

Progress Towards Achieving The Millennium Development Goals in the Small States of the Commonwealth*

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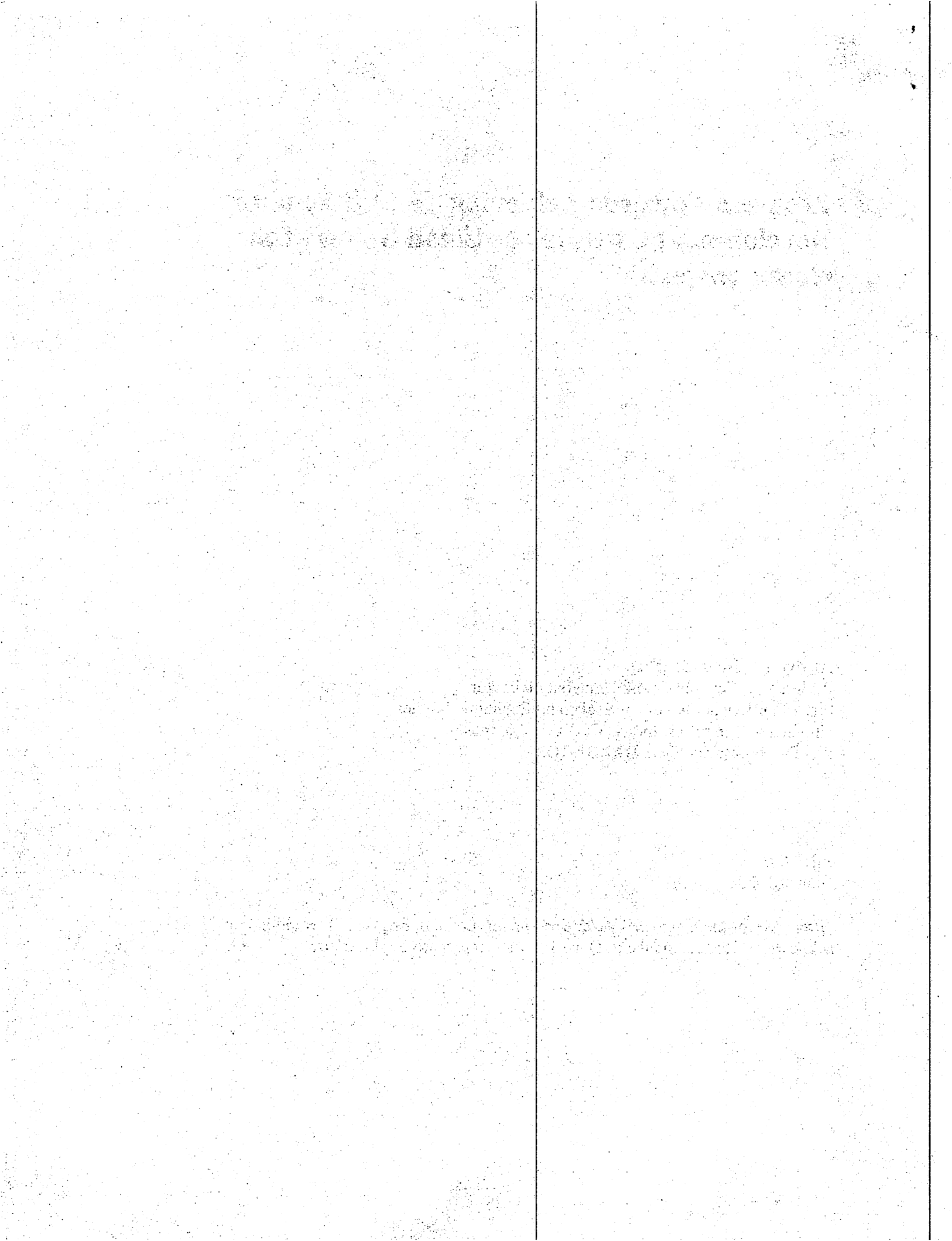
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1 Introduction

In September 2000, the member states of the United Nations adopted the Millennium Declaration at a meeting of the General Assembly. This Declaration consisted of a set of development goals which reflect the need to eradicate poverty and promote human development through the world. These goals, which have been branded as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), focus on the following eight (8) areas of human development:

- (i.) the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger;
- (ii.) the achievement of universal primary education;
- (iii.) the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women;
- (iv.) the reduction of child mortality;
- (v.) the improvement of maternal health
- (vi.) the control of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
- (vii.) the promotion of environmental sustainability;
- (viii.) the development of a global partnership for development.

These goals are associated with 18 targets and 48 social, economic, political and environmental indicators. It is expected that the goals would be achieved over the 1990-2015 period. The adoption of these goals heralds the return of strategic long-term development planning which was largely abandoned in the 1970s when several developing countries were concerned with short-run macroeconomic management and stabilisation policies required to deal with economic shocks such as increases in oil prices and interest rates. The MDGs have prompted countries to adopt an integrated development planning framework incorporating the social, economic and environmental dimensions of development. The goals are broadly specified so that individual countries can prioritise

their own goals and pursue associated strategies and policies for achieving them. The goals have both qualitative and quantitative features which enable progress towards their achievement to be monitored and evaluated.

This paper examines the progress which the small states within the Commonwealth have made towards the achievement of the MDGs since their adoption in the year 2000. Some of these small states have attained a relatively high level of human development which can make the MDGs achievable within the planning period. However, several of these states face serious resource and capacity constraints which can curtail progress towards the achievement of the MDGs. The paper first examines the basic features of the small states in the Commonwealth which provide the context within which planning and policy making for the MDGs will take place. The paper then discusses the progress with the 8 MDGs in the 32 small states of the Commonwealth. The quantification of goal achievement is presented where information is available. An overall assessment of progress towards the achievement of the goals is presented in terms of the main challenges that will be encountered over the next decade, the nature of the supporting environment needed, the data needs to monitor progress and the priorities for development assistance. The paper concludes with suggestions on the way forward for these small states and on the role of the Commonwealth in helping these small states to meet their development needs and goals.

2 Features of Commonwealth Small States

The Commonwealth consists of 50 independent developing countries, 4 developed countries and 24 associated states and dependencies, which are nearly all developing countries. Using an upper limit of 5 million persons to denote a 'small' country, approximately sixty (60) percent of the Commonwealth can be regarded as being 'small'. Furthermore, nearly all of the associated states and dependencies are 'small' or 'micro' states. In effect, the Commonwealth consists largely of 'small developing countries' (SDCs).

The characteristics of SDCs have been well documented [see, for example, Demas, 1965; Commonwealth Secretariat/World Bank, 2000]. Some of these features are critical to the achievement of the MDGs over the planning period. Small states are highly dependent on external economic relations for their survival. Dependence can be examined from two perspectives: structural and functional [see McIntyre, 1971]. Structural dependence derives from the smallness of the domestic markets and resource bases of these economies. Small countries will inevitably be opened to international trade and capital flows. Functional dependence relates to the ability of the small country to formulate and implement autonomous economic policies.

The historical legacy of small states has left them both structurally and functionally dependent. Several, if not all, of these countries, have very concentrated production structures involving one or two main areas of economic activity – sugar, bananas, bauxite, tourism and fishing. Although there have been attempts to engage in production diversification, these have been constrained by both resource availability and international trading constraints. Some small states in African, Caribbean and Pacific regions have been dependent on remittances from migrant labour in order to help maintain decent living standards. In other cases, they have depended on overseas development assistance to supplement domestic financial resources.

The effects of external economic events on small countries represent one dimension of their vulnerability. Small undiversified countries are subject to a higher cost of an external shock than large diversified countries. Several factors contribute to the economic vulnerability of small states: high degree of openness to trade and financial flows; export concentration and reliance on foreign development and technical assistance along with their underdeveloped financial markets and undiversified production structures. Such vulnerability has been a major argument for special consideration (special and differential treatment) for small countries in international trade negotiations [see Downes, 2004]. The high volatility and instability in export prices, external markets and capital flows have adversely affected the performance of small economies.

The geographical location of several small countries makes them vulnerable to natural disasters such as hurricanes/cyclones, volcanic eruptions, floods brought about by sea level rise and landslides. These natural phenomena can severely disrupt the functioning of the economy and cause a significant amount of damage to the physical environment as evidenced by the recent tsunami in the Indian Ocean. The need to eke out a living in a small physical environment also puts pressure on the ecological environment of small countries. In some cases, the activities of a major producer in a small country can have adverse effects on the physical and ecological environments of small countries. Such effects are particularly pronounced where chemical and waste products are involved or where there is the removal of significant quantities of vegetation from the land to accommodate 'luxury' housing, hotels and similar physical structures. In addition to being economically and environmentally vulnerable, small states are also affected by social and political events. Several small states have been targets of criminal activities (invasion, drug trade, money laundering, and piracy) which have not only changed the social fabric of these countries but have also re-oriented the nature of economic production. Where people see substantial potential net gains from criminal activities, they are tempted to participate especially when traditional areas of economic activity are not prosperous. Furthermore, small states, singularly, have little or no power to influence the course of major political events which may have a significant impact on the lives of the inhabitants. The international mass media and promotion of tourism have had a profound influence on the cultural lives of the people of small states. In several cases, skilled persons have emigrated from these countries to the more developed countries of North America, Europe and Australasia in search of work and a different cultural experience. Although remittances from such migration have been beneficial to small countries, the cultural fabric of these countries has been changed significantly. In addition, the loss of skilled human resources adversely affects the provision of high quality services in some of these small countries (for example, health and education).

The limited financial and human resources associated with small states constrain their ability to manage the development process in an efficient and effective manner. Small

states usually have the same range of public services as several large states, but a much lower capacity to manage the administrative systems. For example, the inability to police their maritime shores has made some small states havens for drug traders. The complexity of some contracts with large companies can be a challenge for small states. In addition, the limited human resources in small states restrict the degree to which they can meaningfully engage in international trade negotiations and undertake specialised tasks (for example, medical procedures, legal representations, engineering feats). Although regional collaboration has helped to overcome some of these problems, there are still major shortcomings in such arrangements. The inability to develop good surveillance and enforcement systems has prevented several small states from fully benefiting from the sale of services associated with intellectual property and cultural industries.

In the case of the Pacific area, issues of remoteness and isolation raise questions about the viability and survival of several very small (micro) states. Remoteness not only raises the cost of doing business but keeps these states in a perpetual state of dependence [see Winters and Martins, 2004]. While developments in transportation and information and communications technologies (ICTs) have eased the problems of remoteness and distance, the limited capacity of small states restricts their ability to take full advantage of the opportunity to develop new areas of economic activity, for example, electronic commerce and remote data processing.

In summary, the small states of the Commonwealth are characterised by a high degree of openness, structural and functional dependence, remoteness and isolation, limited production diversification and small domestic markets, vulnerability to natural and man-made disasters and external economic shocks, export concentration, limited power in the economic and political arenas, high cost of development administration and 'doing business', limited financial and human resources, vulnerability to criminal activities and cultural penetration and volatility of export income and prices. These features circumscribe the ability of small states to achieve all of the MDGs within the specified time frame (1990 to 2005). While the achievement of these goals can be perceived as an international

priority, the economic management authorities of small states have to prioritize their own goals in keeping with the resources available to them.

3 The MDGs in Small States

One of the challenges in monitoring the progress towards achieving the MDGs in the small states of the Commonwealth is the lack of data on several of the indicators. While data on several economic variables are available for several countries, social and environmental data are difficult to obtain. It can be argued that given the universality of the goals and indicators and the recent adoption of the MDGs, it would be difficult to collect and assess data on the MDGs especially where there have been no well-developed data collection systems in small states. Furthermore, the MDGs were adopted in the year 2000 but require data on some indicators as far back as the year 1990, which may not be available. The problem is compounded by the lack of human and financial resources to collect data on a range of economic, social and environmental indicators. It is well known that statistical departments in several small developing countries are severely understaffed and there is no consistent process of collecting key development statistics. Central Banks and some government departments (especially financial-related ones) are the main producers of data in several small countries. International agencies such as the International Monetary Fund, World Bank and the United Nations system have been seeking to develop the databases of developing states in a systematic manner but several small states are excluded from these databases. The Commonwealth Secretariat has however made a deliberate effort to collect data on these small states.

*lack of data
and collection
of data mechanism*

Notwithstanding the data challenges facing small states, several of them have produced progress reports on the MDGs. Within the Commonwealth, assessments have been made of the following countries: a joint report on Barbados and the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS), consisting of Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia and St Vincent and the Grenadines. Single reports exist for Guyana, Jamaica, Mauritius, Fiji, Papua New Guinea (PNG), Swaziland and the Gambia. This list suggests that the Caribbean and the Pacific have been the target of MDGs monitoring since

2000, with regional reviews being produced [see UNDP, 2004 a, b; ADB, 2003]. These reports use national statistical sources which may lead to problems of comparability for some variables. The World Bank's *World Development Indicators* database is the most comprehensive source of information on the MDGs. This has been the main source of data for determining the progress towards achieving the MDGs in Commonwealth small states.

Goal 1 relates to the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger with the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar per day being half of the figure it was in 1990 by the end of the planning period. Data on poverty are very scarce in small states. While data are available on poverty in the Caribbean for the late 1990s, little is known about the proportion of the population below \$1 (at 1993 purchasing power parity) per day. The percentage of the population living below national poverty lines in the Caribbean varied between 13.9 percent (Barbados in 1997) and 39 percent (Dominica in 2003). With the exception of Belize, Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, poverty estimates are available from one-off studies. In countries with more than one estimate of poverty, there has not been any major change in the degree of poverty. Jamaica has however witnessed a significant decline in poverty levels from 44.6 percent in 1991 to 19.7 percent in 2001. The percentage of the population living in extreme poverty in the Caribbean varies between 0.5 percent (BVI in 2003) and 29 percent (Guyana in 1993). In general, the percentage of persons living in extreme poverty in the Caribbean has declined over the years. The percentage of persons on less than \$1 a day tends to be low in the Caribbean region. Naidu, (2002) has however reported high levels of poverty in some Pacific Island countries. For example, 25 percent of all households in Fiji existed below the poverty level in 1997, with a further 15 percent being vulnerable to poverty. In Papua New Guinea (PNG), the Solomon Islands, the Maldives and Vanuatu, it is estimated that as much as 80 percent of the population lives in poverty. Estimates of poverty for the African countries of Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and the Gambia ranged from 23.5 percent of the population to 59.3 percent during the mid to late 1990s. Although the lack of data prevents a full assessment of progress towards the eradication of poverty in the small states of the Commonwealth, it is clear that the prevailing high rates of poverty, especially in the African and Pacific states

will make the achievement of this goal particularly difficult without a consistent and determined effort by all parties in small states.

Goal 2 focuses on the achievement of universal primary level education which provides the basic foundation for poverty eradication in small states. This goal is assessed by net primary school level enrolment rates and youth literacy rates. Several small states have emphasized the development of their human resources by investing in education and nutrition over the past decades.

*Education
Nutrition*

Small states in the Commonwealth have performed fairly well with respect to universal primary level education as measured by enrolment rates, completion rates and youth literacy rates (that is, those between 15 and 24 years of age). Net enrolment rates increased over the decade of the 1990s, with rates in the 90s for several small states. The small African countries of Namibia, Lesotho and the Gambia, along with Papua New Guinea (PNG) still have relatively low rates of enrolment at the primary level. Primary level completion rates are also relatively high for most small states. These rates are however relatively low in the African small states.

*enrolment
literacy*

The achievement of universal primary level education is therefore highly likely for almost all the Commonwealth small states. There are however concerns relating to the quality of the facilities and the education received at the primary level. In many cases literacy surveys have not been undertaken to assess the true level of literacy in these small states. The shortage of well trained teachers, who usually migrate to more developed countries, has adversely affected the delivery of quality education at the primary level. Along with nurses, teachers are the most significant migrant group of persons from several developing countries in recent years.

While a good quality foundation at the primary school level is critical to the development of the human resource base of a country, the development of universal secondary level education is seen as vital to meeting labour market needs. Small states have a long way to

go in this area as few countries have achieved universal secondary level. Such a development would make universal primary level education very meaningful.

Goal 3 seeks to promote gender equality and empower women by focusing on enrolment in the educational system and membership in the national Parliament. The data indicate that there is near parity between boys and girls in terms of enrolment in primary and secondary level education over the period 1990/91 to 2001/2. The ratio of girls to boys enrolled at the primary level tends to be slightly lower than the ratio at the secondary level, especially in the Caribbean. This result suggests that there is some drop out of boys at the secondary level. The small countries in the Pacific, however, exhibit relatively lower rates of female enrolment at the secondary level. At the tertiary level, female enrolment is almost twice that of male enrolment in the Caribbean, with the ratio of female to male enrolment varying between 1.50 (Antigua and Barbuda in 2004) and 3.36 (St Lucia in 2004). Among small states, the Gambia and Papua New Guinea exhibited the lowest ratios of female to male enrolment in the school system.

Gender
Equality

The relatively high female enrolment rates in the educational system are reflected in the high level of literacy among females relative to males. Indeed, there has been an increase in the human capital of females across the small states accompanied by a rise in their level of participation in the labour force.

Females constitute a significant proportion of the labour force employed in the agricultural sector of small states. Although several states have been engaged in production diversification especially towards services, the share of females in non-agricultural activities varies between 25 and 50 percent. Several of these females who work in manufacturing and the services sectors however receive relatively low wages. Some countries have actively promoted the establishment of export processing zones which are engaged in basic repetitive jobs for relatively low pay (e.g., data processing, electronics assembly). Although there has been a relative increase in female employment in the non-

agricultural work, this does not necessarily reflect an improvement in their socio-economic status.

Females are relatively absent from the political decision-making process, with very low proportions of seats held by them in national parliaments. In the Caribbean, the percentage varies from 0 percent (Anguilla in 2004) to 31 percent (Guyana in 2004). The ranges are even narrower for the small Pacific and African states.

In terms of goal achievement, gender equality has been achieved for most small states in the area of education, but there is still slow progress in the labour market and the political arena.

Goal 4 relates to the reduction in child mortality. There has been a general decline in child (under 5) mortality rates in the Caribbean and, to some extent, the small Pacific states. Child mortality rates for the Caribbean reached a level of approximately 20 per 1000 in 2004 with the exception of Guyana and Belize which had rates of 69 and 39 per 1000 respectively in 2004. The Caribbean has also had very active immunization and child health programs which have resulted in relatively high rates of immunization against measles (ranging from 78 in Jamaica to 100 percent in Antigua in 2004). Infant mortality rates per 1000 live births (0-1 year) were also under 20 for the Caribbean region. Significant progress has therefore been made in reducing child mortality and improving child health in the Caribbean.

↓ Child
Mortality

Child mortality rates are generally higher in the small Pacific states than those in the Caribbean. Child mortality and health problems have been particularly problematic in PNG, Tonga, Maldives and Vanuatu where child mortality rates have been high though declining. For example, in 2002, the under-5 mortality rate was reported at 94 per 1000 in PNG, and 105 in Tonga. Immunization rates against measles have declined somewhat in the Pacific islands.

The small states of Africa – Botswana, the Gambia, Lesotho and Swaziland – have been experiencing major challenges with respect to a reduction in child mortality and improved child health. Child (under 5 years) mortality rates ranged from 110 to 149 per 1000 in 2002, with significant increases being experienced in Swaziland and Botswana. These increases have been partly due to the high incidence of HIV/AIDS in these small states. The rates of immunization against measles have however been fairly high in these countries (generally over 70 percent).

Goal achievement in the area of child mortality will therefore be difficult for the small African states, while it is highly probable for the Caribbean and, to some extent, the Pacific states. A concerted effort will be needed to improve health care, nutrition and health education in the Commonwealth small states in order to ensure the achievement of the goal of reducing child mortality by two-thirds by 2015.

Goal 5 focuses on improvement in maternal health, with a reduction in the maternal mortality rate by three-quarters by 2015. Data on maternal mortality rates per 100,000 live births are sketchy for small states across the Commonwealth. The available data indicate that for the Caribbean small states, the ratios are relatively low (fewer than 100 per 100,000 live births) although there were some increases in Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago between 1995 and 2004. Rates are particularly high in Africa and, to some extent, in the Pacific where access to health care (that is, medical personnel and health facilities) has been a long outstanding problem. The challenges posed by diseases such as AIDS and malaria and the emigration of medical personnel have further compromised goal achievement in Commonwealth small states. For example, in 2000, the Gambia had a maternal mortality ratio of 540 per 100,000 with 55 percent of births being attended by skilled health personnel, while in PNG, the figures were 300 per 100,000 and 53 percent, respectively.

Goal achievement will therefore be a challenge in the area of maternal health given the current state of health care facilities and personnel in the small states of Africa and the Pacific.

Goal 6 relates to combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases by halting and beginning to reverse their spread by 2015. The main indicators used to track goal achievement are HIV prevalence rate among persons 15-49 years, children orphaned by HIV/AIDS, the incidence of tuberculosis (TB), tuberculosis cases detected under directly observed treatment short course (DOTS) and contraceptive prevalence rate among women 15-49 years of age. The prevalence of HIV/AIDS is particularly high in the small African states of the Commonwealth such as Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho and Namibia. The prevalence of HIV/AIDS among females aged 15-24 years in these countries was recorded at between 25 to 38 percent in 2001. Although the prevalence of HIV/AIDS is relatively high in the Caribbean and some Pacific small states, it is not as high as in the African states. Data on HIV/AIDS are however sketchy primarily because of the social stigma attached to the disease. There is a significant degree of under reporting of HIV/AIDS cases such that the World Health Organisation (WHO) estimates that for every HIV positive case there are 10 other unreported cases. Some countries have been engaged in educational programs to reduce the prevalence of the disease. Some success has been achieved in the Caribbean, Botswana and some Pacific countries. Barbados, for example, has established a national campaign and commission to tackle the problem in the work place and in communities around the country. This effort has involved the social partners – Government, labour unions and business associations. One of the fall-outs of the high incidence of HIV/AIDS is the high level of orphaned children for example, in Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. In addition, the human resource base has been severely impaired by the prevalence of HIV/AIDS in these small states which are already challenged by the lack of skilled human resources.

Reported contraceptive prevalence among young females tends to be low and hence compromises efforts to combat the epidemic. Data on condom use by men would also be needed to fully assess the efforts to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS in small states. Associated with the HIV/AIDS epidemic is the relative high incidence of TB in some small states. There is a positive correlation between the incidence of TB and HIV/AIDS.

Malaria is still a major problem in the small African states and, to a lesser extent in the Pacific countries (PNG, Vanuatu and the Solomon Islands). There is a very low incidence in Guyana. Except for intermittent outbreaks of dengue fever, the Caribbean regional health authorities have kept a close watch on infectious and vector-borne diseases in the region.

The achievement of goal 6 will be a major challenge for small states, especially those affected by the relatively high incidence of HIV/AIDS. Lifestyles and attitudes towards sexual behaviour must change in order to halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS in all the small states. There are models among the small states which can be emulated. Improved health and sanitation facilities, better trained health personnel and public health education programs can result in the control of other major diseases. Such improvements will however stretch the already limited financial and human resources of these small states.

Goal 7 seeks to integrate sustainable development principles into social and economic policies (that is, an integrated development planning and policy making framework) and to reverse the loss of environmental resources. In the Caribbean, access to improved sanitation facilities is very high. In 2000, over 90 percent of the population had access to improved sanitation (with the exception of Dominica, 83 percent, Guyana, 87 percent and Belize 50 percent). African and Pacific small states however face challenges in providing sanitation facilities for their populations. Access rates are relatively low in these states. For example, in 2000, the rates were Fiji (43%), Solomon Islands (34%), Lesotho (49%) and Gambia (37%). PNG, Samoa and Vanuatu have reported relatively high access rates (that is, over 80 percent in 2000).

Access to an improved water source rose over the period 1990 to 2000 in most of the small states, with Caribbean countries having population access rates of over 90 percent during the decade. Some Pacific Islands however had low population access rates of less than 50 percent in 2000. African small states have reported relatively high and improved

population access rates for water sources. Several small states have developed systems to manage water resources which are usually scarce in these states.

Forest areas as a percentage of total land area vary across the small states with the geographically larger states having higher rates (Guyana, the Bahamas, Belize, Trinidad and Tobago, PNG, the Seychelles and Fiji). The rates of forestation in these countries have been over 40 percent although there is evidence of deforestation over the past decade. With the exception of the African small states of Botswana and Namibia, the degree of nationally protected areas is relatively very small (generally under 1 percent of total land area) in all the small states.

Probably, the most critical environmental issue facing small states, especially low lying ones in the Pacific, is climate change and sea level rise. Although data on GDP unit of energy used is largely unavailable, the degree of carbon dioxide emissions per capita has increased in almost all of the small states of the Commonwealth. Deforestation, coupled with an increase in human economic activities (industrial production, high use of automobiles, etc) has resulted in a rise in the level of carbon dioxide emissions in small states. Although carbon dioxide emission per capita in terms of metric tons was under 10 during the 1990s, small states have contributed in some small measure to climate change. Increases in carbon dioxide emission have been partly related to the type of economic activities and social practices undertaken in these small states. Brunei and Trinidad and Tobago, for example, exhibit relatively high levels of carbon dioxide associated with their petroleum industries.

While there has been some degree of improvement in access to improved sanitation facilities and drinking water, which has had a positive impact on the health of the population of these small states, the degree of deforestation and carbon dioxide emissions can retard the extent to which the environmental goal can be achieved. Furthermore, these problems can result in additional problems for small states (floods, hurricanes and other natural phenomena) associated with climate change and sea level rise. The environmental

vulnerability of small states, especially islands, would be increased if attention is not paid to the incorporation of sustainable development principles in development plans and policies of small states.

Goal 8 seeks to develop a global partnership for world development and to identify the financial resources needed to meet the other MDGs. It is a multi-dimensional goal with efforts to deal comprehensively with the debt problems facing small states and to make available the benefits of new technologies to these states. In addition, targets are set with respect to:

- (i.) an open, rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory financial and trading system;
- (ii.) good governance and poverty reduction;
- (iii.) measures to develop and implement decent and productive work for growth;
- (iv.) special needs of least developed countries, land locked states and small island developing states (SIDS).

The available data for the Caribbean indicate that there has been a general reduction in overseas development assistance (ODA) as a percent of gross national income over the past decade (1995-2004). The percent was generally less than 10 percent. Data are sketchy for African and Pacific states, but it is likely that the pattern is the same as in the Caribbean. Recent efforts have been made by developed countries to assist developing countries to ease their debt problem through the writing off and rescheduling of accumulated debts.

There has been a gradual influx of modern technological devices in small states. The data show a significant increase in telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 1000 persons and personal computers per 1000 persons over the past decade. The cellular phone and wireless technology have made developments in information and communications technologies (ICTs) available to persons in remote areas (e.g., African and Pacific small states). Such developments open up opportunities for new or sunrise industries in these states to replace sunset industries which have been subject to intense competition, removal of preferences and obsolescence in technology. Some countries, however, have not been able to take

advantage of these developments as yet – Swaziland, the Gambia, Lesotho, Namibia, Kiribati, PNG and other Pacific countries – due to their low level of penetration by ICTs.

Youth unemployment has been a major socio-economic problem for small states. Although the information is very sketchy, the youth unemployment rate in small states tends to be over 30 percent (usually twice the national unemployment rate). Several programs have been developed to resolve this problem over the years without the degree of success that is needed.

While new technologies, usually developed in larger and more developed countries, have been slowly reaching small states, primarily for personal consumption purposes (and limited use for production purposes), the goal of developing a partnership for development still needs to be actively pursued. Small states face major problems and constraints which require the allocation of more technical and financial resources from the developed world.

This review of progress with the achievement of the MDGs indicates that the small Caribbean states of the Caribbean have made much more progress than those states in the Pacific and Africa. There are major challenges faced by the authorities in these small states in order to achieve the goals by 2015. The health area will be particularly difficult as HIV/AIDS will affect both human capital formation and domestic production if it is not checked.

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Appendix 1
Status at a Glance

Country	Goal 1	Goal 2	Goal 3	Goal 4	Goal 5	Goal 6	Goal 7	Goal 8
Antigua/Barbuda	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	3
Barbados	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	2
Belize	0	3	2	2	3	2	2	2
Botswana	0	2	3	1	2	1	3	2
Brunei Darussalam	0	2	3	3	3	0	0	0
Cyprus	0	3	3	3	3	0	3	3
Dominica	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3
Fiji	5	3	2	3	3	0	3	2
Grenada	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	3
Guyana	3	2	2	1	1	1	3	2
Jamaica	2	3	2	3	1	2	2	3
Kiribati	0	0	2	3	2	0	1	3
Lesotho	0	0	2	1	1	0	2	2
Maldives	0	0	2	3	2	0	2	2
Malta	0	3	3	3	3	0	3	3
Mauritius	0	3	3	3	2	0	3	3

Namibia	1	2	3	3	1	2	1	0
Nauru	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Papua New Guinea	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1
Samoa	0	3	2	3	0	2	0	0
Seychelles	0	0	2	3	0	2	0	0
Solomon Islands	0	0	2	1	2	2	1	1
St Kitts/Nevis	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	3
St Lucia	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	3
Saint Vincent	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3
Swaziland	0	0	3	1	1	1	0	0
The Bahamas	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3
The Gambia	0	0	1	1	1	1	2	2
Tonga	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Trinidad /Tobago	3	3	3	3	3	0	2	3
Tuvalu	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vanuatu	0	0	3	2	0	2	2	2

Key:

0 – no data/insufficient data

1 – not likely

2 – Potentially (having underlying capability)

3 – Probably (almost certainly)

Appendix 2
State of Supportive Environment

Country	Goal 1	Goal 2	Goal 3	Goal 4	Goal 5	Goal 6	Goal 7	Goal 8
Antigua/Barbuda	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Barbados	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Belize		1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Botswana								
Brunei Darussalam								
Cyprus								
Dominica								
Fiji								
Grenada								
Guyana								
Jamaica								
Kiribati								
Lesotho								
Maldives								
Malta								
Mauritius								
Namibia								

Nauru								
Papua New Guinea								
Samoa								
Seychelles								
Solomon Islands								
St Kitts/Nevis								
St Lucia								
Saint Vincent								
Swaziland								
The Bahamas								
The Gambia								
Tonga								
Trinidad /Tobago								
Tuvalu								
Vanuatu								

Key:

1 Strong 2 – fair 3 – weak but improving 4 - weak