4.1 Steps to find work

Unemployed youth took different steps to find suitable work. The most popular method was to "ask friends, relatives and acquaintances" (29.9 per cent); other approaches included to "apply to companies" (25.2 per cent) and "inquire directly at factories, farms, markets, shops or other workplaces" (18.4 per cent) (figure 3.39).

Figure 3.39 Unemployed youth by steps taken to find work



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Of the respondents with no job or business prospects, 41.6 per cent said they would have liked to work had the opportunity presented itself, while the remaining 58.4 per cent did not want to work. Of those, the main reasons for not wanting to work were because they attended an educational/training institution (82.6 per cent) and because they were restricted by family responsibilities or housework (5.5 per cent) (table A.16).

3.4.2 Discouraged youth

After a prolonged period of unemployment, people often become discouraged and despondent. Youth are no different and may even attach their sense of worth to their inability to find work, resulting in loss of self-esteem. During the 12 months preceding the survey, close to the same number of unemployed youth had taken steps to look for work or start a business (51.0 per cent) as had not engaged in an active search (48.5 per cent). Those respondents who did not seek work or start a business gave their main reasons for not doing so (table 3.29). The biggest proportion (29.0 per cent) listed other reasons, such as attending school; being frustrated or discouraged with the job search; having no finances to start the job search process; or not having the requisite qualifications. Other youth indicated they had looked for jobs before but had found none (12.4 per cent), and 10.7 per cent were on education leave or in training.

Table 3.29 Unemployed youth by sex and main reason for not actively seeking work

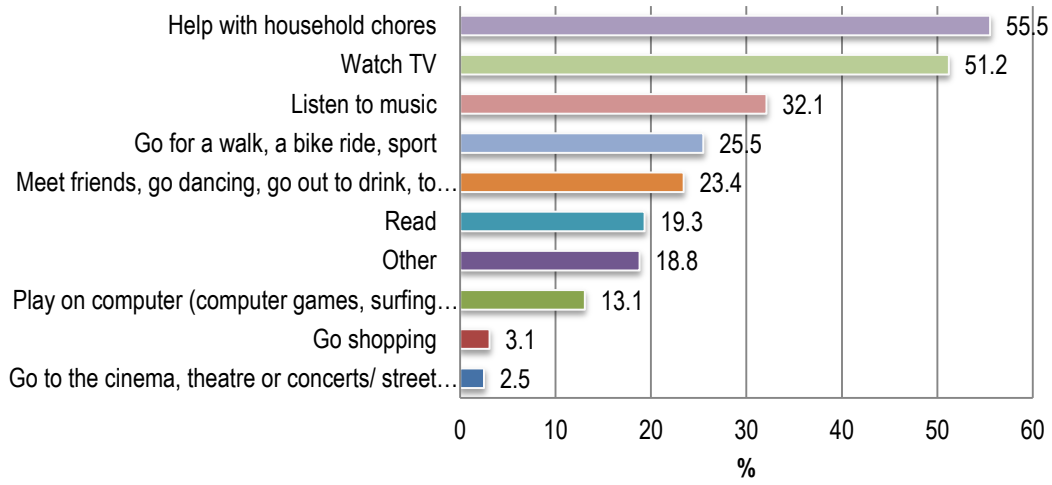
Main reason	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Waiting for results of a vacancy competition or interview	2 000	2.8	300	0.5	2 300	1.9
Waiting for the work season	1 200	1.7	1 800	3.5	3 100	2.5
Education leave or training	6 500	9.1	6 700	12.9	13 300	10.7
Personal family responsibilities	9 900	13.8	1 800	3.5	11 800	9.4
Pregnancy	4 500	6.3	0	0.0	4 500	3.6
Own illness/injury or disability	1 000	1.3	2 600	5.0	3 600	2.9
Do not know where or how to seek work	2 100	2.9	2 900	5.6	5 000	4.0
Unable to find work that matches skills	5 300	7.4	3 000	5.8	8 400	6.7
Had looked for jobs before but had not found any	9 900	13.7	5 500	10.5	15 400	12.4
Too young to find a job	5 700	7.9	5 100	9.8	10 900	8.7
No jobs available in the area/district	5 400	7.5	4 900	9.3	10 300	8.3
Other	18 500	25.7	17 600	33.7	36 100	29.0
Total	72 000	100.0	52 200	100.0	124 700	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Discouraged youth were asked to describe how they spent their time on a typical day of the week by selecting all relevant activities. The main responses (figure 3.40) were "help with household chores" (55.5 per cent), "watch TV" (51.2 per cent) and "listen to music" (32.1 per cent).

Respondents were asked to state their main source of financial resources for the week preceding a job interview. Three-quarters (74.9 per cent) of discouraged youth were funded by their family and 17.0 per cent by their spouse (table 3.30). Youth's perception of their future prospects for employment was also evaluated, and over 66 per cent of respondents were mostly positive. As being unemployed can affect an individual's perception of their self-worth, the youth were asked if their inability to find work had affected how they felt about themselves. Almost three-fifths (58.4 per cent) stated that the inability to find work had not affected their self-esteem.

Figure 3.40 Discouraged unemployed youth by how they spent their time



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Table 3.30 Discouraged unemployed youth by financial resources, outlook and perceived role of the government (%)

Characteristic	Female	Male	Total
Main source of financial resources in week prior to job interview			
My own family	66.0	87.0	74.9
My spouse	26.5	4.1	17.0
Own savings	1.0	5.9	3.1
Remittances	0.0	1.7	0.7
Other	6.5	1.3	4.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
How do you feel about future prospects for employment in general terms?			
Mostly positive	63.1	71.9	66.8
Mostly negative	36.9	28.1	33.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Has the inability to find work affected how you feel about yourself?			
Yes	46.7	34.8	41.6
No	53.3	65.2	58.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Do you think the government can do more to help your chances of finding future employment?			
Yes	88.9	91.9	90.2
No	11.1	8.1	9.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

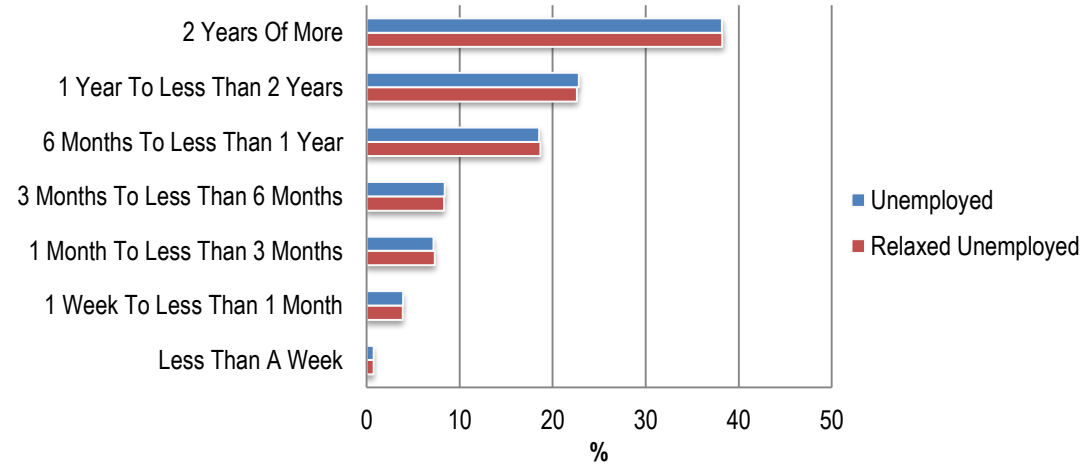
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The vast majority (90.2 per cent) of the unemployed youth surveyed thought that the Government of Jamaica could do more to help increase their chances of finding employment in the future. Respondents gave several actions that the government could take, including creating more job opportunities by building more factories and hotels, investing more in the country, creating more affordable training programmes and providing more accessible business loans to the poor.

3.4.3 Details of the job search

Long periods without work can have serious negative consequences, including financial losses, discouragement, loss of self-esteem and frustration. Unemployed youth were asked to state the length of time they were without work and actively looking for a job. Over one-third (38.2 per cent) had been unemployed and seeking work for over 2 years. Another 22.8 per cent had been without work and actively seeking it for more than 1 year but less than 2 years, while 18.5 per cent were unemployed and had been seeking work for between 6 months and less the 1 year. It should be noted that nearly 80 per cent of all unemployed youth had been unemployed for more than 6 months (figure 3.41).

Figure 3.41 Unemployed youth by duration of unemployment and active job search



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Table 3.31 Unemployed youth by occupation sought, preferred employer and sex

Occupation & employer	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Desired occupation						
Legislator, senior official & manager	1 100	0.8	1 600	1.5	2 700	1.1
Professional	7 700	5.5	7 000	6.6	14 700	6.0
Technician & associate professional	7 100	5.1	4 800	4.5	11 900	4.8
Clerk	40 300	28.9	6 900	6.5	47 200	19.2
Service worker, shop & market sales worker	56 400	40.4	24 400	22.9	80 800	32.8
Skilled agricultural & fishery worker	200	0.1	1 600	1.5	1 800	0.7
Craft & related trade worker	1 400	1.0	28 800	27.0	30 200	12.3
Plant & machine operator & assembler	0	0.0	1 400	1.3	1 400	0.6
Elementary occupations	25 400	18.2	30 200	28.2	55 500	22.5
Total	139 600	100.0	106 700	100.0	246 300	100.0
Preferred employer						
Myself	19 900	14.2	17 700	16.6	37 600	15.3
Government/public sector	57 400	41.1	36 200	33.9	93 600	38.0
Private company	49 200	35.3	46 300	43.4	95 500	38.8
International or non-profit organization	5 200	3.8	2 200	2.1	7 500	3.0
Family business/farm	1 200	0.9	600	0.6	1 800	0.7
Other	6 600	4.8	3 700	3.5	10 300	4.2
Total	139 600	100.0	106 700	100.0	246 300	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

When asked whom they would like to work for, 38.8 per cent of unemployed youth wished to work for a private company, while 38.0 per cent hoped to work for the government or public sector (table 3.31). Another 15.3 per cent preferred to work for themselves, owning their own business or farm.

Very few unemployed youth (9.2 per cent; 6.3 per cent using the relaxed definition) had ever refused a job (table 3.32). The most popular reason for refusing a job was that the "wages offered were too low" (43.8 per cent), followed by an inconvenient location (23.8 per cent). Other reasons were that the position offered was not what was originally applied for, poor working conditions, and sexual harassment.

Over 76 per cent of both unemployed and relaxed unemployed youth had a minimum monthly income below which they would not accept a job (table 3.32). This minimum monthly income was estimated at JMD 25,820 for unemployed youth, and JMD 25,073. for relaxed unemployed youth.

Table 3.32 Unemployed youth by details of refusing a job

Job refusal	Unemployed		Relaxed unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%
Ever refused a job offer?				
Yes	12 800	9.2	6 700	6.3
No	126 800	90.8	100 000	93.7
Total	139 600	100.0	106 800	100.0
Reason for refusing job?				
Wages offered were too low	3 200	24.9	3 000	43.8
Work was not interesting	1 500	11.6	100	2.2
Location was not convenient	1 500	11.5	1 600	23.8
Work would not match my qualifications	200	1.6	400	5.7
Work would require too many hours	600	4.6	0	0.0
Family did not approve of the job offered	900	7.4	500	6.9
Waiting for a better job offer	400	3.0	0	0.0
Saw no possibilities for advancement	0	0.0	300	4.1
Other	4 500	35.4	900	13.4
Total	12 800	100.0	6 700	100.0
Do you have a minimum monthly income below which you would not accept a job?				
Yes	115 900	77.6	187 800	76.2
No	33 500	22.4	58 500	23.8
Total	149 400	100.0	246 300	100.0

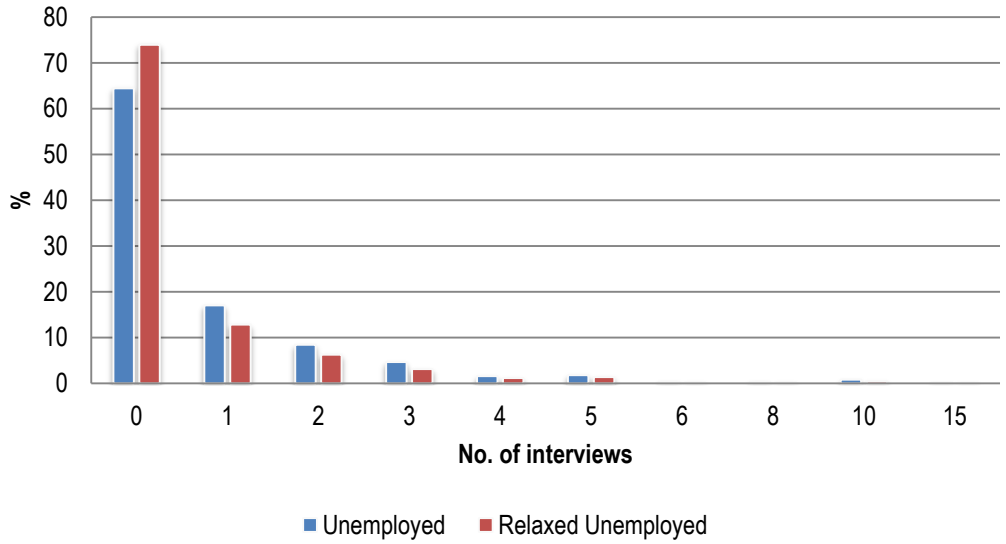
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The social services operated by many governments around the world provide financial assistance to their unemployed citizens. Unemployment benefits for young people in Jamaica are rare. According to the SWTS, 94 per cent of unemployed youth received no financial assistance from the government. With the relaxed definition of unemployment, 92.6 per cent of these youth had not received any government assistance. Among those who did receive government assistance, PATH was the most popular form; others received a stipend from the National Youth Service or other forms of assistance for education or training.

In the 12 months prior to the survey, unemployed youth applied for an average of eight jobs, and those not actively seeking work (relaxed definition of unemployment)

applied for an average of five. Despite applying for several jobs, the vast majority of unemployed youth had no interviews. Just under two-thirds (64.5 per cent) of the unemployed did not have a single interview (figure 3.42), 17.1 per cent secured one and 8.5 per cent had two interviews in the prior 12 months. When using the relaxed definition of unemployment, 74.0 per cent of these unemployed youth had no interviews, 12.9 per cent had one and 6.3 per cent had two interviews.

Figure 3.42 Unemployed youth by number of interviews in the last 12 months



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

It is purported that one of the key factors influencing rural-to-urban migration is the lack of employment opportunities in rural areas. Consequently, the survey sought to find out whether unemployed youth would consider moving to another location to find work. Over 33 per cent reported they would consider "moving to Kingston/St Andrew", while fewer than 30 per cent stated they would not consider moving for work purposes (table 3.33). Moving to "a town/city (other than the capital)" was an option for 22.1 per cent of respondents, who listed among the possible towns or cities Montego Bay, Mandeville, Spanish Town, May Pen, Savanna-la-mar, Morant Bay, Negril, Ocho Rios, Portmore, Port Maria and Yallahs. Those indicating they would consider moving to "a rural area" to find work (11.6 per cent) cited Old Harbour, Linstead and Bog Walk in St Catherine, Martha Brae in Trelawny, Lincoln in Manchester, and Brown's Town and Runaway Bay in St Ann as possible options. Unemployed youth also considered moving to "another country" to find work (32.2 per cent) and listed their countries of choice, which included the United States, Canada, England, the Cayman Islands and the Bahamas.

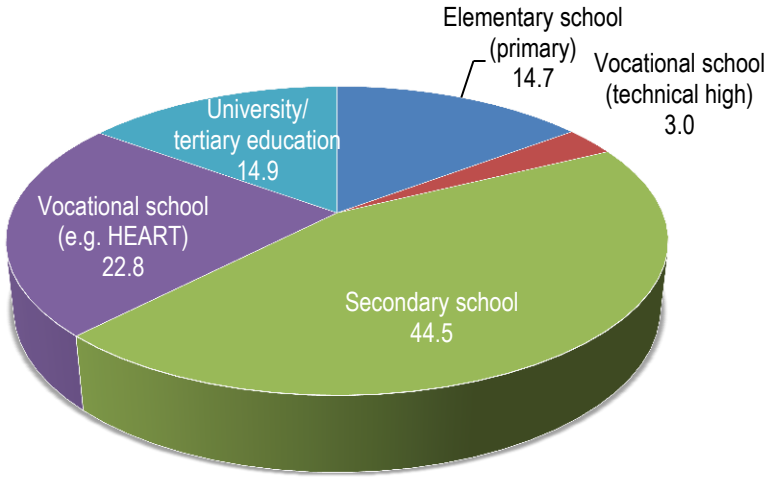
As to the education level of those who would consider moving to another country (figure 3.43), the highest percentage had secondary schooling (44.5 per cent), 22.8 per cent had post-secondary vocational schooling and 14.9 per cent had university/tertiary-level education. These levels combined account for more than 80 per cent of unemployed youth who considered migration.

Table 3.33 Unemployed youth by consideration to move to find work

Consideration	Unemployed		Relaxed unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%
Not consider moving	42 200	28.4	72 600	29.6
Consider moving to:				
Kingston/St Andrew	50 100	33.7	79 200	32.2
A town/city (other than the capital)	32 900	22.1	57 600	23.5
A rural area	17 200	11.6	26 000	10.6
Another country	47 900	32.2	82 800	33.7

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Figure 3.43 Unemployed youth (strict definition) considering to move to another country by level of formal education (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Unemployed youth reported that the main obstacle to finding a good job was that not enough jobs were available (46.2 per cent) (table 3.34). Respondents cited other obstacles, including that the requirements for the job were higher than the education or training received (23.1 per cent) and a lack of work experience (14.5 per cent).

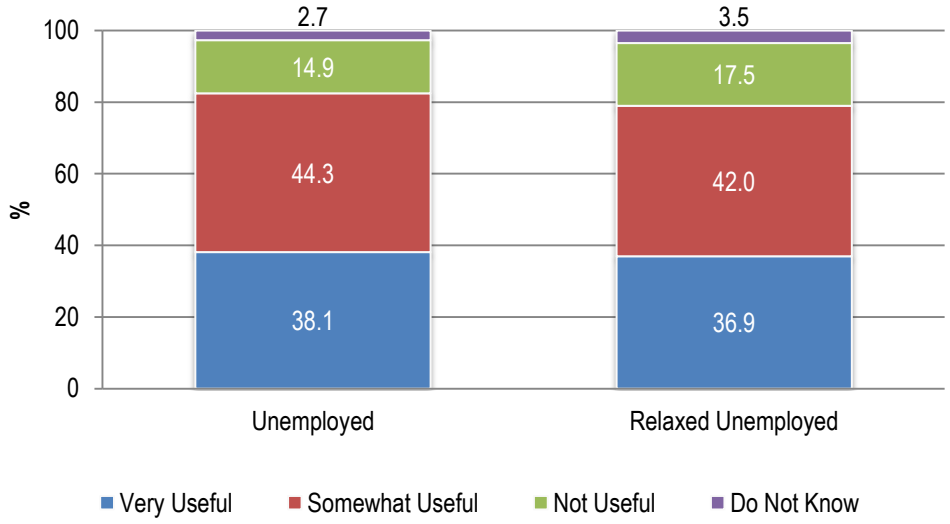
Table 3.34 Unemployed youth by main obstacle to finding a job

Obstacle	Unemployed		Relaxed unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%
Requirements for job were higher than education/training received	34 400	23.1	53 900	21.9
Not enough work experience	21 600	14.5	33 900	13.8
Not enough jobs available	68 800	46.2	100 700	41.0
Considered too young	2 700	1.8	10 700	4.3
Being male/female	0	0.0	500	0.2
Discriminatory prejudices	1 800	1.2	3 100	1.3
Low wages in available jobs	3 800	2.5	6 000	2.4
Poor working conditions in available jobs	0	0.0	300	0.1
Did not know how or where to seek work	3 000	2.0	6 500	2.6
Where I live/address	6 700	4.5	10 700	4.3
Other	6 400	4.3	19 500	7.9
Total	149 200	100.0	245 800	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Unemployed youth were asked to evaluate whether the education or training they received in the past was useful in gaining employment. The largest proportion (44.3 per cent) of unemployed youth surveyed thought it was somewhat useful in getting a job; 38.1 per cent saw it as very useful and 14.9 per cent as not useful (figure 3.44). The remaining 2.7 per cent did not know whether their education was useful or not. The distribution of responses was similar using the relaxed definition of unemployment, with the proportion of youth indicating "very useful" and "somewhat useful" totaling 36.9 per cent and 42.0 per cent, respectively, and those citing "not useful" amounting to 17.5 per cent.

Figure 3.44 Unemployed youth by perceived usefulness of education/training in gaining employment



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Over 50 per cent of both the unemployed (strict and relaxed definition) thought that completing vocational training at institutions such as the Human Employment and Resource Training Trust/National Training Agency (HEART Trust/NTA) would be the most useful to them in finding a job (table 3.35). Their assumption is somewhat contradicted, however, by the higher unemployment rates of youth with completed HEART training compared to youth with completed university degrees (31.5 per cent and 21.8 per cent, respectively) (table 3.24).

Table 3.35 Unemployed youth by perceived usefulness of education/training in finding a job by sex (%)

Education/training	Strict unemployed			Relaxed unemployed		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Completion of vocational school (technical high)	1.3	0.7	1.1	1.7	2.1	1.9
Completion of secondary school	4.4	2.5	3.6	6.9	4.3	5.8
Completion of vocational school (e.g. HEART)	48.9	53.5	50.9	50.0	52.0	50.9
Completion of university/tertiary education	30.6	21.6	26.7	25.1	21.4	23.5
Apprenticeship with an employer	3.7	7.6	5.4	4.0	6.4	5.0
Entrepreneurship training to start own business	3.7	3.6	3.6	4.5	5.0	4.7
Computer & information technology training	2.4	7.9	4.8	3.3	6.4	4.6
Foreign language studies	2.1	0.3	1.3	1.7	0.2	1.0
Other	2.9	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.1	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Still, a significant share of unemployed youth also stated that completion of university-level education would be most useful in finding a job. The completion of secondary education, an apprenticeship with an employer, and computer and information technology training were also considered to help with finding a job (although to a lesser extent). The proportion of unemployed youth (strict definition) who planned to continue their education/training in the future was not significantly different from that of unemployed youth by relaxed definition (88.0 per cent and 89.4 per cent, respectively). Over one-half (50.3 per cent) of unemployed youth (strict definition) hoped to complete university or tertiary education, 30.2 per cent vocational education and 17.9 per cent postgraduate studies. The percentages were similar for unemployed youth using the relaxed definition.

3.5 Youth not in the labour force (inactive youth)

People outside the labour force are those who are unwilling or unable to work. They are usually referred to as "inactive". Of youth outside the Jamaican labour force and not in school/training, more were females (63.4 per cent) than males (36.6 per cent) (table 3.36). However, the 207,800 or 67.6 per cent of youth outside the labour force and enrolled in an educational institution were split basically equally between females (50.1 per cent) and males (49.9 per cent).

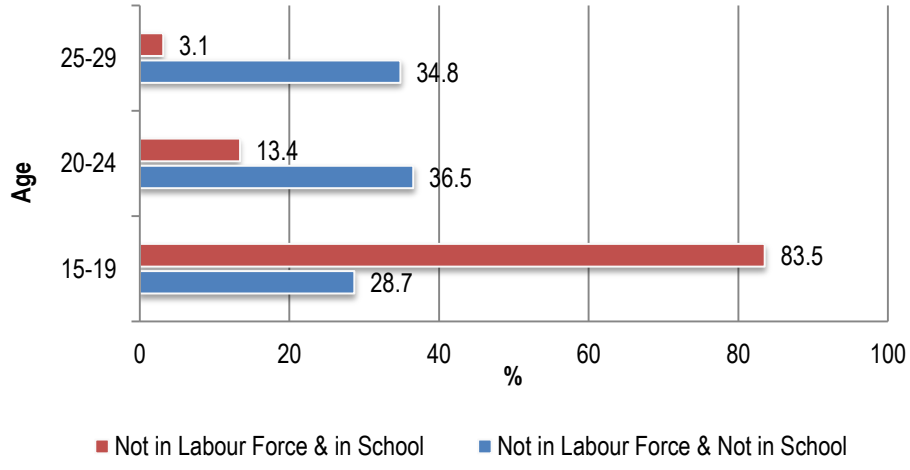
Table 3.36 Youth not in the labour force by enrolment in school/training and sex

Sex	Neither in labour force nor in school/training		Not in labour force but in school/training		Total Not in labour force
	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Female	63 200	63.4	104 200	50.1	167 400
Male	36 500	36.6	103 600	49.9	140 100
Total	99 700	100.0	207 800	100.0	307 500

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

As anticipated, youth aged 15–19 were more likely to be outside the labour force and enrolled in an educational institution; they accounted for 83.5 per cent of all youth inactive due to educational pursuits (figure 3.45). Respondents aged 20–24 had the highest proportion (36.5 per cent) of those inactive and not enrolled in an educational institution than the other age groups.

Figure 3.45 Youth outside the labour force by age and enrolment in school/training



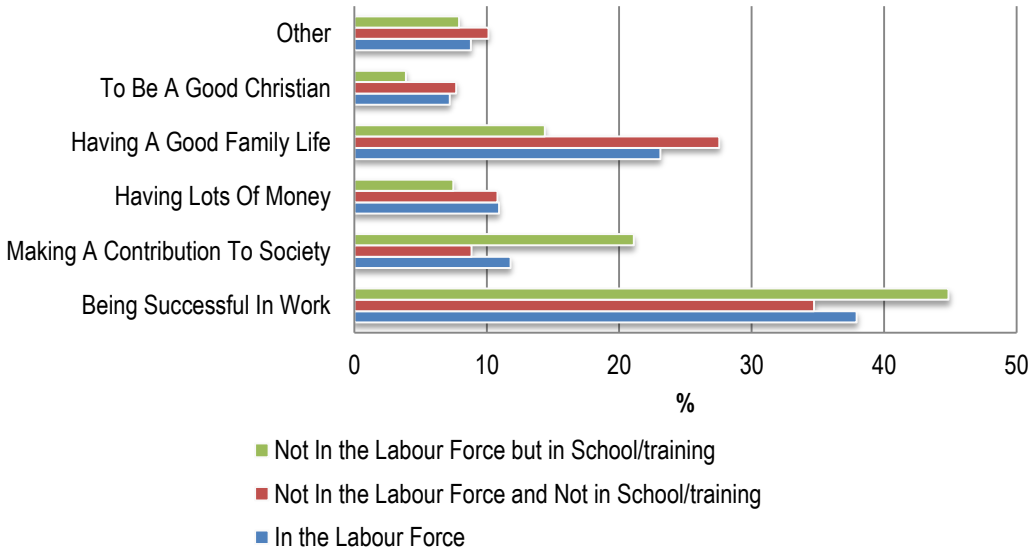
Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Youth aged 15–19 were least likely to be inactive and not attending an educational institution (these youth are more likely to have parents and caregivers who ensure their continued attendance at school or a training institution). Interestingly, rural youth were more likely than urban youth to be inactive and not attending an educational institution (55.0 per cent and 45.0 per cent of youth, respectively).

Inactive students[12] when compared to inactive non-students (youth not in the labour force and not attending school/training) had a higher percentage of those whose most important goal in life was "being successful in work" (figure 3.46). They also had a higher percentage of those hoping to "make a contribution to society". Inactive non-students had a higher percentage of those aiming to "have a good family life" and to "be a good Christian".

A lower percentage of inactive students (6.9 per cent) than inactive non-students (9.4 per cent) had given serious thought to committing suicide. This latter percentage is more on a par with that for all youth in the labour force (9.1 per cent).

Figure 3.46 Youth by most important goal in life and status in the labour force



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Inactive non-students gave the main reasons for their inactivity. The most common reason was "family responsibilities or housework" (32.6 per cent), followed by "pregnancy" (20.4 per cent) and "illness, injury or disability" (17.7 per cent). Not surprisingly, a majority of inactive students cited attendance at an educational institution as the main reason for their inactivity.

All inactive students and 91.6 per cent of inactive non-students indicated they wanted to work in the future. Of note is the fact that 8.4 per cent of inactive non-students did not want to work in the future. Almost 75 per cent of inactive non-students wished to continue their education/training, while 15.3 did not want to continue it and 10.2 per cent were

[12] Not in the labour force but attending school/training.

unsure. University/tertiary education (47.5 per cent) and vocational education (43.3 per cent) were the highest levels that inactive non-students hoped to attain in the future.

4. The stages of transition

A successful transition from school to work is paramount to an individual's success during adult life. Towards the end of their school life, and during the transition to work, youth acquire and consolidate the competencies, attitudes, values and social capital necessary to make a successful transition. This period is particularly important for setting the stage of continued development, as individuals begin to make choices and engage in a variety of activities that impact the rest of their lives. This section critically assesses the stages of transition among Jamaicans aged 15–29.

To adequately assess the stages, it is important to have a clear understanding of what transition exactly means and how it is measured. Different studies measure transition differently. For some, the transition from school to work is the length of time between exiting education and making the first entry into regular employment. Others, however, apply qualitative measures which not only consider that the individual is employed, but also assess the conditions of employment.

4.1 Defining school-to-work transition

The ILO's framework for measuring the school-to-work transition is guided by its Decent Work Agenda.[13] The framework allows a person to be considered as having transited even if they do not meet the specified criteria, as long as they are satisfied with the conditions of their employment. Having satisfactory employment is a subjective concept, based on a jobholder's self-assessment. Individuals are considered to have satisfactory employment if they explicitly state satisfaction with their job. This implies that respondents consider their current jobs as a "fit" for their desired employment paths at that moment in time.

The ILO's framework speaks to the attainment of a **regular/stable or satisfactory job.** It uses permanency as a proxy measure of decency, and is built on the premise that a person has not "transited" until settled in a job that can provide a sense of security.

4.1.1 Concepts

According to the ILO, "the school-to-work transition is defined as the passage of a young person (aged 15–29) from the end of schooling to the first regular or satisfactory job" (ILO, 2009). According to the literature on labour market transition, young people may be classified as being at one of three transition stages: transited, in transition or transition not yet started.

Young people are considered to have successfully **transited** if they have attained a stable or satisfactory job. They are considered to have a **stable** job if their employment contract is of unlimited duration, or if they are contracted for a period exceeding 12 months. Introducing the issue of a contract automatically excludes the employment status

[13] The ILO's Decent Work Agenda aims to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity. See http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/decent-work-agenda/lang--en/index.htm.

of self-employed, where the employment relationship is not defined by a contract. The opposite of stable employment is temporary employment, or wage and salaried employment of limited duration. A job is considered to be satisfactory if the individual is either very satisfied or somewhat satisfied with their employment arrangement.

Young people are considered to have **completed the transition ("transited")** if they are currently employed in a stable job (whether satisfactory or not satisfactory); in a satisfactory but temporary job; or in satisfactory self-employment.

Young people are considered to be **in transition** if they are unemployed; employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; self-employed and not satisfied with the work; or currently inactive and not in school, with future job aspirations.

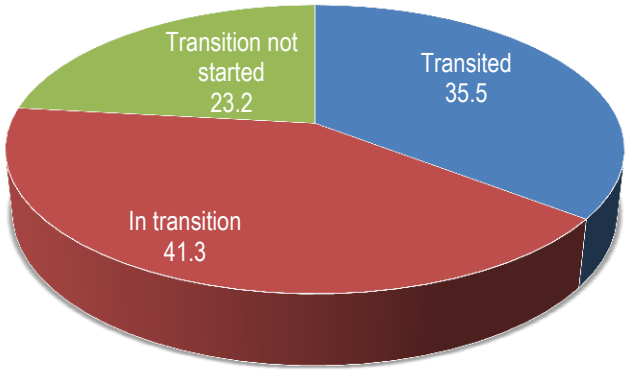
Additionally, some young people are considered as **not yet having started their transition** if they are still in school or if they are currently inactive, with no intention of seeking work in the future.

4.2 Stages of transition

The data reveal that 35.5 per cent of young Jamaicans aged 15–29 successfully made the transition from school to work (figure 4.1). This represents approximately 269,000 young people who attained a stable or satisfactory job.

The survey estimates that 41.3 per cent or 313,300 were still in transition, having failed to obtain a stable or satisfactory job. They were either currently unemployed, temporarily employed in non-satisfactory jobs, or inactive non-students hoping to gain future employment. The remaining 23.2 per cent had not yet started the transition because they were either students (currently engaged in school or training), or inactive students with no plans to work in the future.

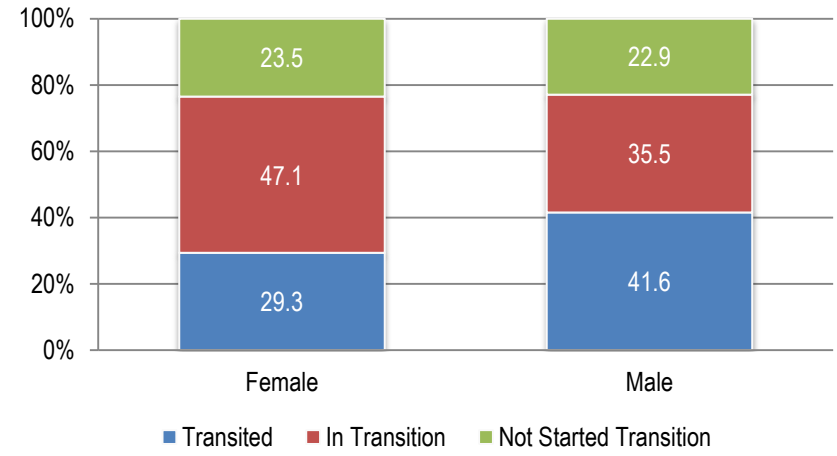
Figure 4.1 Youth by stage of school-to-work transition (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Figure 4.2 shows that a higher proportion of males (41.6 per cent) than females (29.3 per cent) had successfully transited, a finding consistent with the higher proportion of males in this age group who were heads of households and likely to be the primary breadwinners. The survey estimates that approximately 158,100 males had transited, compared to 110,900 females.

Figure 4.2 Youth by stage of transition and sex

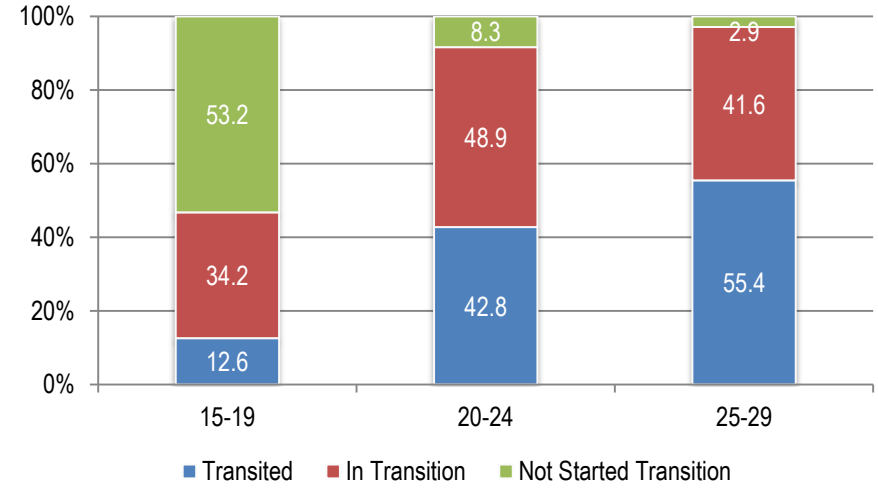


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

However, proportionally more young females (47.1 per cent) were still in transition than their male counterparts (35.5 per cent). While more females aged 15–19 were unemployed and engaged in temporary non-satisfactory jobs, similar proportions of this age group's females and males (23.5 per cent and 22.9 per cent, respectively) had not yet started the transition, as they were more likely to be in school or training.

According to the data, the likelihood of transiting increases with age. A majority of youth aged 25–29 (55.4 per cent) had transited as opposed to 12.6 per cent of those aged 15–19 (figure 4.3). Conversely, only 2.9 per cent of 25–29 year-olds had not started the transition compared to 53.2 per cent of those aged 15–19, reinforcing that more of the latter age group are still in school and have not yet started the quest for decent employment.

Figure 4.3 Youth by stage of transition and age group



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Geographically, more urban than rural youth (38.6 per cent and 31.9 per cent, respectively) were able to make the transition (table 4.1), while a greater proportion of rural were either still in transition (42.5 per cent) or had not started it (25.6 per cent) when

compared to their urban counterparts. In absolute terms, however, more urban youth were estimated to be in transition, while more rural youth had not started it.

Table 4.1 Youth by stage of transition and area of residence (%)

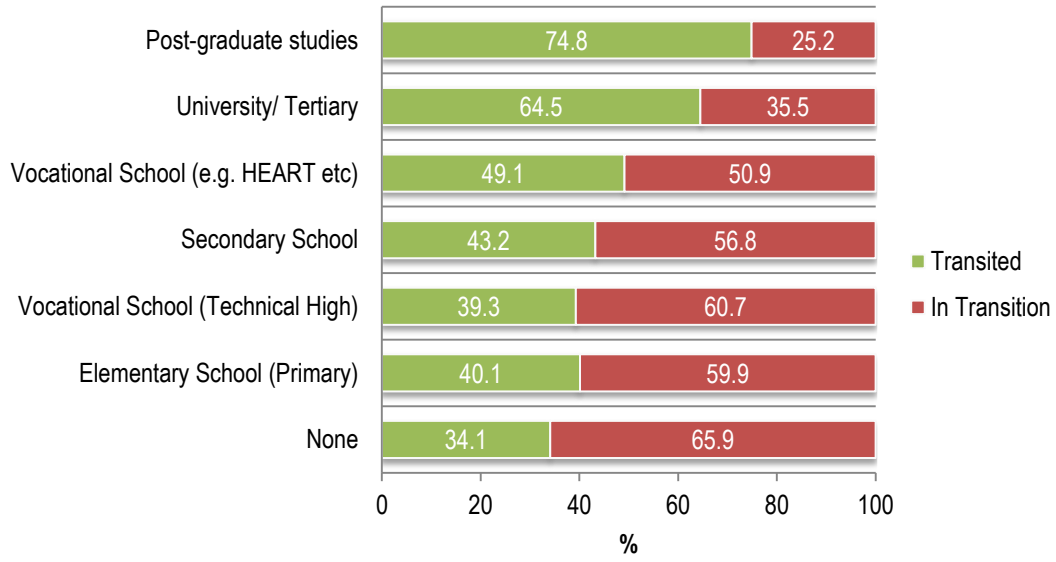
Stage of transition	Urban		Rural		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Transited	156 800	38.6	112 100	31.9	269 000	35.5
In transition	161 200	39.7	149 600	42.5	310 800	41.3
Transition not started	88 200	21.7	90 100	25.6	178 300	23.2
Total	406 200	100.0	351 800	100.0	757 100	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), education has a substantial impact on employment prospects. "In general, people with higher levels of education have better job prospects", and in OECD countries, "the difference is particularly marked between those who have attained upper secondary education and those who have not" (OECD, 2012).

In Jamaica, education impacts on the ability of young people to complete the transition. The survey revealed that a larger proportion of those with higher levels of education transited than those with lower levels. Among those who started the transition, the proportion that transited successfully increased from 40.1 per cent with primary-level to 64.5 per cent with university/tertiary-level education (figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 Youth who have started the transition by level of formal education



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

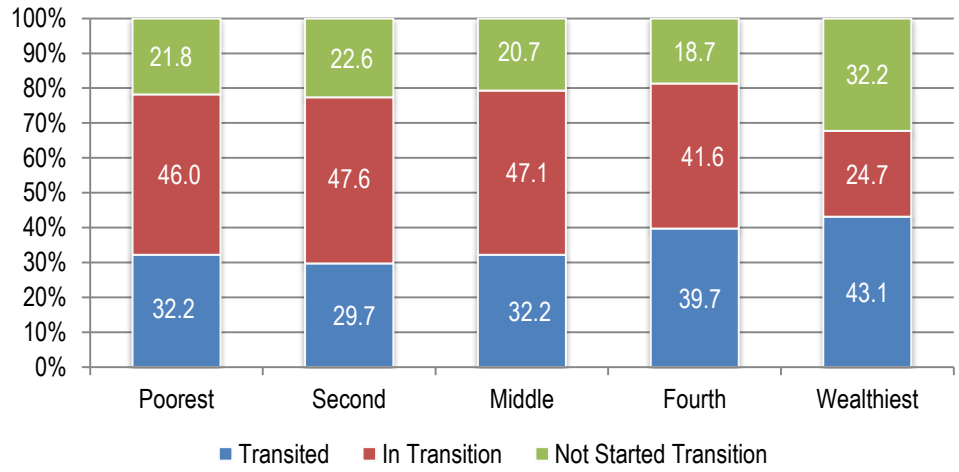
On the other hand, lower levels of education were associated with higher proportions of youth still in transition. Among those who completed primary-level education, 59.9 per cent were still in transition, compared to only 35.5 per cent of those with university-level education (although it is important to bear in mind that another 25.2 per cent – those in postgraduate studies – had also not yet started their transition).

Interestingly, a higher proportion of those with post-secondary vocational schooling (49.1 per cent) had transitioned from school to work than those with only secondary education (43.2 per cent). However, those whose highest education was secondary-level

vocational school (39.3 per cent) were more likely to still be in transition than those whose highest level of education was secondary school.

Figure 4.5 reveals an association between household wealth and stage of transition. Wealthier quintiles had a higher proportion of transited youth than poorer quintiles, while poorer quintiles had a higher proportion of youth still in transition than wealthier ones.

Figure 4.5 Youth by stage of transition and wealth quintile



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

A higher proportion of youth who had not started the transition were in the poorer quintiles (that proportion decreases as wealth increases in the middle and fourth quintiles). However, the wealthiest quintile had a large proportion of youth who had not started the transition (32.2 per cent), which may be attributed to enrolment at the university/tertiary-education level.

The data also show that among the youth who had started the transition, the proportion of transited youth increased with wealth. Whereas 41.4 per cent of youth in the poorest quintile had transited, this percentage increased to 63.7 per cent in the wealthiest quintile (table 4.2). Conversely, a higher proportion of youth in the poorest quintile (58.6 per cent) was still in transition when compared to the wealthiest quintile (36.3 per cent).

Table 4.2 Youth by rate of transition and wealth index quintile (%)

Transition	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Wealthiest
Transited	41.4	38.4	41.0	49.1	63.7
In transition	58.6	61.6	59.0	50.9	36.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

4.3 History of economic activity

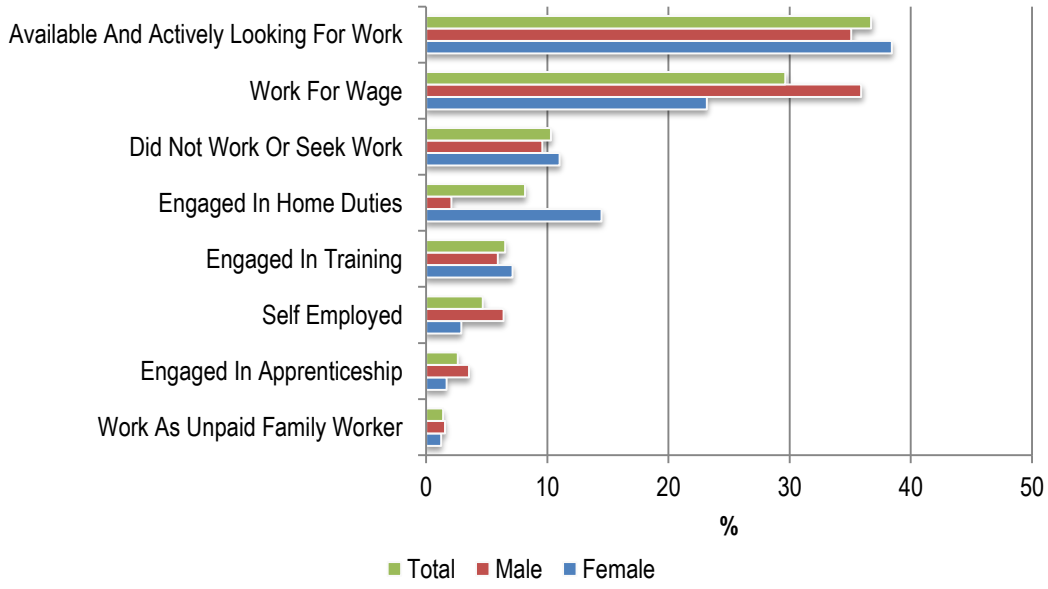
As stated by the ILO, a young person's school-to-work transition is the passage from the end of schooling to "decent" and "stable" employment. Therefore, one of the survey's objectives was to capture the economic activities engaged in by young men and women after completing school.

This section examines the history of economic activity of out-of-school youth.[14] It provides detailed information on the activities youth were engaged in immediately after completing or stopping school/training until their activity at the time of the survey. The activities were classified as "working for wage/salary", "self-employed", "worked as unpaid family worker", "engaged in an apprenticeship", "available and actively looking for work", "engaged in training", "engaged in home duties", and "did not work or seek work for other reasons than home duties". For this report, an in-depth analysis was done only for the first activity out-of-school youth engaged in after leaving school. Additionally, given the small proportion of youth who did not complete any formal education (0.7 per cent), this group's history of economic activity was not assessed in this report.

History of economic activity of out-of-school youth who completed at least primary-level education

The data show that within the first 3 months after completing school or a training programme, the greatest proportion of youth (36.7 per cent) were "available and actively looking for work" (i.e. unemployed) (figure 4.6). Nearly 30 per cent were "working for wage/salary", 10.3 per cent were "not working or seeking work" and 8.2 per cent were "engaged in home duties". Disaggregated by sex, a slightly higher percentage of females (38.4 per cent) than males (35.1 per cent) were "available and actively looking for work"; however, more males (35.9 per cent) than females (23.2 per cent) were "working for wage/salary".

Figure 4.6 Youth by sex and first labour market activity after completing school/training



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

[14] Youth who completed their education/training, youth who left before completion and youth who never started education/training or did not complete primary education.

Table 4.3 Youth by contractual arrangement in first activity, job satisfaction, reasons for leaving first job and sex

Characteristic	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Were you employed on the basis of…?						
A written agreement	14 200	31.4	17 200	27.0	31 400	28.8
An oral agreement	27 600	60.9	41 300	64.7	68 900	63.1
No contract (self-employed)	3 500	7.7	5 300	8.3	8 800	8.1
Total	45 300	100.0	63 800	100.0	109 100	100.0
Was your contract or agreement of unlimited/limited duration?						
Unlimited duration	23 100	55.8	37 000	63.3	60 200	60.2
Limited duration	18 300	44.2	21 500	36.7	39 800	39.8
Total	41 400	100.0	58 500	100.0	99 900	100.0
Reason for contract/agreement of limited duration						
On-the-job training	4 000	21.8	6 700	31.4	10 700	26.9
Probation period	1 500	8.4	1 100	5.1	2 600	6.7
Seasonal worker	2 600	14.1	4 000	18.8	6 600	16.6
Occasional/daily work	2 300	12.6	2 100	9.8	4 400	11.1
Work as replacement/substitute	5 100	27.9	2 800	13.2	7 900	20.0
Public employment programme	500	3.0	0	0.0	500	1.4
Specific service or task	1 300	7.3	4 000	18.6	5 300	13.4
Other	900	4.8	600	3.0	1 500	3.8
Total	18 300	100.0	21 200	100.0	39 500	100.0
Duration of contract/agreement						
Less than 12 months	12 500	68.4	13 700	64.3	26 200	66.2
12 months to 36 months	4 800	26.2	6 500	30.8	11 400	28.7
36 months or more	1 000	5.3	1 000	4.8	2 000	5.1
Total	18 300	100.0	21 200	100.0	39 500	100.0
Extent of satisfaction with first job						
Very satisfied	10 800	23.9	18 800	29.5	29 600	27.2
Somewhat satisfied	20 400	45.0	29 900	46.8	50 300	46.1
Somewhat unsatisfied	9 700	21.4	10 000	15.7	19 700	18.0
Very unsatisfied	4 400	9.8	5 100	8.0	9 500	8.7
Total	45 300	100.0	63 800	100.0	109 100	100.0
Reason for leaving first job						
For better job	5 400	12.0	12 900	20.5	18 300	17.0
Dismissed/let go	6 400	14.3	5 900	9.4	12 300	11.4
Unhappy with workplace	9 100	20.4	10 600	16.9	19 800	18.4
Temporary job ended	12 800	28.6	17 400	27.6	30 100	28.0
Health reasons	700	1.5	1 400	2.2	2 000	1.9
To have a baby	3 100	6.9	0	0.0	3 100	2.9
To look after family	2 000	4.5	800	1.3	2 800	2.6
Moved from area	0	0.0	900	1.5	900	0.9
To start education/training	500	1.1	2 600	4.1	3 100	2.9
Migrated	300	0.7	0	0.0	300	0.3
Other	4 500	10.0	10 400	16.6	14 900	13.9
Total	44 700	100.0	62 900	100.0	107 600	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The approximately 186,800 youth reported to have engaged in a spell of employment[15] within the first 3 months of leaving school/training were asked to describe the contractual arrangement of that job. The majority (63.1 per cent) had an oral contractual agreement, 28.8 per cent had a written contract and 8 per cent were employed without a contract (table 4.3). For respondents with a contract, 60.2 per cent indicated it was of unlimited duration, while the contract for the remaining 39.8 per cent was of limited duration. Overall, respondents with contracts of limited duration had that arrangement primarily because they were either receiving on-the-job training (26.9 per cent) or working as substitutes/replacements (20.0 per cent). Most youth with limited duration contracts were engaged for a period of less than 12 months (66.2 per cent).

Job satisfaction is a critical element in an individual's working life; the survey showed a high satisfaction level among those who got a job right after leaving school. Seventy-three per cent of the respondents indicated they were satisfied with their first job, split 27.2 per cent as very satisfied and 46.1 per cent as somewhat satisfied. However, of the youth employed within the first 3 months of leaving school/training, 58.7 per cent or 109,600 did not have an uninterrupted stint of employment leading up to the survey. In other words, when asked whether or not they were still doing their first labour market activity, 58.7 per cent said no.

With high levels of initial job satisfaction, the reasons why young workers left those jobs prove interesting. Youth who began working just after leaving school but were no longer doing that activity were asked to state the reason. Twenty-eight per cent of youth who worked in the first 3 months after leaving school were no longer doing that job because it was temporary and had ended (table 4.3). Another 18.4 per cent left their job because they were unhappy with the workplace, while 17.0 per cent left for better jobs. While some youth were no longer engaged in their first job, they may have subsequently found other jobs. This is discussed further in the report (section 4.4.1).

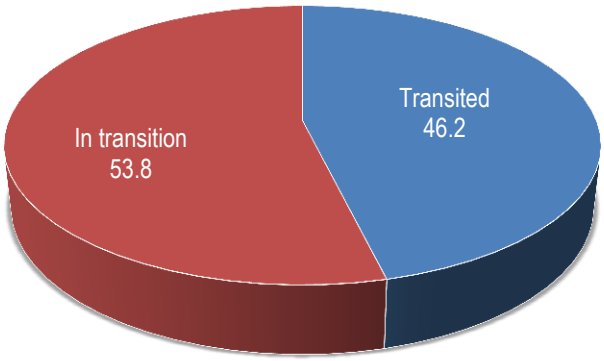
4.4 Youth who have successfully transited

This section presents the characteristics of youth who have transited from school to stable and/or satisfactory work. Urban males in the 20–24 age group and educated to at least the secondary level were most likely to have successfully completed the transition. Among those who started, 46.2 per cent successfully completed it and 53.8 per cent were still in transition (figure 4.7).

Transited youth were primarily in stable and satisfactory jobs (47.5 per cent) (figure 4.8). Large proportions were in satisfactory self-employment (27.5 per cent) and stable but non-satisfactory jobs (17.1 per cent). Approximately 8 per cent of transited youth, however, indicated that despite the temporary nature of their current employment, they were satisfied with the job.

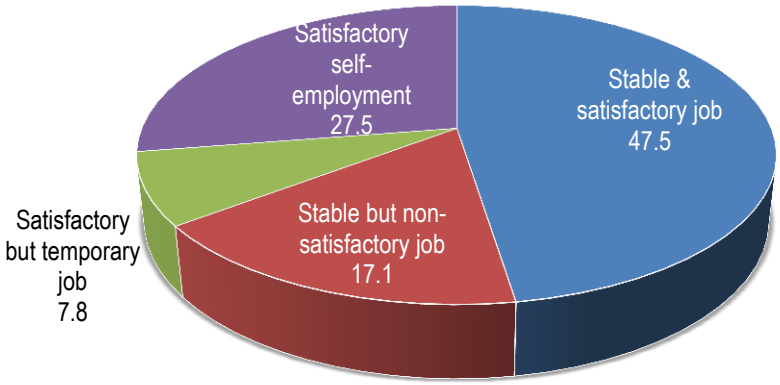
[15] Youth who were either "working for wage/salary with an employer", "self-employed", "worked as unpaid family worker" or "engaged in an apprenticeship/internship".

Figure 4.7 Youth who have started their transition by transition stage (%)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Figure 4.8 Transited youth by category (%)

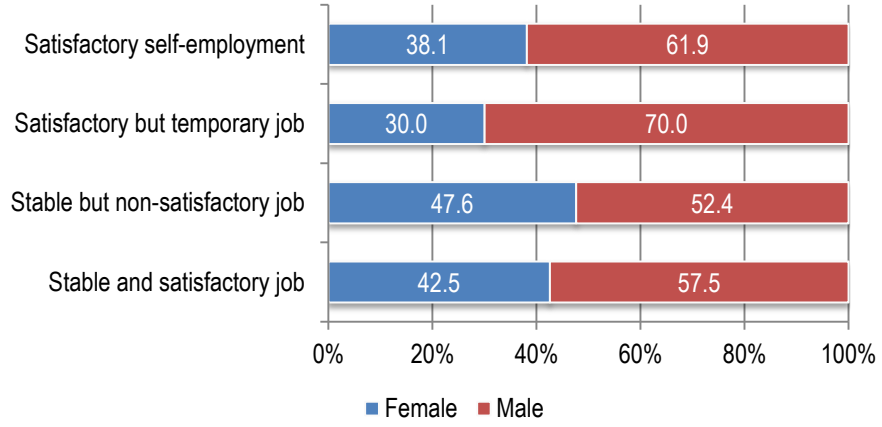


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Transited youth in satisfactory self-employment were predominantly male (61.9 per cent) (figure 4.9). Similarly, those engaged in satisfactory but temporary jobs were also largely male (70.0 per cent). The other categories of transited youth were more equitably distributed across both genders. The highest proportion of females was found in stable but non-satisfactory jobs (47.6 per cent) and stable and satisfactory jobs (42.5 per cent).

The youngest transited youth (aged 15–19) were most likely to be satisfactorily self-employed (40.7 per cent) and 35.3 per cent of this age group were engaged in a stable and satisfactory job (table 4.4). Those aged 20–24 were primarily in stable and satisfactory jobs (48.1 per cent), followed by satisfactory self-employment (26.1 per cent). The oldest group of transited youth were primarily engaged in stable and satisfactory jobs (50.4 per cent) and satisfactory self-employment (25.0 per cent).

Figure 4.9 Transited youth by category and sex



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

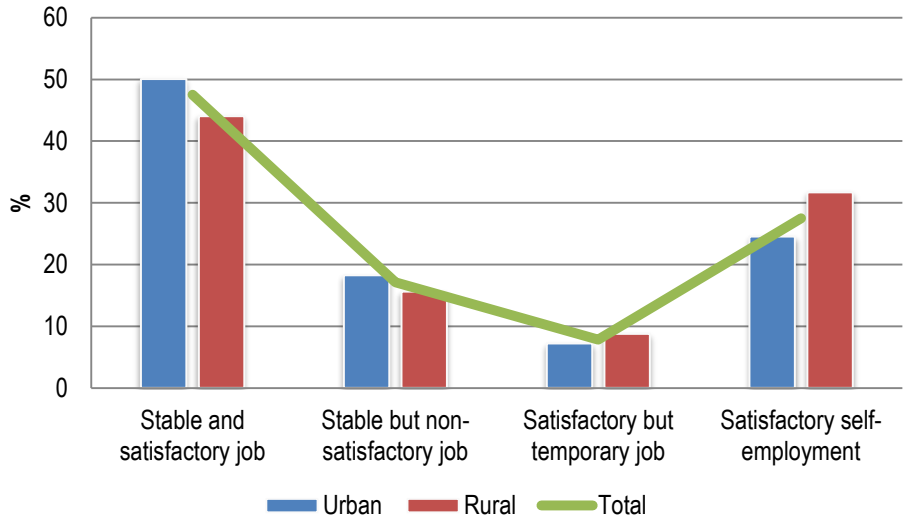
Table 4.4 Transited youth by category and age group

Category of completed transition	Age group							
	15–19		20–24		25–29		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Stable & satisfactory job	12 400	35.3	52 100	48.1	63 300	50.4	127 800	47.5
Stable but non-satisfactory job	4 700	13.4	19 400	17.9	22 000	17.5	46 100	17.1
Satisfactory but temporary job	3 700	10.6	8 400	7.8	8 900	7.1	21 100	7.8
Satisfactory self-employment	14 300	40.7	28 300	26.1	31 300	25.0	74 000	27.5
Total	35 200	100.0	108 300	100.0	125 500	100.0	269 000	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

A greater proportion of transited youth from urban areas were engaged in stable and satisfactory jobs than those from rural areas (50.0 per cent and 44.0 per cent, respectively) (figure 4.10). Urban youth (18.2 per cent) were also more likely to be engaged in stable but non-satisfactory jobs than rural youth (15.6 per cent). On the other hand, rural youth were more likely than urban youth to be engaged in satisfactory but temporary jobs (8.7 per cent compared to 7.2 per cent) and satisfactory self-employment (31.7 per cent versus 24.5 per cent).

Figure 4.10 Transited youth by category and area or residence



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

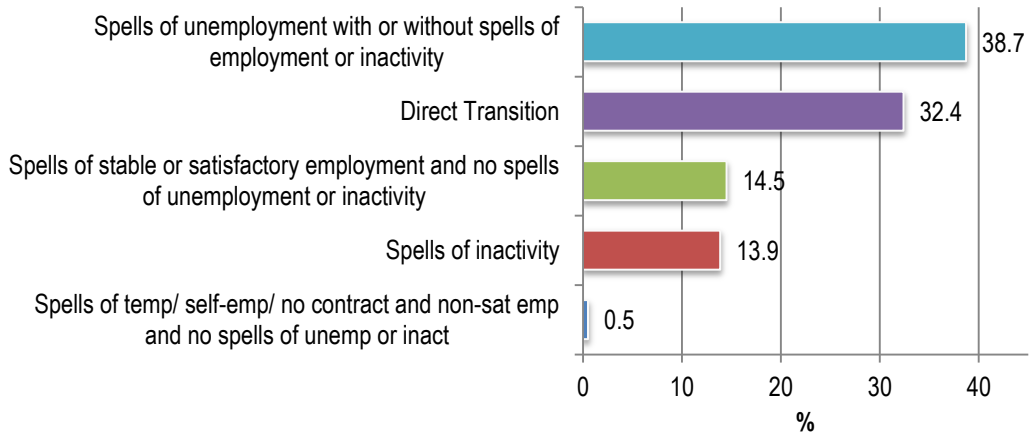
4.4.1 Paths of transition

Paths of transition were only calculated for those who were considered as having transited. It is important not only to know whether or not a young Jamaican had successfully made the transition from school to stable and/or satisfactory work but also to assess whether the individual had an easy or difficult transition. All young people who transited and were not in school were asked to detail their experiences since exiting from education. For those who had transited, this retrospective account was used to assess their transition path. According to the literature (Elder, 2009), four distinct paths of transition exist:

- **Direct transition:** After exiting from education, a young person's first experience is a stable or satisfactory job.
- **Spells of employment with no spells of unemployment or inactivity**: A young person's history contains only stable or satisfactory employment, non-satisfactory temporary employment or non-satisfactory self-employment.
- **Spells of unemployment with or without spells of employment and inactivity:** A young person was engaged in some economic activity prior to the current one, with at least one spell of unemployment.
- **Other:** A young person undertook no economic activity before the current post (e.g. was engaged in home duties or travelling).

As shown in figure 4.11, a large proportion (67.6 per cent) of transited youth did not have a smooth transition from school to work. Just under one-third of transited youth (32.4 per cent) experienced a direct, easy or smooth transition into the work world. In other words, one in three who transitioned, upon completing their education or training, immediately found a stable or satisfactory job.

Figure 4.11 Transited youth by path of transition



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The data reveal that the largest proportion of transited youth (38.7 per cent) experienced spells of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity. It also reveals that these youth experienced up to five such spells before making the transition (although the average number of spells was one). Other youth experienced spells of stable or satisfactory employment and no spells of unemployment or inactivity (14.5 per cent). The remaining transited youth either experienced spells of inactivity (13.9 per cent) or spells of temporary or self-employment or no contract and non-satisfactory employment, and no spells of unemployment or inactivity (0.5 per cent).

Table 4.5 Transited youth by path of transition and selected demographic characteristics (%)

Characteristic	Direct transition	Spells of stable or satisfactory employment and no spells of unemployment or inactivity	Spells of temporary /self-employment, no-contract and non-satisfactory employment, and no spells of unemployment or inactivity	Spells of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity	Spells of inactivity	Total
Sex						
Female	28.0	5.6	0.4	45.8	20.1	100
Male	38.0	13.5	0.6	37.1	10.8	100
Age group						
15–19	53.9	3.3	0.7	29.0	13.2	100
20–24	36.7	9.8	0.7	36.6	16.1	100
25–29	27.8	12.1	0.3	46.3	13.4	100
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	32.1	8.1	1.3	35.7	22.9	100
Second	29.1	10.9	0.7	40.4	19.0	100
Middle	35.2	4.7	0.0	53.3	6.8	100
Fourth	31.3	16.0	0.8	37.5	14.4	100
Wealthiest	41.0	10.8	0.0	36.8	11.3	100
Area of residence						
Urban	35.9	9.2	0.3	40.4	14.2	100
Rural	31.7	11.7	0.8	40.9	15.0	100
Level of formal education						
None	66.1	0.0	0.0	33.9	0.0	100
Elementary school (primary)	26.8	12.4	0.0	38.0	22.9	100
Vocational school (technical high)	34.3	22.2	3.4	32.8	7.3	100
Secondary school	30.2	8.8	0.4	44.7	15.8	100
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	32.8	8.9	0.9	43.2	14.2	100
University/tertiary education	51.9	14.3	0.0	27.3	6.5	100
Postgraduate studies	–	–	–	–	–	–
Highest level of formal education completed by primary male caregiver						
None	35.0	8.2	0.0	20.0	36.8	100
Elementary school (primary)	37.0	17.4	1.0	33.7	10.9	100
Vocational school (technical high)	45.1	5.6	0.0	23.7	25.6	100
Secondary school	38.1	10.9	0.6	36.5	13.9	100
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	77.9	0.0	0.0	22.1	0.0	100
University/tertiary education	72.1	11.3	0.0	12.8	3.9	100
Postgraduate studies	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	100
Do not know	28.6	9.0	0.0	46.9	15.5	100
Highest level of formal education completed by primary female caregiver						
None	42.2	0.0	0.0	32.3	25.5	100
Elementary school (primary)	33.7	14.9	0.0	38.0	13.4	100
Vocational school (technical high)	79.0	0.0	0.0	16.0	4.9	100
Secondary school	34.8	8.2	0.3	41.2	15.5	100
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	33.2	11.4	4.7	34.7	15.9	100
University/tertiary education	41.8	11.9	0.0	33.6	12.7	100
Postgraduate studies	69.0	0.0	0.0	31.0	0.0	100
Do not know	22.7	11.7	1.1	50.3	14.2	100

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Table 4.5 shows that males generally had an easier transition than females, as they were more likely to have had a direct transition (38.0 per cent, compared to 28.0 per cent for females). Additionally, a greater proportion of males (13.5 per cent) than females (5.6 per cent) had spells of stable or satisfactory employment and no spells of unemployment or inactivity before completing their transition. Females were more likely to have had periods of unemployment or inactivity; a greater proportion of females than males (45.8 per cent and 37.1 per cent, respectively) had spells of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity, and spells of inactivity (20.1 per cent and 10.8 per cent, respectively) before successfully transiting.

The data also show that urban youth were more likely to have had a direct transition, or to not have experienced spells of unemployment or inactivity. The same was true for wealthier youth and youth with higher levels of education. Youth from rural areas, the poorer quintiles and those with lower levels of education were more likely to have had spells of inactivity or unemployment than their counterparts, indicating a more difficult path to transition (table 4.5).

Some association exists between the caregivers' level of education and the path of transition. While only 37 per cent of youth whose fathers had a primary-level education made a direct transition, over 72 per cent of those with fathers having a tertiary-level education transited (table 4.5). Moreover, youth whose fathers had a primary-level education were more likely to have had spells of unemployment and inactivity than youth whose fathers had tertiary-level education. The same pattern was true for the mother's education, although to a lesser extent. Youth whose mothers had attained a higher level of education were more likely to have had a direct or easier transition than those whose mothers were educated to the primary level.

4.4.2 Length of transition

The length of transition, computed only for those who have transited, is presented in months and calculated by subtracting the education exit date from the start date of a young person's current economic activity. Table 4.6 shows that, on average, youth took approximately 33 months to transition – in other words, it will take the average Jamaican aged 15–29 more than 2.5 years to attain a stable and satisfactory job. The data also show that, on average, the transition for females was 1 month longer than for males. If direct transits (those having a stable/satisfactory job as their first experience) are excluded, the length of transition increases to 48 months (50 and 44 months for young men and women, respectively). When split by category of transition, transited youth with satisfactory but temporary jobs had the shortest transition (21 months), while youth with stable but non-satisfactory jobs had the longest (36 months). This implies that finding a stable job may be harder than finding a satisfactory one, which was particularly true for females, whose transition to a stable but non-satisfactory job (37 months) was more than twice as long as that of males who attained a satisfactory but temporary job (16 months). Males, however, experienced a longer transition than females to a stable and satisfactory job (33 versus 31 months), and to satisfactory self-employment (34 versus 32 months).

Table 4.6 Transited youth by category, sex and mean length of transition (months)

Category of completed transition	Length of transition (months)		
	Female	Male	Total
Stable & satisfactory job	31	33	33
Stable but non-satisfactory job	37	36	36
Satisfactory but temporary job	33	16	21
Satisfactory self-employment	32	34	33
Average	33	32	33

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

The data also show that the length of transition increased with age (table 4.7), possibly because over time youth may have become separated from their stable and satisfactory jobs for various reasons. For example, shortly after leaving school, youth may have found stable and satisfactory jobs. However, due to an economic downturn leading to changes in working conditions, youth may have found those jobs to be no longer stable and satisfactory, or may even have been separated from them. Based on the definition used in this survey, youth are considered to have transited if, at the time of the survey, they were engaged in a stable and satisfactory job. The designation of having transited does not account for previous stints of stable or satisfactory employment; therefore, it is not surprising that older youth took longer to make the transition.

Table 4.7 Transited youth by demographic characteristics and average length of transition (months)

Characteristic	Length of transition (months)		
	Mean	Median	Maximum
Sex			
Female	33	18	187
Male	32	15	196
Age group			
15–19	9	0	91
20–24	24	13	141
25–29	44	32	196
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	38	26	179
Second	36	24	187
Middle	33	15	144
Fourth	33	24	125
Wealthiest	25	7	196
Area of residence			
Urban	33	18	196
Rural	32	16	148

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Transited youth not enrolled in school at the time of the survey were placed into groups based on their paths and lengths of transition. Transition paths were classified as either "short", "mid-length" or "lengthy" according to the following criteria (ILO, 2009):

1. A **short transition**: before obtaining the current stable and satisfactory (decent) job, the young person underwent:

   - a direct transition; or
   - a spell (or cumulative spells) of stable or satisfactory employment, with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or
   - a spell (or cumulative spells) of employment of less than or equal to 1 year with no spells of unemployment or inactivity, when the job(s) held is/are classified as non-satisfactory temporary employment or non-satisfactory self-employment; or
   - a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of less than or equal to 3 months; or
   - a spell of inactivity of less than or equal to 1 year.

2. A **mid-length transition**: before obtaining the current stable and satisfactory (decent) job, the young person underwent:

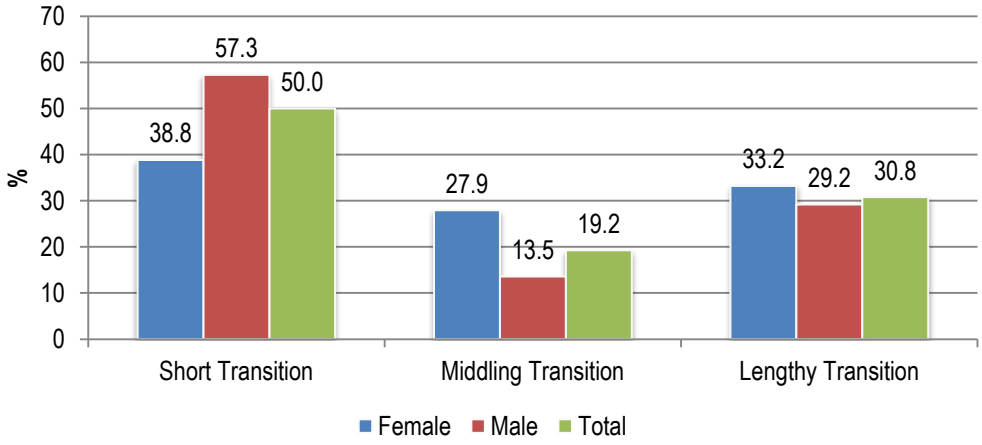
   - a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory temporary employment or non-satisfactory self-employment of between 1 and 2 years, with no spells of unemployment or inactivity; or
   - a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of between 3 months and 1 year; or
   - a spell of inactivity longer than 1 year.

3. A **lengthy transition**: before obtaining the current stable and satisfactory (decent) job, the young person underwent:

   - a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory temporary employment or non-satisfactory self-employment of 2 years or more, with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or
   - a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of 1 year or more.

Overall, 50.0 per cent of transited youth were categorized as having had a short transition, 19.2 per cent a mid-length transition and the remaining 30.8 per cent a lengthy one (figure 4.12).

Figure 4.12 Youth by length of transition and sex



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Disaggregated by sex, a larger proportion of males (57.3 per cent) than females (38.8 per cent) were classified as having a short transition. This is consistent with the previous finding that males, on average, had shorter transitions than females.

4.5 Youth still in transition

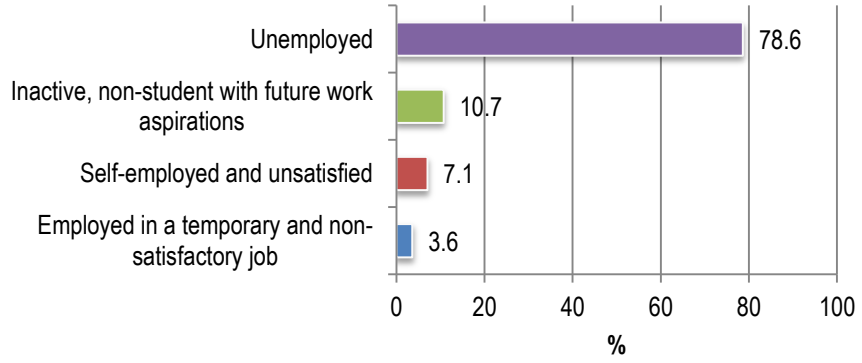
A large proportion of Jamaican youth aged 15–29 were still in transition (41.3 per cent) and had therefore failed to attain a stable or satisfactory job. This was especially true for females (47.1 per cent) and the 20–24 age group (48.9 per cent).

Having a lower level of education was associated with the probability of being in transition. More than one-half (57.4 per cent) of those with primary-level education or lower were still in transition, and the proportion declined as the education level increased, to a low of 18.0 per cent of youth with postgraduate education. Interestingly, a greater proportion of those with post-secondary vocational training (45.8 per cent) were still in transition compared to those with only a secondary-level education (39.6 per cent).

Youth still in transition were divided into four sub-categories: unemployed,[16] employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; self-employed and unsatisfied; and inactive non-student with future work aspirations.

During the survey, the vast majority (78.6 per cent) of youth in transition were unemployed (figure 4.13), meaning 246,300 were available for employment but found none. Of these, approximately 43,300 were considered as discouraged workers who had simply given up their job search. Another 10.7 per cent, or 33,600 youth in transition, were neither in the labour force nor in education/training (inactive non-students) with a desire to work in the future. The remaining 33,400 youth in transition were either "self-employed and unsatisfied" (7.1 per cent) or "employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job" (3.6 per cent).

Figure 4.13 Youth still in transition by category



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Of the employed youth in transition who wished to change their current employment situation, 45.7 per cent of those in a temporary and non-satisfactory job wanted to obtain higher pay per hour (table 4.8). Those self-employed and unsatisfied primarily wanted to change to better use their qualification or skills (30.8 per cent); another 26.6 per cent of this group wanted higher pay per hour, and 20.3 per cent wanted to improve their working conditions.

[16] Relaxed unemployed, i.e. available for work, whether or not actively seeking employment.

Table 4.8 Youth in transition by reason for wanting to change their work situation (%)

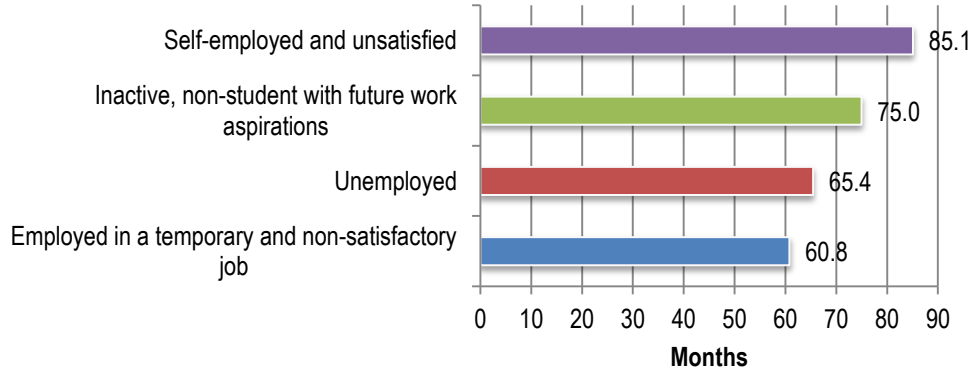
Reason	Employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job	Self-employed and unsatisfied
Present job is temporary	29.9	11.5
To work more hours paid at current rate	3.7	10.8
To have higher pay per hour	45.7	26.6
To better use qualification/skills	9.8	30.8
To have more convenient working time	7.2	0.0
To improve working conditions	3.7	20.3
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

4.5.1 Length of transition

For those still in transition, the length is calculated by subtracting the date of exit from education from the date of the survey. Importantly, the length of transition for those remaining in transition will continue until they find a job deemed stable and/or satisfactory. In other words, the data report only the current duration of transition. On average, youth still in transition had been at this stage for 68 months (figure 4.14) or 5 years and 8 months, which was almost 3 years or 35 months longer than transited youth (who averaged 33 months; table 4.7). In effect, more than 5 years after leaving school, 41.3 per cent of youth failed to obtain stable or satisfactory employment.

Figure 4.14 Youth in transition by average length of transition (months)

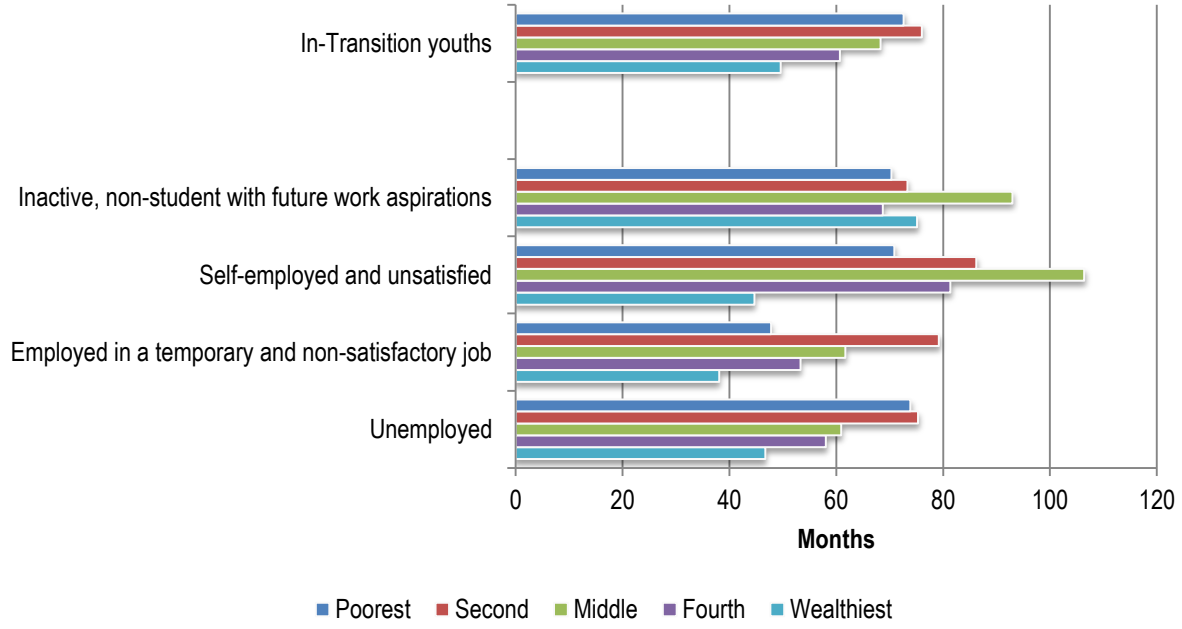


Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Among youth still in transition, those employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job had the shortest average length of transition (61 months). Those self-employed and unsatisfied had the longest average length (85 months, or 7 years and 1 month), implying that they had a higher probability of remaining in transition than other categories of youth. In fact, the self-employed and unsatisfied were in transition longer than those economically inactive with future work aspirations.

However, when split into wealth quintiles, the data show that youth from the poorest two quintiles who were still transiting had the longest current duration of transition (figure 4.15). By quintile, the average current duration in months was: poorest (73), second (76), middle (68), fourth (61) and wealthiest (50). In other words, on average, youth from the poorest quintile who were still transitioning had spent 23 months longer in transition than those from the wealthiest quintile

Figure 4.15 Youth in transition by wealth quintile and average length of transition (months)



Source: STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

In the poorest quintile, unemployed youth had the longest current duration of transition (74 months), while those employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job had the shortest (48 months). In the wealthiest quintile, however, inactive non-students with future work aspirations had the longest duration (75 months), while those employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job had the shortest (38 months).

4.6 Youth who have not yet started the transition

As previously indicated, over 23 per cent of Jamaican youth had not yet started the transition to stable or satisfactory employment. As expected, the youngest age group (15–19) had the highest proportion of those who had not yet started the transition (53.2 per cent); this proportion declined with age, falling to 8.3 per cent and 2.9 per cent of the 20–24 and 25–29 age groups, respectively (figure 4.3).

The data show, however, that most of those who had not yet started the transition were still in school (98.4 per cent) and, as such, had not begun their quest for stable or satisfactory employment. Of concern, though, were the remaining 1.6 per cent or 2,900 out-of-school youth who had not yet started the transition (table A.20).

5. Relevant institutional and policy frameworks

Issues affecting youth transition in the Jamaican labour market have been of concern to the government and the international community for some time. This section focuses on the existing policy and institutional framework that impacts youth empowerment in Jamaica.

5.1 Institutional framework

Institutionally, the regulation of employment in Jamaica fits within the purview of the Ministry of Labour & Social Security, which acts as the central point for the tripartite configuration of government, trade unions and employers, a fundamental principle of the ILO. Trade union activity in Jamaica has a long and storied history, with the Jamaica Confederation of Trade Unions (JCTU) serving as the main union federation. The employers are represented by the Jamaica Employers' Federation and other private-sector groupings such as the Private Sector Organisation of Jamaica.

Over 20 labour legislations (acts and regulations) exist in Jamaica, including the Labour Relations and Industrial Disputes Act & Regulations (1975); the Employment Termination and Redundancy Payment Act & Regulation (1974); the Holidays with Pay Act & Regulations (1973); the Minimum Wage Act & Regulation (1938); the Workmen's Compensation Act & Regulation (1938); and the Foreign National and Commonwealth Citizens Employment Act (1964).

The Labour Relations and Industrial Disputes Act (LRIDA) and Regulation of 1975 are explicitly expressed in the Labour Relations Code of 1976. The Code, outlined in section 3 of the LRIDA, sets out "the guidelines which in the opinion of the Minister will be helpful for the purpose of promoting good labour relations" in relation to the principle of collective bargaining, to developing and maintaining orderly procedures, and to developing and maintaining good personnel management techniques.[17]

As its name suggests, the Employment Termination and Redundancy Payment Act (ETRPA) of 1974 relates to paying workers upon termination of their employment. The ETRPA stipulates the minimum period of notice required to terminate an employment contract.

Congruent with the ILO Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970 (No. 131), the Minimum Wage Act of 1938 establishes the national minimum wage payable to a worker. This legislation also makes provision for the establishment of a Minimum Wage Advisory Commission that considers and advises the Minister on all matters related to national minimum wages.

5.2 Policy framework

The Jamaican youth population (758,600 in 2012, or 28.0 per cent of the total population) is estimated to increase to around 794,600 by 2030. This situation calls for interventions to enhance the capacity of young people through programmes aimed at increasing their access to decent work, education and health services. The Population

[17] The Labour Relations Code, 1976.

Sector Plan of Jamaica's Vision 2030 outlines the need for "empowerment and protection of adolescents and youth to enable them to fully realize their social, cultural and human rights and fulfil their physical, economic and social aspirations".[18]

5.3 Relevant policies

5.3.1 National Youth Policy

The National Youth Policy of 2004 was the second comprehensive policy for the youth population. The purpose, as outlined in the existing policy, is to "facilitate the development of an environment that optimizes the potential of each young Jamaican". The policy's objectives are spread across six focal areas, namely:

1. Education and training
2. Employment and entrepreneurship
3. Health
4. Participation and empowerment
5. Care and protection
6. Living environment

The objectives[19] include but are not limited to:

1. Promoting universal access to quality secondary education;
2. Advocating for an education system that is relevant to the needs of youth and their potential employers;
3. Increasing youth employability;
4. Increasing the number of youth employment opportunities.

A comprehensive policy revision has begun with the drafting of a concept paper that has been submitted to the Jamaican Cabinet as part of a Cabinet Note. While the revised policy will determine the key areas of focus, the policy will be guided by the following principles:

- Leadership and commitment
- Youth mainstreaming
- Meaningful involvement and participation of stakeholders
- Positive youth development

[18] *Population Sector Plan 2009–2030*, Final draft, June 2010.

[19] National Youth Policy 2004.

- Recognition and fulfilment of rights
- Multi-sectoral approach, partnership and collaboration
- Gender, equality, non-discrimination and equity

The revision of the policy is complemented by the development of several instruments that will support the youth sector – the National Youth Survey, the Situation Analysis of Jamaican Youth, the Analysis of Gaps in Youth Programmes and the National Youth Mainstreaming Strategy, all of which have been completed.

5.3.2 National Employment Policy

The proposed National Employment Policy seeks to facilitate the development of the Jamaican economy and aims to support efforts to reduce poverty by providing the framework for increased employment, an efficient labour market and decent work. A concept paper has been drafted.

5.4 Development framework

5.4.1 Vision 2030 – National Development Plan (NDP)[20]

The NDP, Jamaica's first long-term planning framework for development, seeks to place the country on a sustainable development path by 2030 and is based on the comprehensive vision, "Jamaica, the place of choice to live, work, raise families and do business".

For Jamaica, this foresees a major transformation from a middle-income developing country to a developed country status, one which affords its citizens a high quality of life and world-class standards in critical areas including education, health care, nutrition, basic amenities, civility, social order and access to environmental goods and services. Buttressed by seven guiding principles, the vision is built on the accomplishment of four national goals, which together address key social, economic and sustainable development policy challenges faced by Jamaica. Achieving these goals will invariably impact positively on Jamaican youth.

The goals of Vision 2030 are:

Goal 1: Jamaicans are empowered to achieve their fullest potential. It is anticipated that this will be accomplished through improving access to quality health care and education, and providing the population with adequate social protection. One objective for Goal 1 is to implement skills training programmes targeted at unattached and at-risk youth.

Goal 2: Jamaican society is secure, cohesive and just. Designed to tackle one of Jamaica's most urgent priorities, this goal and its accompanying outcomes set targets for reduction in crime, violence and corruption. A targeted intervention within the goal is the implementation of holistic and targeted community development interventions.

Goal 3: Jamaica's economy is prosperous. Correction of structural and policy barriers to growth, and the development of new areas of economic activity, are the basis of

[20] Tabled in Parliament in 2009.

strategies to achieve prosperity. The model advocated by the NDP focuses on diversification of economic activity and a more holistic view of prosperity built around the development and efficient utilization of institutional, human and cultural capital. Vision 2030 identifies nine areas of industry as the pillars of Jamaica's economic development: agriculture, construction, creative industries, sports, information and communications technology (ICT), manufacturing, mining and quarrying, services, and tourism. Included are plans to implement catalytic capital investment projects, namely:

- Agriculture – agro-parks and national food security
- Logistics hub – development of regional logistics facilities
- Development of economic zones
- Privatization of container terminals
- Privatization of the Norman Manley International Airport
- ICT and science parks
- Increases in financing of and support for micro-, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) – mobile money initiatives and training for MSMEs
- Tourism projects – new market segments, megaresorts and attractions
- Infrastructure – completion of the island-wide highway network, broadband and digital broadcasting network, and water and sewage systems
- Urban renewal, and low- and middle-income housing
- Energy sector reform, fuel source diversification, energy conservation, liberalization of the electricity market and construction of a new 360-megawatt plant
- Training – establishment of new workforce colleges, as well as technical and vocational education and training institutes (HEART Trust/NTA)

Under Goal 3, an enabling business environment is listed as the eighth National Outcome of Vision 2030; part of achieving this entails comprehensive Jamaican labour market reform as an aspect of long-term economic development. The national strategy addresses the various factors inhibiting growth. As a consequence, labour market reform will focus on improving competitiveness, increasing productivity, increasing flexibility through revision of labour legislation and regulations, and ultimately, increasing employment and reducing youth unemployment. The efficacy of training, aligned with labour market demand, is another aspect of an enabling business environment that is addressed by Goal 1's second National Outcome of world-class education and training, which is fundamental to the development of human capital in an ever-changing business environment.

Goal 4: Jamaica has a healthy natural environment. The effective and sustainable use and management of the country's natural resources are premised on the understanding that

"successful environmental management is increasingly becoming the basis for the success or failure of economies and social systems".[21]

5.4.2 The Growth Inducement Strategy (2011)

Through proactive partnership between the government and the private sector, the Growth Inducement Strategy seeks to build and sustain an enabling environment for creative and enterprising stakeholders. The strategy establishes a framework for robust economic growth, aligned with Vision 2030.

The main features are to:

- Undertake a systematic programme of tax reform as the linchpin of unlocking latent wealth tied up in potentially productive assets, and promote entrepreneurial dynamism;

- Build international competitiveness by addressing the costs of production: continued ongoing efforts to lower the cost of capital and improve transmission to the productive sector; improve productivity of the workforce by ramping up training and labour certification; promote technical innovation (e.g. greenhouse agriculture) through research and development;

- Exploit the full potential of the business network model to promote synergies within and among targeted clusters of economic activity, reduce transaction costs and realize economies of scale: build and strengthen value-chain linkages, backward and forward, among firms (e.g. business incubator network; linkages between tourism, agriculture, agro-processing and local services [health, sports, food, crafts, entertainment]); promote the emergence of new clusters of activity (logistics hub) and increased employment and export earnings from expanded ICT sites;

- Protect and strengthen the built environment. Severe and costly damage is perennially inflicted on Jamaica by hazards arising from natural and man-made causes. Opportunities exist to simultaneously reduce such costs and create jobs, by redirecting resources within existing fiscal constraints, through public works (e.g. infrastructure maintenance and improvement, housing construction);

- Spearhead the drive for economic growth by expanding community renewal programmes to unlock creativity and entrepreneurship in targeted communities throughout Jamaica, as a foundation for organic and sustained development of such communities and as a positive alternative to illegal options;

- Adopt a new role for government, for a leaner and more effective partnership with the private sector.

5.5 International Monetary Fund (IMF)

Most of the abovementioned strategies have been incorporated under a new four-year Extended Fund Facility (2013–17) with the IMF of US$944.0 million. The main aim is to

[21] Vision 2030 (2010), p.31.

reduce the national debt, the major constraint to Jamaica's growth; the financing of these strategic investments should facilitate sustainable long-term growth.

5.6 Skills development framework

The Human Employment and Resource Training Trust/National Training Agency (HEART Trust/NTA) was established in 1982 under the HEART Act to finance and coordinate training programmes aimed primarily at creating a competent and competitive workforce. Driven by its vision of "a Jamaican workforce trained and certified to international standards stimulating employment-creating investment, contributing to improved productivity of individuals, enterprises and the nation", HEART Trust/NTA plays a critical role in the training and certification of the Jamaican workforce.

The Trust is financed by a 3.0 per cent levy on payrolls that exceed JMD14,444 per month. The organization has established or supported over 130 residential and non-residential training programmes for specific sectors, targeting individuals aged 17 and over.[22] Participants are predominantly youth aged 17–24; the 2009–10 data show that, in the two major programme areas of community- and institutional-based training, about 74.0 per cent of the participants fall within this age group. The Trust also facilitates the delivery of training throughout the island in partnership with donor agencies, government and non-governmental organizations. In recent years, the NTA has concentrated on increasing the offerings of higher-level skills training while expanding the array of competency-based training programmes in a number of broad sectoral areas, such as agriculture, building construction, hospitality/tourism, information technology, automotive services, beauty care services and commercial services. In 2012, some 79,000 trainees were enrolled, and about 39,000 graduated.

The National Education Strategic Plan 2011–2012 (NESP) identifies as its main objective "to present the objectives and strategies to be pursued by the Ministry of Education and its Agencies in a comprehensive way in ensuring an efficient, relevant and effective education system" (NESP, p. 27). It also identifies the following five critical challenges confronting the Ministry of Education in improving Jamaica's education system: access, quality, accountability, qualified teacher supply, and safety and security (NESP, p.19). The NESP is designed to produce a high-quality education product to all Jamaicans aged 3–18, which will equip them to become productive, contributing citizens. Four relevant strategic objectives are:

- 50 per cent of unattached youth accessing education and training by 2020;
- 90 per cent of secondary school graduates accessing further education and training by 2016;
- an increase in the tertiary cohort to 50 per cent by 2016;
- 90 per cent of the adult population literate by 2020.

Compulsory Education Policy (CEP)

This policy is designed to support the mandatory engagement of all children aged 3–18 in a meaningful learning process and in a structured and regulated setting. It addresses

[22] HEART Trust/NTA-operated entities are currently being transformed into Work Force College and Technical Vocational Education and Training Institutes.

regular attendance at learning institutions for all children, as well as exposure to both academic and vocational programmes at the secondary level.

The Special Education Policy is in draft stage and is waiting to be tabled. It will guide the implementation of the special education mandate, which ensures adequate and appropriate provisions that will guarantee access and equity in the planning and delivery of special education services.

The Career Advancement Programme (CAP) is an initiative of the Ministry of Education aimed at improving access to quality education in Jamaica for all new students. Launched in 2010, it was facilitated under the CEP, which is aimed at ensuring that all children aged 13–18 are attached to and attending structured learning/education and training programmes, appropriate to their age and development. The CAP provides youth aged 16–18 with free education and training that helps them to get a career for life, and to earn vocational certification.

The Programme of Advancement Through Health and Education (PATH) is a conditional cash transfer programme funded by the Government of Jamaica and the World Bank, and is aimed at delivering benefits by way of cash grants to the most needy and vulnerable in the society. PATH was introduced island-wide in 2002 and, under it, the Steps to Work Programme was introduced in 2008 as a "welfare-to-work" initiative. This initiative seeks to further build human capital in poor families by empowering household members through remedial education, skills training and competency building, and business development.

The Jamaica Social Investment Fund (JSIF) provides infrastructural and social investments in underserved Jamaican communities. In 2012, JSIF disbursed approximately JMD 1.4billion for community development activities. Education/training-related socio-economic projects included:

- Education training programmes: social investments in this area support the mandate of poverty reduction through education and marketable skills training for 3,718 children and youth.

- Mediation and conflict resolution: mediation and conflict resolution training programmes were provided to 693 people in vulnerable inner-city communities as a means of preventing crime and violence.

- Scholarships for vocational and tertiary institutions: 63 scholarships were provided to vocational and tertiary institutions for youth in targeted communities.

- Employment internships: work experience internships with companies were provided to 63 young people from targeted communities.

- Youth education and recreation: some JMD 24.2 million was disbursed by JSIF for home work centres, Grade Six Achievement Test (GSAT) and Grade Four Literacy and Numeracy classes, and cultural and guidance programmes. Additionally, 2,833 low-performing students aged 6–18 were enrolled in summer camps.

- Alternative livelihood and skills development: 97 youth participated. The skill areas offered included building construction, food preparation, plumbing, electrical and welding.

Under the Social Safety Net Reform Programme (2000), the Social Protection Project 2008-15 was developed. Aiming to strengthen Jamaica's social insurance and social

assistance system, this project supports the following activities: improving the effectiveness of PATH; building capacity to implement the Steps to Work programme; enabling the formulation of a reform programme for the public-sector pension schemes; and developing a holistic social protection strategy. The strategy draft includes a proposal to "prepare young persons for adulthood by equipping them for employment and the attainment of income security, and the knowledge and attitudes necessary to lead responsible independent lives".

The Community Renewal Programme (CRP) is aimed at addressing poor housing, poor infrastructure, weak community governance and the lack of coordination of social intervention programmes. Launched in 2011, the CRP has the broad remit of supporting the development of communities in a holistic way, and targeting six specific areas of vulnerability: governance, social transformation, safety and justice, youth development, socio-economic development and sustainable physical transformation.

The Rural Youth Poverty Reduction Project (2007-13) aimed to reduce rural youth unemployment by increasing the ability of youth to access sustainable livelihood options. The project provided rural youth with skills training and increased access to postharvest production facilities to improve agricultural value added.

The Inner City Renewal Programme is an initiative of the Government of Jamaica. The programme, launched in March 2001, promotes sustainable development in the inner-city communities of the Kingston metropolitan area through improvement of physical and social infrastructure, the creation of economic and employment opportunities, and a general improvement in the quality of life for citizens in these communities.

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Annex I. Key indicators of the Jamaican youth labour market

	Total	Male	Female
Distribution of youth population by economic activity			
Employed	39.9	46.3	33.4
Unemployed	19.6	16.9	22.3
Inactive (strict)	40.5	36.8	44.3
Unemployment rate	33.0	26.8	40.0
Inactivity rate	40.5	36.8	44.3
Labour force participation rate	59.5	63.2	55.7
Distribution of youth population by economic activity			
Regular employed	23.6	26.8	20.4
Irregular employed	16.2	19.4	13.0
Relaxed unemployed	32.5	28.1	36.9
Inactive (relaxed)	27.7	25.7	29.7
Relaxed unemployment rate	44.9	37.8	52.5
Labour underutilization rate (relaxed unemployed + irregular employed + share neither in labour force nor in education/training)	53.3	50.3	56.2
Informal employment share in total employment	75.2	76.4	73.6
Share of informal jobs in total wage employment	48.7	50.1	46.8
Share of employment in informal sector	42.0	42.2	41.8
Satisfactory employment rate	73.7	76.1	70.4
Non-satisfactory employment rate	26.3	23.9	29.6
Share of long-term unemployed in total unemployment (strict)	60.8	58.6	62.4
NEETs rate (strict)	30.3	24.6	36.1
Share neither in labour force nor in education/training (relaxed)	13.1	9.6	16.7
Share of stable wage employment	84.3	81.1	88.9
Share of temporary wage employment	15.7	18.9	11.1
Distribution of employment			
Employees	68.2	68.4	68.0
Employers	1.7	2.6	0.5
Own-account workers	22.8	22.7	23.0
Contributing family workers	6.9	6.0	8.2
Others	0.4	0.4	0.3
Share of vulnerable employment	30.1	29.1	31.5
Share of own-account workers with below-average earnings	58.6	58.0	59.5
Share of employees with below-average wages	52.9	51.0	55.6
Share of youth by transition stage			
Transited (total)	35.5	41.6	29.3
To stable employment	22.9	25.6	20.2
To satisfactory self- or temporary employment	12.5	15.9	9.1
In transition (total)	41.0	35.1	46.9
Relaxed unemployed	32.5	28.1	36.9
Non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment	4.4	4.7	4.1
Inactive non-students with plans to work	4.1	2.3	5.9
Transition not yet started	23.5	23.3	23.7
Temporary employment share in total employment	10.7	12.9	7.6
Regular employment rate	59.2	58.0	61.0
Irregular employment rate	40.8	42.0	39.0

Share in satisfactory employment	73.7	76.1	70.4
Share in non-satisfactory employment	26.3	23.9	29.6
Informal employment rate	75.2	76.4	73.6
Involuntary part-time employment rate	13.9	13.5	14.4
Share of overeducated workers (in those with completed education)	17.5	18.8	15.7
Share of undereducated workers (in those with completed education)	18.3	19.5	16.7
Temporary employment rate	10.7	12.9	7.6
Share earning below-average wages (in own-account + employees)	54.3	52.7	56.5
Share earning above-average wages (in own-account + employees)	45.7	47.3	43.5
Flows (for transited, non-students)			
Direct transition	31.4	35.3	25.6
From unemployment	28.6	26.8	31.3
From own-account work	1.6	1.2	2.3
From unpaid family work	1.3	1.4	1.1
From other employment	24.5	26.4	21.6
From inactivity	12.6	8.9	18.1

Annex II. Definitions of labour market statistics

1. The following units are defined according to the standards of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians:

a. The **employed** include all persons of 15 years of age or more who during a week of reference:
   - worked for wage or profit (in cash or in kind) for at least one hour;
   - were temporarily absent from work (because of illness, leave, studies, a break of the activity of the firm, for example), but had a formal attachment to their job;
   - performed some work without pay for family gain.

b. The **unemployed** (strictly defined) include all persons of 15 years of age or more who meet the following three conditions during the week of reference:
   - They did not work (according to the abovementioned definition);
   - They were actively searching for a job or took concrete action to start their own business;
   - They were available to start work within the two weeks following the reference week.

c. Persons neither included in the employed nor in the unemployed category are classified as **not in the labour force (also known as inactive).**

2. The International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) categorizes the employed population on the basis of their explicit or implicit contract of employment, as follows:

a. **Employees** (also wage and salaried workers) are all those workers who hold the type of jobs defined as "paid employment jobs", where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.

b. **Employers** are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs" (i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced) and, in this capacity, have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).

c. **Own-account workers** are those who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs" and have not engaged, on a continuous basis, any employees to work for them.

d. **Contributing (unpaid) family workers** are those who hold "self-employment jobs" as own-account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.

3. The employed are also classified by their main **occupation**, in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08).

4. A **household** is a family or other community of persons living together and jointly spending their income to satisfy the basic necessities of life. The concept of household includes members present in the place where the household resides, as well as individuals who are temporarily absent and living elsewhere, including abroad, for business, education or other, as long as their residence in the foreign country does not exceed 1 year. A person living alone can also qualify as a household ("single household") if s/he does not already

belong to another unit. The single household can reside in a separate or shared apartment, considered as an independent unit as long as the household's income is not shared with other residents. Collective households, such as prisons and institutions, and their members are not observed in the Labour Force Survey.

5. **The reporting period**, to which the questions for the economic activity are related, is the week before the week of interview (52 reporting weeks throughout the year).

6. The following units are also defined within the SWTS analysis but are outside the scope of those defined within the international framework of labour market statistics mentioned in item 1 above:

a. **Relaxed unemployment** – a person without work and available to work (relaxing the jobseeking criteria of item 1b above).

b. **Labour underutilization rate** – the sum of shares of youth in irregular employment, unemployed (relaxed definition) and youth neither in the labour force nor in education/training (inactive non-students) as a percentage of the youth population.

c. **Regular employment** – the sum of employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration and employers; the indicators are therefore a mix of information on status in employment and contract situations.

d. **Satisfactory employment** – based on self-assessment of the jobholder; implies a job that respondents consider to "fit" to their desired employment path at that moment in time.

e. **Stable employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration.

f. **Temporary employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of less than 12 months in duration.

Annex III. Additional tables

The source of all tables is STATIN, SWTS Jamaica 2013.

Table A.1 Youth by relationship to head of household and sex

Relationship	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Head	30 700	38.0	50 100	62.0	80 800	100.0
Spouse/partner	29 400	88.7	3 700	11.3	33 100	100.0
Son/daughter	195 200	48.8	205 200	51.2	400 400	100.0
Brother/sister	10 000	45.5	12 000	54.5	22 100	100.0
Parent	5 600	54.0	4 800	46.0	10 400	100.0
Other relative	89 800	49.2	92 700	50.8	182 500	100.0
Not related	15 800	59.3	10 900	40.7	26 700	100.0
Total	376 500	49.8	379 400	50.2	756 000	100.0

Table A.2 Youth by relationship to head of household and age group

Relationship	Age group							
	15–19		20–24		25–29		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Head	3 100	3.9	21 900	27.1	55 700	69.0	80 800	100.0
Spouse/partner	1 400	4.1	13 400	40.5	18 300	55.3	33 100	100.0
Son/daughter	163 100	40.7	140 400	35.1	96 800	24.2	400 400	100.0
Brother/sister	6 400	28.8	9 000	40.9	6 700	30.4	22 100	100.0
Parent	5 600	54.0	4 100	39.4	700	6.6	10 400	100.0
Other relative	89 800	49.2	53 200	29.2	39 500	21.6	182 500	100.0
Not related	8 800	33.1	10 200	38.2	7 700	28.7	26 700	100.0
Total	278 200	36.8	252 200	33.4	225 400	29.8	756 000	100.0

Table A.3 Youth by marital status and sex

Marital status	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Single/never married	332 900	88.1	349 200	91.8	682 000	89.9
Married	10 700	2.8	7 100	1.9	17 800	2.3
Common-law relationship	31 600	8.4	20 300	5.3	51 900	6.8
Other	2 900	0.8	3 600	1.0	6 600	0.9
Total	378 100	100.0	380 200	100.0	758 300	100.0

Table A.4 Youth by union status and age of first cohabitation

Marital status	15–19		20–24		25–29		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Married	2 900	16.5	12 400	69.7	2 400	13.7	17 800	100.0
Common-law relationship	26 600	53.5	17 400	35.1	5 600	11.4	49 700	100.0
Other	0	0.0	900	75.6	300	24.4	1 200	100.0
Total	29 500	43.0	30 700	44.8	8 300	12.2	68 700	100.0

Table A.5 Youth by union status and average age of first cohabitation

Marital status	Mean	Median	Minimum
Married	22	22	16
Common-law relationship	20	19	14
Other	22	21	20
Total	20	20	14

Table A.6 Youth by union status, age of first cohabitation and sex (%)

Marital status	Female				Male			
	15–19	20–24	25–29	Total	15–19	20–24	25–29	Total
Married	16.1	73.5	10.4	100.0	17.3	64.0	18.7	100.0
Common-law relationship	63.3	29.0	7.8	100.0	38.3	44.7	17.0	100.0
Other	0.0	56.1	43.9	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0
Total	50.2	40.8	9.0	100.0	32.0	50.9	17.1	100.0

Table A.7 Youth enrolled in school or training programme by level of formal education and sex

Level of formal education	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
None	700	0.5	0	0.0	700	0.3
Elementary school (Primary)	1 200	0.8	1 300	1.0	2 500	0.9
Vocational school (Technical high)	3 100	2.3	5 400	4.2	8 500	3.2
Secondary school	84 100	61.5	85 900	66.1	170 000	63.7
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	17 500	12.8	14 200	11.0	31 800	11.9
University/tertiary education	28 400	20.7	21 400	16.5	49 800	18.7
Postgraduate studies	1 900	1.4	1 700	1.3	3 500	1.3
Total	136 900	100.0	129 900	100.0	266 800	100.0

Table A.8 Young students by sex and ideal occupation (%)

Ideal occupation	Female	Male	Total
Professional	61.5	46.7	54.3
Service worker & shop & market sales worker	14.7	11.1	13.0
Technician & associate professional	9.8	10.8	10.3
Legislator, senior official & manager	6.8	12.5	9.6
Craft & related trades worker	0.6	14.5	7.4
Elementary occupations	2.5	2.5	2.5
Clerk	3.9	0.8	2.4
Skilled agricultural & fishery worker	0.2	0.8	0.5
Plant & machine operator & assembler	0.0	0.3	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table A.9 Young students by sex and desired employer (%)

Desired employer	Female	Male	Total
Myself	22.6	30.7	26.5
Government	59.0	43.1	51.2
Private company	14.1	21.4	17.7
International or non-profit organization	4.3	4.3	4.3
Family business/farm	0.0	0.6	0.3
Do not wish to work	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table A.10 Out-of-school youth by highest level of education completed

Level of education completed	Number	%
None	3 600	0.7
Elementary school (primary)	68 500	14.1
Vocational school (technical high)	20 800	4.3
Secondary school	260 000	53.5
Vocational school (e.g. Heart)	90 200	18.6
University/tertiary education	42 100	8.7
Postgraduate, postdoctoral studies	800	0.2
Total	486 000	100.0

Table A.11 Early school leavers by reason for ending education

Reason	Number	%
Failed examinations	1 400	1.1
Not interested in education/training	7 100	5.7
To start working	6 900	5.5
To get married	0	0.0
Parents against continuing/starting schooling	2 100	1.7
Economic reasons	56 900	45.1
No school nearby	0	0.0
Pregnancy	24 300	19.3
Other	27 400	21.7
Total	126 100	100.0

Table A.12 Youth by educational enrolment status and economic activity status

Economic activity status	Enrolled		Not enrolled		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Economic activity status						
Employed	41 100	15.4	261 200	53.2	302 300	39.9
Unemployed	18 400	6.9	130 600	26.6	149 000	19.6
Outside the labour force	207 800	77.7	99 400	20.2	307 200	40.5
Total	267 300	100.0	491 200	100.0	758 500	100.0
Economic activity status (relaxed)						
Employed	41 100	15.4	261 200	53.2	302 300	39.9
Unemployed (relaxed)	50 800	19.0	195 600	39.8	246 300	32.5
Outside the labour force	175 400	65.6	34 400	7.0	209 800	27.7
Total	267 300	100.0	491 200	100.0	758 400	100.0

Table A.13 Unemployed youth by educational enrolment status and unemployed students by level of education

Enrolment status and level of education	Unemployed		Relaxed unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%
Enrolment status				
Not enrolled	130 600	87.6	195 600	79.4
Enrolled	18 400	12.4	50 800	20.6
Total	149 000	100.0	246 400	100.0
Level of education of unemployed students				
Elementary or lower	300	1.7	600	1.2
Vocational school (Technical high)	300	1.6	2 200	4.3
Secondary school	5 700	30.8	26 300	51.9
Vocational school (e.g. HEART)	5 900	32.1	10 600	20.9
University/tertiary/postgraduate education	6 200	33.7	11 000	21.7
Total	18 400	100.0	50 700	100.0

Table A.14 Economically active youth by employment status and wealth index quintile

Wealth index quintile	Employed		Unemployed		Relaxed unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Poorest	52 000	17.2	27 900	18.7	49 100	19.9
Second	54 800	18.1	35 200	23.6	56 200	22.8
Middle	58 000	19.2	33 700	22.6	57 800	23.5
Fourth	67 200	22.2	32 900	22.1	52 100	21.2
Wealthiest	70 300	23.2	19 300	13.0	31 200	12.6
Total	302 300	100.0	149 000	100.0	246 400	100.0

Table A.15 Economically active youth by employment status, perceived household financial status and most important goal in life

Financial status and goal	Employed		Unemployed		Relaxed Unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Perceived household financial status						
Well off	5 600	1.8	2 100	1.4	4 100	1.7
Fairly well off	30 900	10.2	15 300	10.3	29 000	11.8
Around the national average	153 600	50.9	59 800	40.2	94 300	38.3
Fairly poor	54 400	18.0	34 000	22.8	54 400	22.1
Poor	55 500	18.4	37 000	24.9	63 300	25.7
Refused to answer	1 900	0.6	600	0.4	900	0.4
Total	301 900	100.0	148 800	100.0	246 000	100.0
Most important goal in life						
Being successful in work	106 600	35.3	64 100	43.1	104 600	42.6
Making a contribution to society	37 700	12.5	15 600	10.5	24 200	9.8
Having lots of money	33 600	11.1	15 400	10.4	25 000	10.2
Having a good family life	71 900	23.8	33 200	22.4	54 800	22.3
Being a good Christian	22 700	7.5	9 900	6.7	15 900	6.5
Other	29 100	9.6	10 400	7.0	21 100	8.6
Total	301 600	100.0	148 600	100.0	245 600	100.0

Table A.16 Unemployed youth by sex, desire to work and main reason for not being available for work (%)

Desire to work and reason	Female	Male	Total
Would have liked to work if there had been an opportunity to work last week			
Yes	44.0	38.7	41.6
No	56.0	61.3	58.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Main reason for not being available/not wanting to work last week			
Attending education/training	78.3	87.6	82.6
Family responsibilities or housework	8.6	1.9	5.5
Pregnancy	6.6	0.0	3.5
Illness, injury or disability	2.5	4.7	3.5
Too young to work	1.3	0.4	0.9
No desire to work	1.1	2.4	1.7
Off-season	0.3	0.7	0.5
Other	1.3	2.3	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table A.17 Discouraged youth by sex and main reason for not seeking work or trying to start a business during the last 30 days

Reason	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Awaiting the results of a vacancy competition or interview	2 000	2.8	300	0.5	2 300	1.9
Awaiting the season for work	1 200	1.7	1 800	3.5	3 100	2.5
Education leave or training	6 500	9.1	6 700	12.9	13 300	10.7
Personal family responsibilities	9 900	13.8	1 800	3.5	11 800	9.4
Pregnancy	4 500	6.3	0	0.0	4 500	3.6
Own illness/injury or disability	1 000	1.3	2 600	5.0	3 600	2.9
Do not know where or how to seek work	2 100	2.9	2 900	5.6	5 000	4.0
Unable to find work matching skills	5 300	7.4	3 000	5.8	8 400	6.7
Had looked for jobs before but had not found any	9 900	13.7	5 500	10.5	15 400	12.4
Too young to find a job	5 700	7.9	5 100	9.8	10 900	8.7
No jobs available in the area/district	5 400	7.5	4 900	9.3	10 300	8.3
Other	18 500	25.7	17 600	33.7	36 100	29.0
Total	72 000	100.0	52 200	100.0	124 700	100.0

Table A.18 Transited youth by reason for leaving first job and sex

Reason	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
For better job	5 400	11.9	12 900	20.1	18 300	16.7
Dismissed/let go	6 400	14.0	5 900	9.2	12 300	11.2
Unhappy with workplace	9 100	20.1	10 600	16.6	19 800	18.0
Temporary job ended	12 800	28.2	17 400	27.0	30 100	27.5
Health reasons	700	1.5	1 400	2.1	2 000	1.9
To have baby	3 100	6.8	0	0.0	3 100	2.8
To look after family	2 000	4.5	800	1.2	2 800	2.6
Moved from area	0	0.0	900	1.4	900	0.8

To start education/training	500	1.1	2 600	4.0	3 100	2.8
Migrated	300	0.6	0	0.0	300	0.3
Not stated	600	1.4	1 400	2.1	2 000	1.8
Other	4 500	9.9	10 400	16.2	14 900	13.6
Total	45 400	100.0	64 300	100.0	109 600	100.0

Table A.19 Transited youth by transition path, spells and sex

Transition path	Female		Male		Total	
	Mean	Maximum	Mean	Maximum	Mean	Maximum
Number of spells of stable or satisfactory employment	1	4	1	5	1	5
Number of spells of temporary/self-employment/no contract & non-satisfactory employment	1	1	1	2	1	2
Number of spells of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity	1	5	1	4	1	5
Number of spells of inactivity	1	4	1	3	1	4

Table A.20 Youth who have not yet started their transition by educational enrolment status

Enrolment	Transition not started	
	Number	%
Not enrolled	2 900	1.6
Enrolled	175 400	98.4
Total	178 300	100.0

Annex IV. Persons involved in the survey

The Statistical Institute of Jamaica was the implementing agency for this survey. The successful completion of the project was due to the dedication of the following persons:

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This report presents the highlights of the 2013 School-to-work Transition Survey (SWTS) run together with the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) within the framework of the ILO Work4Youth Project. This Project is a five-year partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation that aims to promote decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action. The W4Y Publication Series is designed to disseminate data and analyses from the SWTS administered by the ILO in 28 countries covering five regions of the world. The SWTS is a unique survey instrument that generates relevant labour market information on young people aged 15 to 29 years. The survey captures longitudinal information on transitions within the labour market, thus providing evidence of the increasingly tentative and indirect paths to decent and productive employment that today's young men and women face.

The W4Y Publications Series covers national reports, with main survey findings and details on current national policy interventions in the area of youth employment, and regional synthesis reports that highlight regional patterns in youth labour market transitions and distinctions in national policy frameworks.

Work4Youth

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ISSN 2309-6780