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9. ABSTRACT

The government of Jamaica is attempting to improve housing of the urban and rural poor, but it faces difficult problems. Those are discussed in this report, which describes an A.I.D.-sponsored study of shelter problems in Jamaica. About 70% of the population lacks an income necessary for minimal standards of living. More than 40% of the population--500,000 people--live in the Kingston metropolitan area. The sewer system serves less than half of the residents. Most of the poor live in squatters' shacks that lack sanitary and kitchen facilities. The Jamaican economy is poor. The island imports a large proportion of its consumer goods at inflated prices, and Jamaica's chief exports have not kept pace. In 1976 real growth declined, the deficit in foreign reserves increased, and unemployment increased. In rural areas, much of the fertile land is owned by large estates. Government housing projects are constructing housing for low-income people, but not on a large enough scale. The government is also attempting to develop the production of locally produced building materials because imported materials are very costly. The recommendations based on the study include the following: (1) The government should provide squatters with land-lease tenure and a source of credit for home improvements. (2) In rural areas, the poor who own their own land should be provided a source of credit for home improvements. (3) Cooperatives and credit unions should be given responsibility for the management of individual housing projects, including the collection of loan repayments. (4) The government should continue to explore the use of indigenous construction materials as alternatives to imported materials. (5) Existing training programs for construction workers should be expanded. (6) An effort should be made to improve the coordination among various government agencies concerned with housing.

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**Jamaica
Shelter
Sector
Assessment**

July 1977

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20523

FOREWARD

This study was conducted by the National Corporation for Housing Partnerships under the auspices of the Office of Housing of the Agency for International Development and through financing provided by this Office. The purpose of the study was to develop information and make recommendations relating to the shelter sector in Jamaica.

The study team was headed by Morris Shroder with other team members being Aram Mardirosian, Joseph Valenza, Marjorie Maas, Florence Shroder, and Jeff Boyer. Field work was completed in July 1977.

While the findings and recommendations of the report have been discussed with representatives of the Government of Jamaica, the report is not to be interpreted as an official position of either the Government or of the Agency for International Development.

We hope, however, that the Government of Jamaica will find the report useful when considering its future shelter programs.



Peter M. Kimm
Director
Office of Housing

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SUMMARY

In Jamaica, as in every other country, there are vast differences in social, cultural, and economic standards and expectations among different elements of the population. The differences are as visible in their homes as in any other aspect of their lives. Some people have homes which are built and financed by professionals, in accordance with standards which are essentially British, somewhat modified by local conditions; others are built with almost no reference to standards of any kind, of any materials available, without "formal" (and perhaps without any) financing.

As this latter class of housing was built without recourse to professional expertise and standards, there are no useful records concerning the amount, the condition, or the deficiencies of these structures. It is generally assumed that the number of houses in need of upgrading or replacement is very great. It is also generally assumed that the total cost of complete replacement is beyond the means of the Jamaican economy under its present priorities.

The Government of Jamaica is, however, committed to the effort to improve housing conditions for the very poor. The effort, however, faces some very serious problems. One of the most difficult is the current state of the economy. As might be expected of a small island economy, a very large proportion of the goods which Jamaicans use or consume must be imported, and inflation has caused prices to rise substantially. The prices of Jamaica's chief exports have not kept pace. In 1976, as a result, real growth declined, the foreign reserves deficit increased, the unemployment rate grew, and there was over-all dissaving.

The problem has not been made easier by the Jamaican pattern of settlement. Over forty per cent of the population now lives in the Kingston Metropolitan Area -- more than half a million people. Kingston

has a small and quite inadequate sewer system, but it serves less than half of the homes in the area; the majority must rely on individual disposal systems. Kingston Harbour is now having serious water quality problems, and there is considerable potential for the pollution of ground water in some areas. Both wells and springs are a significant part of the metropolitan water supply, since the average rainfall is less than 50 inches per year, and water shortages are commonplace.

Another factor is the extent of poverty on the island. A recent study found that seventy per cent of the population earns less than it needs to meet minimal standards of living. In the cities, a very large proportion of the families are headed by women. Women are generally paid less than men, and have a higher rate of unemployment. In the rural areas, much of the most fertile land is owned by large estates. Small farmers own, on the average, about one and a half acres, and their incomes are not only low but also irregular and undependable. Casual farm laborers, of course, suffer from the same conditions.

All of these conditions have compelled the poor people to minimize their housing costs. They squat on whatever land seems to be available, build their own houses out of whatever materials are at hand, and are forced to share sanitary and kitchen facilities. Most of those who own their homes owe no mortgages because they have had no access to credit, and (if they are squatters) have no title to the land on which they have built.

In spite of such difficulties, Government housing projects of various kinds now represent seventy percent of all the construction dollars currently being spent on the island. The Government of Jamaica has set up an Emergency Production Plan to limit imports and stimulate

the local production of the greatest possible amount of goods and services consumed by the population. The Government sees its housing program as a tool to employ a large number of unemployed workers, and thereby stimulate growth in other sectors of the economy, while making relatively small demands upon imports.

The various building programs vary widely in detail. The Five Year Development Plan for the Ministry of Housing, announced in 1975, called for the building of 27,000 units, 88% of which would be destined for people with incomes under J\$3500 per year. In addition, the Ministry of Agriculture has built low-income housing in rural areas. Several statutory bodies have programs of housing construction or finance. The Urban Development Corporation (originally concerned chiefly with urban renewal and encouraging commercial development) has housing projects in Montego Bay and Hellshire which are expected to be self-sustaining. Sugar Industry Housing Ltd. has undertaken to build homes for people employed in that industry, and to provide financing for them. The National Housing Trust, the Jamaica Mortgage Bank, and the Jamaica Development Bank are all concerned in providing assistance in financing houses for people who traditionally have not had access to private lenders.

All of these programs deal chiefly with completed houses. In many cases, a large part of the cost is not actually attributable to the expenses of construction, but rather to the high cost of infrastructure: roads and grading, water and sanitary facilities, electricity, etc.

The Ministry of Local Government has a responsibility to make provision for the very poor. A pilot project for upgrading a slum area in Central Kingston, under the guidance of Dr. Orlando Patterson of Harvard University was undertaken under the supervision of this Ministry. Traditional slum

clearance is not possible in the area; it is so densely populated that there would be no place to house the displaced inhabitants while new housing was built. Furthermore, the extremely expensive elements of infrastructure was already there. It has therefore been concluded that the individual upgrading of structurally sound but deteriorated houses is the only feasible alternative. Thinning out the population would be accomplished, to some extent, by the demolition of those buildings which are hazardous and beyond repair. In addition, a concentration of social services in the area would improve the quality of life.

This upgrading program does not bring houses to the standard which a private purchaser would normally expect. In practice, tenants will still be obliged to share water and sanitary facilities. However, at a relatively modest cost, it should be possible to make substantial improvement in living conditions for the residents of the area.

In squatter neighborhoods, the Government of Jamaica has concluded that the primary problems are traceable to lack of clear title and lack of infrastructure. It has found that squatters, once assured of legal tenure, are willing to spend money and effort on their homes. The Sites and Services Unit in the Ministry of Housing has a special program funded by the World Bank which provides infrastructure and a basic core of sanitary facilities, and gives each household a long-term land lease. The residents are then able to arrange for loans with which to build or improve their homes.

In rural areas, the problem is not only poverty but the difficulty of delivering services. Farm houses are widely dispersed, as each family lives on its own farm plot. In many cases farmers live in the mountainous areas, which are not served by paved roads or electric lines. Even water must frequently be carried from a distance, and pit toilets are the usual form of waste disposal. Many of the villages suffer from the same disabilities even though the houses are clustered. Under these circumstances, any attempt at a centralized system of delivering services becomes inordinately expensive.

One serious limitation faced by the housing programs of the Government of Jamaica is the proportion of imported materials that normally is required in a house. The Government is making an effort to develop locally produced substitutes as far as possible. In general, building material costs are very high, and distribution outside the Kingston Metropolitan Area is a problem because roads are narrow and often unpaved.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Economic considerations preclude the possibility of building complete new houses of standard design on a scale that would have any significant effect on housing needs. It is therefore recommended that the Government of Jamaica concentrate its efforts in this field on the upgrading of existing housing, and the encouragement of self-help in the squatter and rural areas.

URBAN AREAS

The Central Kingston Urban Upgrading Pilot Program indicated that a comprehensive approach in dealing with the problems of slum areas could most favorably affect the lives of the largest number of people at the lowest cost per household. The most urgent physical improvements needed are additional toilets, lavatory and kitchen facilities. Equally important is the demolition of unsafe structures, which as a secondary benefit may help to reduce overcrowding, and make it possible to provide play areas.

Since the great majority of women living in the urban areas must work, as well as care for children, it is recommended that social programs include day care centers, and also vocational training, and health care facilities.

Squatters who have received tenure and therefore feel secure, are eager to improve their housing. We recommend that any expansion of the Squatter Improvement Program should include a long land-lease tenure provision and a source of credit for home improvements.

RURAL AREAS

In rural areas, where no centralized delivery of materials or services is feasible, the most effective assistance that can be provided is to make credit available to those of the target population who own their own plots of land. The recipients can then make their own arrangements to purchase materials and labor.

MANAGEMENT

Intermediate institutions, such as cooperatives and credit unions, should be given the responsibility for the management of individual housing projects, and in particular, the collection of loan repayments, on a regular basis, in insure, that to the maximum extent possible, repayment of capital investment by the Government is attained.

COORDINATION

There are several Ministries and statutory bodies with varied housing responsibilities, including the production of new housing. Consideration should be given to greater coordination among them, to the end that a more effective utilization of limited resources becomes possible. Particularly, any proposal for new housing that will substantially increase the burden on present water and sewage facilities should be carefully reviewed.

USE OF INDIGENOUS MATERIALS

The cost of imported materials for residential construction, has represented as much as 50% of total cost of construction, in the last few years. The Government of Jamaica should continue to explore the use of indigenous materials as alternatives to imports.

TRAINING

It is suggested that the existing apprenticeship system for training construction workers be augmented by organized training programs to train new workers and improve the skills of existing workers, with the objective of increasing the productivity of the industry.

I. COUNTRY BACKGROUND

A. LOCATION AND PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION

The island of Jamaica is located near the center of the Caribbean Sea and ranks as the third largest of the West Indian islands after Cuba and Hispaniola. (See location map Appendix IA-1). The West Indies are divided into two groups - The Greater Antilles and the Lesser Antilles. The northern part of the arc comprises four large islands: Cuba, Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Puerto Rico, which are referred to as the Greater Antilles. The eastern end of the arc is formed by a series of 13 smaller islands which are called the Lesser Antilles. Because of its central location in the Caribbean, Jamaica enjoys a close proximity to the U.S. mainland, Central America and the northern part of South America.

Jamaica's land area is approximately 4,400 square miles (2,816,000 acres) and extends 146 miles in length and has a maximum width of 51 miles. There are three prominent land forms which typify the island's physical relief - the steep mountain ranges, the dissected limestone plateaus of the western and central regions and the costal plains and interior valleys (see Physical Relief Map, Appendix IA-2).

The most striking physical feature of Jamaica is the mountainous terrain which dominates its land surface. The amount of land area with slopes in excess of 20% is estimated to be approximately one-third of the island's total area. Jamaica's interior mountain ranges are characterized by their steep slopes, rugged ravines and deep valleys. The principal mountain range, the Blue Mountains, is located on the south-eastern side of the island and run generally in an east-west direction with a maximum elevation of 7,400 feet. To the east of the Blue Mountain system are the John Crow Mountains, which attain an elevation of 3,750 feet. In

the central part of Jamaica the mountains are much lower but generally irregular and heavily dissected. The main system, the Central Range (1,361 feet) extends in an southeast-northwest direction.

The wide expansive interior plateau and hills, flanking the higher Central Range on all sides, vary in elevation from near sea level to a maximum of about 3,000 feet. The plateau occupies more than half of the island's surface and is characterized by its karst feature (irregular limestone formation with depressions, underground caverns and streams). In this region, the intense action of rain water has dissolved the soluble limestone causing the natural drainage system to be largely subterranean rather than surface streams.

The coastal plains are low lying and stretch only a few miles inland except on Jamaica's southern shore, where they extend further inland. Also, the southern coastal plain is much broader than in the north. These plains are composed of alluvial deposits and represent the best cultivable lands of Jamaica. Selected areas in the coastal plains are covered by large swamps, particularly in the western and south-western sections (Black River, Savanna-la-Mar and Negril).

Jamaica has a tropical, humid climate, but a wide range of microclimates exist throughout the island because of regional differences in topographic elevations and the varying influences which the prevailing north-east winds, trade winds and alternating sea breeze (on-shore during the day) and land breezes (off-shore during the night) play in daily weather conditions. The Northern coast is exposed largely to the full influence of the north-east winds, whereas the trades are moderated somewhat by the high Blue Mountains at the eastern end of the island. Both Kingston and the southern coastal plains' climate conditions are significantly influenced by alternating land and sea breezes.

While Jamaica's year-round average temperature is about 80°F, slightly cooler temperatures are experienced on the northcoast and as much as 10-20 degrees lower on the interior plateau. In general, temperatures decrease by 1°F for every 300 feet of ascent. The average annual rainfall is 77 inches but its distribution varies significantly across the island because of differences in physical settings, irregularity in amount and frequency of occurrence. There are two principal rainy seasons - the first in May/June and the second in September/October. Rainfall occurs primarily from moisture-laden clouds driven by the north-east winds or from local breezes which are forced upward by the mountains and cooled, with resulting precipitation. The windward or north-east side of the mountains receive the heaviest rainfall. As a result, the north-east coastal region averages over 100 inches a year and high slopes of the Blue Mountains more than 200 inches annually. In comparison, the southern coastal plain (Kingston), situated on the leeward side of the mountains, receives under 50 inches per year. The Kingston Metropolitan Area experiences both irregularity and infrequency of rainfall so that droughts and water shortages pose perennial problems.

Hurricanes pose a potential threat to the loss of both life and property in Jamaica. However, it has not been hit by a major hurricane since 1951. The destructive forces of hurricanes include:

1. extremely high winds (75 to 200 miles);
2. intense rainfall; and
3. high waves.

The greatest possibility of their occurrence is in the months of August, September and October. In addition, Jamaica contains earthquake risk areas, specifically in the Kingston-St. Andrew region, which are comparable to ratings for California.

B. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

The past three years (1975-7) have brought the Jamaican economy its first post-independence experience of the effects of international recession, and revealed persistent weakness in its structure. The world-wide recession of 1975-76 resulted in significant declines in the prices of primary commodities such as sugar and bananas, while there was a significant cut-back in the production of bauxite and alumina. In addition, growing uncertainties among private sector entrepreneurs resulted in a shifting away from exports. The growing thrust of the government toward a more expansionary fiscal policy, replaced the contribution of exports in the economic functioning of the country with public sector stimuli. A significant difference, however, is that government activity, unlike exports, does not generate foreign exchange with which to meet the resulting increases in demand for exports, nor does it usually satisfy local distributors' demand for imports.

In 1976, the performance of the economy was characterized by a fall in real output, a decline in foreign exchange reserves, moderation in the rate of inflation and an increase in the unemployment rate. The rate of real growth in the economy has declined and is now in the negative, 6.9% in 1976. The foreign exchange reserves had fallen into a negative position by the end of 1976 (J\$1,898 M)* and there was a deficit (J\$301.5 M) in the current account of the balance of payments. The rate of inflation was around 10% and the unemployment rate was around 22% in 1976.^{1/}

In light of these conditions, the Government announced a series of measures designed to increase revenues, to halt the deterioration in the country's foreign exchange reserve, and presented a budget marked by restraint in April, 1977.

^{1/} National Income and Product, 1976, Department of Statistics, Jamaica
*M = million

EMPLOYMENT

On the employment side, the labor force increased by about 15% between April 1972 and October 1976, raising it to 895,500 workers. Despite various government programs to stimulate the economy and thus raise the level of employment, the rate of unemployment rose to 24.2% in October, 1976. (See Appendix I B-1).^{2/}

BALANCE OF TRADE

The operations of the financial sector naturally reflect the prevailing economic conditions. The rapidly declining foreign reserves balance is attributed to the fall in earnings from both visible and invisible trade. Lower earnings from tourism, a devaluation of assets held in sterling, and heavy demand for foreign currency contributed to this decline. In addition, earnings from most major exports showed a decline. (See Appendix I B-2).

GOVERNMENT ACTIVITY

The Government is committed to the concept of a mixed economy within the framework of democratic socialism; therefore, the State will dominate public utilities, mining, banking, tourism, and industrial production. The State will also be actively involved in policing various aspects of economic activity.

EMERGENCY PRODUCTION PLAN 1977/78

In light of the existing economic conditions, the Government of Jamaica has selected a strategy which is aimed at correcting the current conditions and changing the fundamental structure of the economy. The strategy, or policies, selected for this purpose fall under two broad (and overlapping) categories: the government as economic agent and the government as policing agent. The first category includes The Emergency Production Plan 1977/78 and this is aimed at changing the structure of the economy. The second includes wage and price guidelines, a multiple exchange rate policy, and import quotas, and these are aimed at correcting the current conditions.

^{2/} The Labour Force, 1976, Department of Statistics, Jamaica

The Emergency Production Plan is an interim plan which precedes the Five Year Plan to be implemented in 1978. The Emergency Production Plan was developed in response to the acute foreign exchange crisis and the Government's mandate for the establishment of democratic socialism. The Plan was constructed by evaluating existing productive capacity, identifying production targets, estimating capital (foreign and domestic) and manpower requirements, and specifying the mobilization and implementation implications of securing resources and meeting the production targets.

The over-riding objective of the Plan is to produce the maximum amount of goods and services that are consumed by the population, subject to foreign exchange constraints. Accordingly, the emphasis is placed on low income groups in the population and on activities which are foreign exchange earners. The second major objective of the strategy is to increase the level of housing starts to 13,452 (up 50%) in the current financial year. The craft industry, small business, and export manufacturing are also given emphasis in the Plan.

Most of the targets in the Plan are based on the assumption that the people of Jamaica can be motivated to change their attitude towards work and consumption and many taste patterns. The Government of Jamaica established the Ministry of National Mobilization to provide the motivating force necessary to reach the targets.

Wage and price controls are viewed as tools to solve the balance of payments problem and to reduce the rate of inflation. The Government has also been involved in the imposition of import quotas and the stimulation of export activity. In conjunction with these policies the Government of Jamaica has established a multiple exchange rate system. There is a "Basic Rate: (J\$0.909 = US\$1.00) and a depreciated rate, "Special Rate" (J\$1.25 = US\$1.00). Broadly, the basic rate applied to Government purchases and sales,

imports by selected organizations and certain swap arrangements involving the Bank of Jamaica. All other transactions involving the purchase and sale of foreign exchange will be at the special rate so that, for example, all export receipts including tourism receipts would be converted at the special rate.

One of the main objectives of the Emergency Production Plan 1977/78 is to increase the level of housing starts by about 50%. The emphasis is placed on construction because this sector provides employment for a wide variety of skilled, semi-skilled and professional personnel; stimulates growth in other sectors of the economy; and makes relatively small demands on the foreign exchange requirements.

The housing program described below does not include various home improvements, up-grading programs and Sites and Services Programs. The program calls for 13,452 construction starts, with government agencies providing 10,238 (see Appendix IB-3 for past starts). While most of the units will be concentrated in the parishes of Kingston, St. Andrew, and St. Catherine, each parish has been allocated a reasonable number of units in an attempt to utilize housing as a brake on the sprawling growth of the Kingston Metropolitan Area. (See Appendix IB-4). The estimated cost of the program is over J\$126 million with a large portion of this total coming from the National Housing Trust. The attainment of the goal is dependent on non-government builders raising around J\$35 million from the private banking sector and the decision of the Housing Trust to make loans available to agencies to provide basic infrastructure.

The Ministry of Housing sees the Government as playing an active role in this sector. The Government will be involved in financing, land acquisition, integrated planning and research and development. A total of J\$219 million at current value is needed to finance the Ministry's program

to 1980. The Government also plans to play an essential role in the research and development of new products, materials and systems, and training for the sector. Thus the Government plans to play one or more roles in this sector; housing developer, joint venturer, partner, or financier.

C. POLITICAL OVERVIEW AND NATIONAL GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE

Jamaica has a parliamentary type of government, under the British Crown. The Governor General functions in the Queen's name, but he is appointed on the recommendation of the Prime Minister, and acts in accordance with the advice of the Cabinet, or a Minister having the authority of the Cabinet.

The Parliament is bicameral, the lower House being democratically elected, and the Senate appointed by the Governor General. The leader of the majority party in Parliament is Prime Minister, and chief of the executive branch. He appoints the Ministers of his Cabinet, each of whom supervises the work of specific departments and agencies. There are 19 Ministries in the Cabinet (see Appendix IC-1).

One of the conspicuous features of the governmental organization is the position of the statutory bodies -- wholly-owned corporations and other semi-independent agencies, each affiliated with and under the supervision of one of the Ministries. The Jamaica Mortgage Bank, for example, is under the general supervision of the Ministry of Finance and Planning; the Sugar Industry Housing, Ltd., under the Ministry of Agriculture.

Jamaica is divided into three counties and fourteen parishes. The counties have long ceased to perform administrative functions; for administrative and statistical purposes, the parish is the principal subdivision. (See Political Subdivision Map IA-3). The small urban parish of Kingston, surrounded by the larger St. Andrew Parish, which in combination comprise most of the Kingston Metropolitan Area, have been merged into a single administrative unit, the Kingston and St. Andrew Corporation (K.S.A.C.).

The democratically elected Parish Councils are the only organized political institutions at the local level. Their powers are, however, narrowly circumscribed. Local authorities operate on the basis of powers granted by Parliament and revocable at any time.

GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION

SOCIAL WELFARE

The Government of Jamaica has put increasing emphasis on social services, and expenditures for social programs have grown rapidly. In 1975 for example, expenditures represented a 77.5% increase over 1974 levels. ^{3/} There were significant increases in free school, women's affairs, local sports, industrial training and youth commission training over the previous year. In terms of the national priorities, however, the J\$29.38 million expenditure for social services in 1975 was only 3.1% of the total budget. ^{4/}

The majority of social welfare expenditures (89%) are targeted for the 16-30 age range. This group has the highest unemployed rate and is therefore considered to have the most critical need. Literacy, skill training, and community activities are emphasized.

Expenditures are considerably less for the 0-17 age group. There are protective services for children and adoption services. The Government is emphasizing day care and has a policy that all major employers with women employees and housing estates should have day care centers.

Other social services include programs for the elderly and handicapped. There is also a contributory social security plan called the National Insurance Scheme. In 1975, there were 21,308 beneficiaries

^{3/} Economic and Social Survey, Jamaica 1975, p. 328

^{4/} Ibid.

receiving payments. Pensioners and widows received \$6.30 a week and orphans \$3.50. \$4.7 million was distributed in 1974/75. There is a Public Assistance Scheme for those not eligible for the National Insurance Scheme. In 1975, most of its beneficiaries were elderly, although benefits also went to the registered poor and the mentally and physically handicapped. The average payment was \$2.50 a week for the elderly. Other beneficiaries such as the handicapped received slightly higher payments. A total of \$7.7 million was budgeted for public assistance for 1975/76. The benefits from the National Insurance Scheme and Public Assistance are minimal and are intended to supplement other sources of income.^{5/}

MINISTRY OF YOUTH AND SPORTS

This Ministry has primary responsibility for children and youth. Programs include day care, child development, protective services for children, foster care and adoption. It also administers 4-H programs, training centers, youth and educational training services and sports programs. The Pioneer Corps has programs in employment and training in agriculture and industry.

The National Youth Service employs young people in a VISTA-type program to give service in education, health and agriculture - participation is required from high school graduates.

MINISTRY OF PENSIONS AND SOCIAL SECURITY

The Golden Age Project which provides services such as hot meals for the elderly as well as programs for the handicapped are the responsibility of this Ministry. It is also responsible for the National Insurance Scheme and Public Assistance to those who do not qualify for National Insurance Scheme.

5/ Ibid., p. 341

MINISTRY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The poor relief and housing assistance to indigents is operated out of the Public Assistance Scheme. Up to \$700 is given in grants to indigents to build or improve their houses.

OFFICE OF THE PRIME MINISTER

The Bureau of Women's Affairs in the Office of the Prime Minister concerns itself with role of women in the society. It has developed a skill training program for women in such non-traditional areas as welding and carpentry.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICES

There are 75 Social Service organizations islandwide. The Government supports approximately 1/3 of their respective budgets. The highest priority of these organizations are developmental activities for children and youth.

EDUCATION

Education is clearly a priority in Jamaica. Over 16% of the budget is for educational costs. ^{6/} The Ministry of Education has been attempting to keep up with the demand for additional spaces in the schools and at the same time make education more relevant to a broad cross-section of Jamaicans in the secondary schools.

Primary schools (Grades 1-6) and All Age Schools (Grades 1-9) are the schools attended by most Jamaicans. While the low income population completes an average of seven years of school, few go on to secondary schools. Absenteeism and over-crowding are problems in primary schools.

The Jamaican education system historically has been very selective in the higher grades. Competitive examinations still are required for entrance into secondary high schools. However, New Secondary Schools, which do not have selective enrollment, now enroll 72% of all youths

^{6/} Ibid., p. 256

receiving secondary education. These new schools emphasize work skills and work experience. A large portion of the education budget has gone into the development of these schools.

Emphasis on basic schools, which are for children age 4-6, has also been an important policy. Basic schools are generally community-based and supported and additionally receive monetary support from the government for staff and food.

The JAMAL Foundation (Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy) enrolled over 85,000 individuals in its literacy program in 1975. Almost double the number of enrollees the previous year. JAMAL receives a grant from the Office of the Prime Minister.

Since over 16 percent of the budget is already allocated to education, it is unlikely that significant increases in educational expenditures will occur in the near future. However, the emphasis on community-based basic schools and literacy, which are already established priorities, fits nicely into a scheme of comprehensive community services such as those offered in urban upgrading areas.

HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL QUALITY

The Ministry of Health and Environmental Control has authority in the following areas:

GOVERNMENT HEALTH SERVICE

There are 23 Government operated general hospitals on the island. General and other government hospitals provide over 7,500 beds. There are also 98 health centers and 57 dispensaries. The bulk of the budget of the Ministry of Health is required to operate these facilities.

MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH DIVISION

This Division is responsible for maternal care, child health, family planning and nutrition for pregnant and lactating women, and

children under five. It operates 10 rural maternity centers staffed by midwives. It also holds pre-and post-natal clinics across the island. Available statistics indicate that 55% of pregnant women are reached by these services. School visits to detect T.B. and to provide immunizations and dental care are also part of the program.

NATIONAL FAMILY PLANNING PROGRAM

This program involves training of people involved in educating others -- such as teachers, ministers, community workers, and unions -- regarding family planning. A curriculum has also been introduced in the public schools. Contraceptives are distributed in 666 outlets across the country and are publicized through a public education campaign through the media. The birth rate has been declining in recent years and in 1975 was estimated at 30.1 per thousand population. At least some of the credit for this trend should go to this program. The budget for this program has decreased from \$1.8 million in 1974 to \$1.1 million in 1975.

NUTRITION DEPARTMENT

The primary functions of this department are surveillance systems, nutrition education and a supplementary feeding program for mothers and children. Efforts are directed at children under 4 and pregnant and lactating mothers. Community Health Aides assess problems of malnutrition in children. The program has found that the severe malnutrition rate is low -- less than 2% in most parishes. However, moderate malnutrition affects 20% of those tested in the Corporate Area but less than 7% in the Rural Areas. When combined with cases of mild malnutrition, it appears that about 1/3 of the children surveyed experience some degree of malnutrition.^{7/}

^{7/} Ibid., p. 308

PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT

Mosquito control, inoculations, recording of the incidence of disease and inspection of public handlers of food are the duties of this department.

Food and Drug regulation and control and certification of practitioners are additional responsibilities of this Ministry.

AREAS OF CONCERN

Approximately 80% of all doctors and 65% of all dentists worked for the government in 1975.^{8/} While there has been an effort at expanding services in rural areas, the bulk of doctors and dentists are found in the corporate area. There is also a severe shortage of medical personnel. Jamaica needs four times its present number of doctors and seven times the number of dentists to meet acceptable standards. The shortage would be even more severe if not for a program where the government brings in non-nationals on 2-3 year contracts. Twenty-six percent of the dentists employes by the Government of Jamaica are practicing in the island on that basis.^{9/}

The problems of personnel and equipment shortages especially affect dental care. Approximately 90% of all work done in dental clinics is extractions.^{10/} Preventive care is almost non-existent.

ENVIRONMENTAL QUALITY

The Environmental Control Division (ECD) of the Ministry of Health and Environmental Control and the Beach Control Authority have primary responsibility on matters related to environmental quality. Their operations are largely governed by the Public Health Law of 1974 and to

^{8/} Ibid., p. 310

^{9/} Ibid., p. 319

^{10/} Ibid.

a lesser degree a variety of other pieces of legislation such as the Clean Air Act, the Beach Control Act, the Wildlife Protection Act and the Quarry Act. However, it should be noted that the Clean Air Act of 1965 has not been exercised and needs revision. The primary responsibilities of ECD include the protection of public health and the environment through control of solid waste, air pollution, water quality, domestic and industrial wastewater, land and wetland pollution, and toxic wastes. In carrying out these duties, ECD establishes standards in these areas to protect human health and to promote preservation and conservation of water, land and air resources. In addition it prepares plans to reduce existing pollution problems and to prevent creation of new ones. It reviews design proposals for effluent standards and general environmental quality.

The Environmental Control Division works with other Ministries concerned with the environmental issues including the Ministry of Mining and Natural Resources, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, and the Town Planning Department to coordinate the program use of resources across the island. Furthermore, a close relationship exists between the ECD and the local parishes. Coordination with local health inspectors has been excellent. There appears to be a high level of sensitivity at the local level to water quality and sewage issues. Water quality standards are considered important not only for protection of domestic water supplies, but also, because the livelihood of many rural families (farmers, fishermen, etc.) depend on clean water.

The control of marine pollution is vested with the Beach Control Authority. Under provisions of the Law, no new sources of waste may be discharged into off-shore waters without a permit. However, existing discharges have not been forced to comply with approved effluent

standards.

AREAS OF CONCERN

In a developing country such as Jamaica, there is a tendency to try to achieve rapid economic growth and social progress, often at the expense of environmental quality. In the past, the use and development of the island's natural resources were conducted on the basis of small-scale scattered operations. Now, however, the magnitude of Jamaica's development demands are significantly greater so as to require a national perspective of the island's resources and a determination of the best uses of these resources given available alternatives and costs implications. While the status of environmental quality has not reached a critical or hazardous stage, it is beginning to deteriorate rapidly and will become worse if the problems are not anticipated and corrective actions taken.

The following is a list of critical environmental concerns which are particularly relevant to the planning and development of residential land uses:

1. Pollution of underground and surface water sources both inland and off-shore from failing individual sewage disposal systems, public and private waste-water systems, bauxite and alumina wash, and storm-water run-off in urbanized areas.
2. Air quality degradation from industrial uses, burning of garbage and traffic congestion (auto, bus, and truck emission).
3. Imbalance between the location of major water supply sources and the center of major urban population.
4. The concentration of population (density) in selected areas, and the inadequacies of the institutions and delivery systems, which because of high public investment costs cannot meet such

basic infrastructural needs as water supply, sewage treatment, garbage collection and electricity.

5. Uncontrolled land development, particularly in environmentally sensitive areas such as wetlands, aquifer recharged areas, steep hill-sides and coastal beaches.
6. Urban growth has taken place, in many areas, at the expense of productive agricultural lands.
7. Overcrowding (persons per room) is common in areas where housing is obsolete and public services nonexistent or severely limited.

AUTHORITIES RESPONSIBLE FOR HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

The Government of Jamaica is now directly involved in housing, in the planning, development, construction, and marketing of over 75 per cent of all housing in Jamaica. The responsibility varies from complete developments to joint venture operations with the private sector, and the administration of housing programs which are implemented by the private sector but depend on various kinds of public sector assistance.

MINISTRY OF HOUSING

The Ministry of Housing has primary responsibility for the majority of housing programs. The types of programs vary: Sales and Rental, Owner-Occupier, Aided Self-Help, Slum Clearance and Rehousing, and Sites and Services. (See Appendix IB-3 and IB-4). In some cases it operates in collaboration with other Ministries: Local Government, Agriculture, and Youth and Community Development. It assumes direct responsibility for producing housing for families with less than \$3,500 per year. The houses produced may be completed or only sanitary cores.

SITES AND SERVICES

The Sites and Services program for squatter upgrading is designed to make it possible for residents of squatter communities to contribute to the improvement of their own living environment. The Government provides infrastructure (roads, water, electricity, and a sanitary core unit - basic toilet, shower, and kitchen facilities). A lease for a period of up to forty-nine years regularizes the tenure of the occupant and enables him to obtain credit. In practice, an arrangement has been developed between the Sites and Services project staff of the Ministry of Housing, and the Jamaica Co-op Credit Union League Ltd., in which approved leasees may borrow from the local credit union. In some cases

they may purchase materials and build their own houses, with the help of family and friends; in others, they may hire contractors directly and have houses built for them.

THE NATIONAL HOUSING CORPORATION

The National Housing Corporation (a corporation owned by the Government and responsible to the Ministry of Housing) provides housing for households with incomes in excess of \$3,500. The Corporation also undertakes joint ventures with private developers.

MINISTRY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The Ministry of Local Government is responsible for providing and improving the condition of housing for the very poor.^{11/} In some cases, as in the Indigent Housing Scheme, the Ministry of Local Government cooperates with the Ministry of Housing.

CENTRAL KINGSTON URBAN UPGRADING PROJECT

The Central Kingston Urban Upgrading Project is also under the sponsorship of the Ministry of Local Government. The project operates on the principle that Jamaica must make use of its existing facilities, both housing and infrastructure. The basic approach is a concentration of social services, health care, employment training opportunities, and an upgrading of the physical environment. In the housing area, the objective is the maximum rehabilitation of sound but deteriorated structures, the installation of additional sanitary and kitchen facilities, and the demolition of unsafe buildings. This project deals with a neighborhood largely occupied by tenants; only ten percent of the occupants own their own homes. A major goal of the program is to involve the residents in the community activities, to create a feeling of

^{11/} Ibid., p. 155

neighborhood commitment and concern.

URBAN DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION

The Urban Development Corporation, a quasi-public organization, which operates under the Ministry of Finance and Planning, was originally concerned with urban renewal and commercial development. It has recently undertaken new housing projects in Montego Bay and Hellshire, including the provision of infrastructure where necessary.

MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE

In rural areas, the Ministry of Agriculture operates the Farm Housing Scheme under Project Land Lease III. Under this plan, small villages are developed on government-owned land. Potential farmers are permitted to rent house and land for a two year period, and those who can perform satisfactorily receive a forty-nine year lease to the house and land. The houses are small, but are equipped with sanitary facilities, a water tank, and septic tank.

SUGAR INDUSTRY HOUSING, LTD.,

Sugar Industry Housing, Ltd., was incorporated in March 1975, as a wholly owned government corporation affiliated with the Sugar Industry Authority, and operating under the Ministry of Agriculture. Its objective is to provide adequate housing for workers in the sugar industry, including indigent, retired, or disabled workers. It is a fully integrated development corporation, with the capacity to assess housing needs, design the housing and infrastructure, build the houses, and provide the necessary financing. By the end of December 1977, it will have completed almost 900 houses in six projects, at a total cost of \$10,330,000.

(See Appendix IC-2). An additional 15,00 houses are in the planning stage. S.I.H.L. also has a program of housing rehabilitation, on which it proposes to spend approximately \$1,000,000 per year. (See Appendix IC-3).

URBAN PLANNING AUTHORITIES

In retrospect, Jamaica did not recognize and begin to take affirmative actions toward addressing the problems associated with urbanization until late 1950's and early 1960's. Despite earlier measures which were instituted to correct particular problems or crises, such as the hurricane disaster in 1951, it was not until the 1960's that land use plans were prepared for Kingston or development orders initiated for selected towns and areas in the parishes. A physical planning approach towards managing Jamaica's urban growth process has characterized the Town and Country Planning Department's activities to date. This has resulted in the completion of numerous regional, parish and town level plans, but the one major growth area which still remains largely unplanned is the Kingston and St. Andrew Metropolitan Area. In recognition of the urgent planning needs surrounding Jamaica's capital area as well as an island-wide comprehensive perspective, the United Nations supported a 5 year Special Fund Project (\$500,000) in 1966 to prepare a National Physical Plan. This effort culminated in the completion of the National Physical Plan for Jamaica, 1970-1990, and was accompanied by a National Atlas for Jamaica, and numerous supporting technical studies. The UN/Town Planning Project constituted Jamaica's first attempt to comprehensively identify goals for local, regional and national development in all major economic sectors and to define an urban structure and growth policy based upon the concept of decentralized employment centers and upgrading of community services in existing population centers throughout rural areas. The underlying assumption of the Plan was that the internal migration pattern could be reversed if jobs, public services and standards of living were improved outside the Kingston-St. Andrew Metropolitan Area.

The National Physical Plan though not yet officially approved represents a significant data reference and model. The National Planning Agency's approach in proposing a new development plan appears to be reasonably sound, and it is to be hoped that it will avoid the potential pitfalls of past planning endeavors.

Other agencies with planning responsibilities are the Town Planning Division of the Ministry of Mining and Natural Resources, and the K.S.A.C. and Parish Councils, which have a share in approving residential subdivisions and building applications.

The principal responsibilities of carrying out national, regional and local planning functions rest with two groups within the Ministry of Finance and Planning - the National Planning Agency (NPA) and the Town and Country Planning Authority (TCPA). The NPA, created in mid-1972 and formerly functioning from within the Prime Minister's Office (Economic Planning Unit), has been given a clear mandate to act as the central coordinating agency between the various national ministries in preparing the National Five Year Development Plan 1978-83. This report is due to be completed in December and is expected to set national goals and objectives, define development strategies, establish priorities and identify the principal implementation measures to be undertaken by the central government and respective ministries. In summary NHP's role, as presently conceived, involves the mobilization of the national government's resources to respond to a full range of physical, social and economic problems in a comprehensive and coordinated manner. In contrast, TCPA acts primarily as a technical advisory body in consultation with local authorities (parishes) in preparing physical development plans and reviewing specific development proposals which may affect the locations

and character of future land use activities. The Town and Country Planning Authority is composed of representatives from 15 national ministries and divisions and chaired by the Town Planner (See Appendix IC-4).

Consequently, the 12 Parish Councils and KSAC have not assumed a leading role in planning the physical growth of their municipalities. rather they have been concerned mainly with the provision of public services, e.g., road construction and maintenance, water distribution, garbage collection and health protection. Similarly, they are responsible for setting and administering the process of land subdivision, building codes, construction standards and health requirements. It is within these areas that the real powers of local government have indirectly shaped the land development process throughout the island. However, the authority of local governments may be curtailed somewhat by TCPA's powers to 'call-in' development applications to review and make comment on critical issues, as well as assume responsibility for its processing and final determination. Under these circumstances, the local parish council still administers building regulations.

HOUSING FINANCE AUTHORITIES

A number of public sector institutions are involved in implementing various aspects of the government's housing policy. The National Housing Trust, Sugar Industry Housing Limited and the Jamaica Mortgage Bank (all statutory bodies), are involved in the financing aspect of the government's policy.

NATIONAL HOUSING TRUST

The National Housing Trust was created by the Government to administer funds collected by means of compulsory savings deducted from the salaries of liable employees (2% of gross income) and from the wage bill of employers (3% of liable employees' wage bill). All workers who earn more than twenty dollars (\$20.00) a week must contribute to the Trust. The role of the National Housing Trust is the mobilization of contributions to improve the housing stock. Since the majority of contributors earn between twenty dollars (\$20.00) and sixty dollars (\$60.00) a week, the Trust awards 85% of its benefits to households in this income group. Fourteen and a half percent of the benefits go to households with a weekly income between sixty-one dollars (J\$61.00) and one hundred and ten dollars (J\$110.00). The remaining half percent go to the households which earn more than one-hundred and ten dollars (J\$110.00) a week. (See Appendix IC-5).

The National Housing Trust offers four types of benefits; projects which it promotes; loans to build on one's own land; loans to purchase a house on the open market; loans to improve or expand an existing house.

The Trust in the allocation of benefits plans to place first priority on projects which it promotes. The rest of the benefits will be divided as follows - 5 percent of the remainder to open market purchasers

and the rest evenly divided between loans for construction and improvements. Eligible applications are grouped by benefits for which they have applied and by parish, and selection is made by lottery.

The National Housing Trust, which was established in January, 1976, has awarded about five thousand benefits totalling twenty-three million dollars (see Appendix IC-6). The problems with housing costs and processing have slowed the disbursement of awards. A large majority of the contributors cannot purchase a house which costs more than \$10,000. The selling price of most houses is in excess of \$10,000 so the Trust is primarily purchasing housing schemes developed by the Ministry of Housing. The Trust has purchased 368 houses from the Ministry and awarded 228. An additional problem is that benefits for new construction cannot be processed until the individual can produce legal documentation of title to the land. In many cases a legal document does not exist and it takes six to twelve months to get the document.

A worker is permitted to borrow up to four times his annual income. When an individual purchases a house using the Trust as a financial instrument, he makes no down payment and pays twenty percent of his salary (above his 2% contribution) to the Trust, until the loan is repaid. The interest on the loan, 8-10 percent per annum, depends on his income.

The National Housing Trust is a country-wide operation, but, the geographic distribution of benefits reflects the contribution of contributors. The Trust can legally assume any function in the construction industry, but has dealt exclusively with financing. It will probably continue in the financing role for the next two years. Since contributions are compulsory, within a few years the National Housing

Trust will be one of the largest financial institutions for the housing sector in Jamaica. By March 1978, the Trust expects to have J\$120 million.

JAMAICA MORTGAGE BANK

Another institution involved in the financing aspect of housing is the Jamaica Mortgage Bank, a statutory body under the Ministry of Housing. The Bank was originally established as the central mortgage organization, to which approved mortgage institutions could sell eligible first mortgages. They will purchase up to 90% of a mortgage on a house which does not have an appraised value in excess of \$25,000.

The major responsibility of the Bank includes direct participation in low and middle income housing by providing mortgages, operating the Government's Mortgage Insurance Program and by mobilizing external funds from private and public sources. These responsibilities are carried out by secondary market operations, primary market operations, and a mortgage insurance program. Through secondary market operations the Bank creates liquidity in the mortgage market. Approved Seller/Serviceers, i.e., institutions which have satisfied the Bank's eligibility requirements as to net worth, ability to originate and service mortgages, etc., are given the opportunity to sell the eligible mortgages they hold in their portfolios and reinvest the proceeds in new mortgages. (See Appendix IC-7 for a summary of the secondary market operations).

Subject to the availability of funds, the Bank will provide primary first mortgage loans through developers or co-operative organizations which are in the business of developing low and middle income housing (See Appendix IC-8 for a summary of the primary market operations).

A third operation of the Jamaica Mortgage Bank is the Government's Mortgage Insurance Program. This program, like the Bank's other operations, has the effect of bringing owner-occupied houses within the means of a large number of families. The program is designed to encourage access to capital market by: transferring the risk of default on a loan to the Government, improving financing terms to low and middle income families by reducing the lender's risk because of a mortgage insurance, making mortgage instruments more secure and marketable, maintaining certain standards, and encouraging improvements in housing conditions.

The Jamaica Mortgage Bank was initiated with an AID Concessional loan of \$10,000,000 in 1971, followed by a \$10,000,000 Housing Guarantee loan in 1973. The loan contribution was supported with a substantial Technical Assistance loan.

SUGAR INDUSTRY HOUSING, LTD.

A third organization involved in the financing of housing is the Sugar Industry Housing Ltd. It provides loans to sugar workers for the purchase of new houses or the rehabilitation of old houses. Levels of eligibility for new housing loans (between \$6,000 and \$25,000) have been set on annual incomes above \$1,000. Loans of up to \$6,000 are available to improve existing houses. A worker is permitted to borrow up to six times his annual income for a new construction loan, and repayment is based on twenty percent of his income.^{12/}

(See Appendix C-1 and I C-2 for Expenditures and Housing Units, New and Rehabilitated, to be completed December 1977).

^{12/} Sugar Industry Housing Ltd. Proposal to US AID. p. 4 and 5

II. THE TARGET POPULATION

A. SOCIO-CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

Poverty and poor housing conditions go hand in hand. The most difficult to serve in any housing program are the very poor who have unstable and inadequate incomes. The focus of this shelter sector analysis is housing for the poorest half of the population. In Jamaica, that population can be categorized as the urban poor living in older tenement areas, the urban poor living in squatter settlements, and the rural poor.

1. URBAN POOR

a. URBAN POOR IN TENEMENTS

The older tenement areas are usually located in the central city. The areas are physically deteriorated, overcrowded, and lacking in community facilities, although water and electricity and roads are usually available.

In Jamaica, tenement slums are made up of "yards" (See Diagram, Appendix IIA1). Strip tenements are located along a road and usually have 3-5 families in an enclosed yard living in close proximity and sharing basic services such as stand pipe, kitchen and toilet facilities. Most of the occupants of yards are renters.

DÉMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

A careful survey was completed in the Central Urban Upgrading Pilot Project area in 1975. While there may be variations from one location to another, the following community profile is probably quite representative of tenement slums.

AGE: The population of the tenement area is young. The mean age in Central Kingston is 20 years - 18 years for males and 22 years for females. Approximately 30% of the population is under 10 years old and 56% is under 20 years.

SEX
DISTRIBUTION: 55% of the population is female.

FAMILY SIZE
AND
STRUCTURE: The average household size is 4 persons. Over one-fourth of the households (26.3%) include 6 or more persons.

Family patterns in the lower class are less stable than those in the middle and upper classes. In Central Kingston, 51% of the households are headed by women. The marriage rate is low, which is typical of lower class communities. Only 8% of the population is married, 35% are in common law relationships, 9% are in visiting relationships, and 48% are single. If people do get married they usually do so at a later age than would normally be expected. Visiting relationships are characteristics of the youngest of the sexually active population and are the least stable. Most of the people in a relationship with the opposite sex are common-law. Most common-law relationships do not lead to marriage, and cannot necessarily be considered "stable" when evaluating long term family continuity.

DENSITY AND
OVERCROWDING: Most of the structures in Central Kingston are one story buildings; a very few are two stories. Under these circumstances the density of 80.7 persons per acre, as calculated by Dr. Orlando Patterson, is extremely high.^{1/} This

^{1/} Interim Report on the Urban Upgrading Pilot Project, p. 92

area averages 2.8 persons living in a single room. 72% of all households live in one-room dwellings; for large households (five or more persons per household), almost all live in single rooms.

TENURE: 90% of the residents of the area are tenants. 35% of the landlords are owner-occupants.

REGIONAL ORIGINS: 75% of the population are from the Kingston area. However, it is estimated that approximately 50% of the adult population are from rural areas; females migrate in greater numbers than males.

EDUCATION: The population spent an average of seven years in school, seven years for males and eight for females. Of the employed population, males had an average of 9 years of schooling. Both employed and unemployed females had 8 years of schooling.

EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME: 30% of the workforce in Central Kingston was employed for wages in 1975. 10% were self-employed (own-account workers). 34.5% were unemployed and seeking work, while 12.4% were unemployed but not seeking employment. Only 28.6% of the men were unemployed and seeking work, while 41.1% of the women were in that category.

The median household income in 1975 was \$20 per week. That has increased to \$27 per week today. (See Section IIB for discussion of income).

COMMUNITY STRUCTURE: There are two types of community activity centers in tenement areas, those belonging to the formal sector and those that are informal. In the formal sector, schools and community centers are important to children and youth because of their organized activities. Churches are especially

important to women, because they offer a place to socialize with other women, but the appeal of religion crosses all age and sex categories. Informal activity centers for men include bars and street-corners. Young men use the streets and playfields for sporting activity. Women and girls usually congregate at the market for socializing.

The formal leadership in the community is associated with its institutions. Ministers, teachers, businessmen and community workers are recognized as leaders. The informal leadership in the community are gang leaders. Groups of young men are organized under a leader on a block by block basis, and there is usually one leader of the larger area comprised of several blocks.

**SOCIAL STRUCTURE,
ATTITUDES AND
VALUES:**

Family Structure and Roles - Family life in the tenement is usually unstable. There are many single women with children in the area. Visiting relationships with men occur frequently. Common-law relationships are somewhat more stable, lasting an average of three years. Marriage often occurs late, after several children, often by different fathers, are born.

As a consequence of this unstable pattern, men do not play an important role in the home. They are treated with deference by the women, and they usually rule in matters of sex and birth-control. In matters relating to children, however, they remain aloof. The closest ties are between the mother and children, closer than those between women

and men. The father's primary responsibility is to earn money if he can. The woman earns the money, is responsible for housecleaning and chores, and raises the children.

The tenement dweller usually has minimal expectations for her children. Although she may wish a better future for them, she realistically hopes that they will stay out of trouble with the law until they are fifteen. After that age, it is usually felt that parental control has lost its force. While young men are allowed a great deal of freedom, a tenement mother is very protective of her daughters, trying to postpone pregnancy as long as possible. She tries to accomplish this by keeping her daughter close to home, away from the bad influence of other girls, or young men. As a consequence young girls are often ignorant and unprepared to make choices regarding sex and many do get pregnant early.

SOCIAL

INTERACTION: In the Urban Upgrading area there are usually 2-5 families per yard. A yard is enclosed by a fence and a gate and contains living units and a common area. In a recent study it was found that yards play an important socializing function for recent immigrants from rural areas, who usually immigrate as individuals rather than families. Women find the yard a place where they can share problems and personal concerns. Shared responsibility for the supervision of children is another advantage of the yard. For a single woman with children, the yard plays a most important role.

Sharing of facilities such as standpipes, toilets, kitchens and washing facilities is common in yards. This type of sharing is often a point of conflict, however. Frequently, people cook over a fire on the porch in order to avoid sharing kitchens. Maintenance of separate toilet articles is also common.

While sharing is characteristic of tenement areas, it is usually done out of necessity rather than choice. Most tenement families want their own house, facilities and yard.

SENSE OF
COMMUNITY:

Tenement dwellers take pride in their homes and usually the inside of a house is spotless. Common areas are more of a problem, and cooperation with neighbors must be achieved to keep the yard neat and clean. The farther an area is removed from the home itself, the less sense of responsibilities there is. Because the focus of neighborhood interaction is the yard, rather than the community, and because the tenant community is very mobile, a sense of community must be nurtured. The Kingston Central Upgrading Pilot Project has demonstrated that it is possible to develop such a sense of community by involving the families in activities of mutual interest such as a day care center program, a health center, and a geriatric center, and by making legal and social services available, to make the residents aware that there are others who are interested and concerned about their welfare.

ATTITUDE
TOWARDS
HOUSING:

Tenement dwellers aspire to a single family house of block

and steel with a yard. Faced with the reality of their situation, they attempt to make their houses, however ramshackle, distinct from the others. Many tenants attempt to do repairs to their homes, although self-help is not as common here as in areas where there is some security of tenure. Although there is some problem with vandalism in tenant communities, most deterioration is due to overuse of facilities rather than abuse. Community priorities for upgrading are sanitary facilities and roofs.

Studies have shown that despite the mobile nature of a segment of renters, many tenement dwellers experience grief when forced to move because of separation from kin, neighbors, and familiar community institutions. Thus, housing and community provide a sense of identity and a context for living.

People live in tenements because their choices are limited. Cost and proximity to employment are very important. Given limited incomes and the priorities of food and clothing, housing costs must be minimized. In the Urban Upgrading area 14.5% of disposable income is paid in rent, which is considerably less than the 20-25% standard that is used by lenders and planners. In a 1972 study by Dr. Orlando Patterson, Professor of Sociology, Harvard University, he found the mean rent per month to be \$7.39 in Salt Lane, \$10.93 in McIntyre Lands and \$14.44 in Wareika Hills. In Salt Lane rent represented 15% of average income. In McIntyre Lands rent was 13% of income. In Wareika Hills 16% of income was allocated to rent.

It is interesting to note, however, that an interest in upgrading exists. Tenement dwellers were asked if they would be willing to pay additional rent if their dwellings were upgraded. Virtually all were willing, although a few were concerned about their ability to pay.^{2/}

^{2/} Patterson, Orlando - Preliminary Outline of a National Programme of Urban Upgrading, p. 5, refers to previous studies.

b. URBAN POOR IN SQUATTER SETTLEMENTS

Squatting is a common Third World phenomenon. Squatters capture land that does not belong to them and build their own house on it. Squatters often locate on Government land near gullies, in railroad rights of way, and dumps. They also invade private land if it is perceived that police protection has been withdrawn.

Squatters usually build one-room shelters of wood and erect a fence around their yard. The first squatters in an area capture as much land as they can and then rent portions to other squatters. Density increases as the land is divided into smaller plots for rental purposes. The longer a squatter lives on the land, the more secure he perceives his tenure to be. Additions and improvements to dwellings occur as tenure becomes more secure.

People who move to outlying squatter areas from inner city tenements often do so because of a desire for land, space, and their own home. They want to leave the dense, crime-ridden areas of the city. A study of squatters in Montego Bay found this to be a motivating factor. Others choose squatting because their income is not stable enough to pay rent. Because squatting is illegal, the settlements lack basic facilities such as water, electricity and roads.

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The Ministry of Housing completed a study of nine squatter areas in Kingston in March 1977. Data are from that study unless otherwise noted. (A summary of the findings for 6 of these squatter areas appears in Appendix IIA-2.)

AGE: The squatter population is very young. Over 60% of the population is under twenty in most squatter areas.

SEX DISTRIBUTION: A study of tenements and squatter settlements found that there is a more even sex distribution in squatter areas than in the tenements. This is because squatting involves "protecting" land and building a house, duties commonly associated with men.

FAMILY AGE AND STRUCTURE: Household size varied from a low of 3.7 to a high of 5.5. The average is 4.7 people per household. (The average household size in the K.S.A.C. area as a whole is 4.2).

The family pattern in squatter areas is similar to that of tenement areas. Marriage occurs late. Common-law and visiting relationships occur frequently. The percentage of households headed by women ranged from 24% to 51% depending on the area.

DENSITY AND OVERCROWDING: Density in squatter areas studied varied from about 50 people per acre to over 90 people per acre. An average of slightly over 3 persons per room was found in the squatter areas of Kingston.

TENURE: Most people in squatter areas either own their home and squat on the land or they rent or lease from another squatter who has a "claim" to the land.

REGIONAL ORIGINS: A study of Drewsland showed that 71% of the population were born in rural areas. In older squatter areas, this figure might be lower.

EDUCATION: A small percentage of the population stays in school beyond the primary grades.

**EMPLOYMENT
AND
INCOME:**

There is a predominant pattern of unskilled and own-account labor in squatter areas. Unemployment and underemployment are severe problems. The Ministry of Housing study showed an average unemployment rate of 37%. The median household income in squatter areas is estimated to be between \$26.00 and \$29.00 per week, or \$1,350 to \$1,500 per year. Detailed information on squatter income can be found in Section II B of this report.

**COMMUNITY
STRUCTURE:**

Studies of community structure have been done for Drewsland and Cockburn Pen, where the Ministry of Housing is completing its first squatter upgrading project. These areas were chosen because they already had some social organization. In addition, through the community participation process used by the Ministry, many people have become involved in their community. Many other squatter areas do not have the same level of community participation, but the analysis shows a potential for other areas.

More than half of the residents of these settlements belong to at least one community institution. Religious participation is most important in Cockburn Pen, while political party affiliation predominates in Drewsland. Clubs and partner arrangements were also avenues of community participation.

In Cockburn Pen, people associated with community institutions, such as Ministers, teachers, and judges, were

recognized most often as the community leadership. This is similar to the pattern in the Urban Upgrading tenement area. In Drewsland, however, political activists were overwhelmingly recognized as leaders and institutional people were all but ignored. While about 50% of the respondents from Drewsland pointed to personality characteristics as the basis for leadership, 25% named useful contacts in Government as their reason for naming their leaders.

Activity centers in squatter areas are similar to those in the tenements. Play fields are important for youth, and bars are a favorite gathering place for men. The market and church provide opportunities for socializing to women.

**SOCIAL STRUCTURE,
ATTITUDES AND**

VALUES: Family Structure: The pattern of family instability is similar in tenement and squatter areas, although men seem to play a more important role in squatter settlements because of home building and protection requirements.

The upbringing of children is also similar to the pattern found in tenements.

**SOCIAL
STRUCTURE:**

In contrast with the tenement yards of the central cities, houses in squatter areas usually contain only one household. Fences are erected around houses as a way to "stake out" a squatter's property and provide for privacy. As a consequence there is usually more of a community orientation in squatter areas than in the tenement areas, because squatters must either go outside the yard or invite others

in for social interaction.

There is less sharing of facilities in squatter areas than tenement areas. Since infrastructure is usually absent, sharing of standpipes on the roads is a necessity. However, there is usually only one unit per yard and toilet facilities (pit latrines) and cooking facilities are used only by the family group.

There is a sharing of responsibility for clearing the common areas in a squatter settlement. People do also tend to help each other out when needed. In Cockburn Pen, it was found that about one-fourth of the population had loaned money to friends and helped with children - 63% indicated that they trusted their neighbors.

SENSE OF
COMMUNITY:

The high level of community participation discussed earlier is evidence of a sense of community. In addition, squatter areas tend to be quite stable. In Drewsland, for instance, 86% of the population had lived there more than 5 years. It was also found in the Cockburn Pen study that 83% of the residents wanted to stay in the community if it was improved.

ATTITUDES
TOWARD
HOUSING:

As in the case with tenements, the focus of pride and identity is the home. Homes are kept very neat and clean. While most people aspire to a home of their own on their own land, the reality is much different. Although insecurity of tenure is a fact of life in squatter areas, the people there at least have a home of their own making.

When asked by the Ministry of Housing what type of housing they prefer, squatters choose a completed house first and self-help last. Yet, self-help housing is exactly what squatters have erected. When given security of tenure, they begin to improve their homes and make them more permanent. There seems to be a great reservoir of self-help, not out of choice but necessity.

Squatters come from both rural and tenement areas. According to Dr. Alan Eyre, of the Geography Department of the University of the West Indies, the lack of available housing at a price they can afford to pay, in locations having a reasonable proximity to the place of employment, has been the chief motivation for both rural and urban slum dwellers to settle in squatter areas.

Squatters have not had access to credit because of lack of tenure; they have been obliged to concentrate on self-help rather than borrowing to build their houses. However, Dr. Patterson's study in 1972 of the low-income population found that 58% of the people that had reasonably secure tenure (squatters, owner-occupants, leaseholders) were interested in borrowing to upgrade their homes. The evaluation of the Drewsland and Cockburn Pen upgrading projects showed support for the upgrading of water facilities and roads. The improvement of housing conditions was considered to be of equal importance by the residents. Community facilities ranked third.

2. THE RURAL POOR

According to recent estimates, slightly over half of the population of Jamaica lives in rural areas. This proportion represents a very large decrease, as the able-bodied young people have steadily drifted to urban centers, especially Kingston. It is not because the situation in the cities is so attractive that people move there, but rather that the rural environment is so unsatisfactory. Most people are farmers, but their farms are too small to support the whole family adequately. In 1968, 79% of all farms were of less than five acres, and the average was 1.5 acres.^{3/} Such a farm can provide work enough for about six months for one person.

The situation is somewhat different now among sugar workers. Of the 45,000 families who work in the sugar industry, 36% work on the cooperatives which have taken over some of the large estates, 36% work on large farms, and 28% on small farms. For the sugar workers, conditions have improved, and better housing is being made available.

For the rest of the rural population, housing conditions are bad; their homes are frequently one-room improvised shacks, without any utilities. In mountainous areas, there may be no regular roads, and no near-by electric lines or water pipes. The residents may have to carry water for considerable distances, and pit toilets are the ordinary form of waste disposal.

Conditions may be somewhat better in the villages, but many houses are of the same kind as those occupied by poor farmers.

^{3/} PADCO. Rural Housing in Jamaica, p. 5

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

AGE: There are 112 children under 15 for every 100 adults in rural Jamaica, (1970 Census). The average age of sugar workers is quite advanced, because employment opportunities on the estates have declined in recent years. The median age in Quaw Hill, for example, is almost 50 years. Despite the age of the sugar workers themselves, there is a very large proportion of children in many sugar areas, as is the case among the rural population in general.

SEX DISTRIBUTION: The sex distribution in rural areas is 99.5 males to 100 females, (1970 Census). The sex distribution in sugar target areas is about even.

AVERAGE HOUSEHOLD SIZE:

In 1970, the average household size in rural areas was 4.7, which was above the national average of 4.4. The average household size in South Clarendon, which is a major sugar belt, was 3.9. The sugar population seems to have somewhat smaller families.

FAMILY STRUCTURE:

Only 32.8% of the households in St. Elizabeth, a very rural parish, are headed by women as compared with 47% of the households in Kingston (1970 Census). The family structure seems to be more stable in rural areas.

TENURE: The overall owner occupancy rate for rural areas is 77%. This rate varies greatly from farming areas where the vast majority are owner-occupants to sugar estates, where owner-occupancy rates vary from 15% to 50%. There is a trend toward increased home ownership among sugar workers, because of the housing opportunities provided by the S.I.H.L.

EDUCATION: About 70% of the rural population attends primary school, but less than 2% go on to secondary school, (1970 Census). The attendance rate is poorer for the rural population than the urban. There is a 70% attendance record in the rural areas compared to 80% in urban schools.

INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT: A recent study stated that incomes for farmers owning less than five acres ranged from \$400 to \$1,500 per year.^{4/} About 45% of the rural population worked on small farms in 1969.

Sugar workers on large estates and Co-ops now have a median income of \$2,500 per year. However, sugar workers who do not receive union benefits, and those working on small farms and estates probably earn well below the median income of approximately \$1,350 per household per year.

Income in rural areas is irregular. Small farmers who are earning subsistence are dependent upon uncertain rainfall and market conditions. Sugar workers usually work 7 months of the year on the estates. During the off season, those that are unionized received at least 50%

^{4/} Ibid.

of the minimum wages. Those that are not unionized must seek other income. Many farm or hold other jobs. Among the sugar population, 47% are in skilled factory-related jobs - 60% of sugar workers are field laborers.

**PRINCIPAL
COMMUNITY**

INSTITUTIONS: The rural population varies regarding its access to population centers and therefore, its contact with community institutions. Churches, schools, agricultural societies and shops are the primary activity centers in small towns. Churches and schools are particularly important to virtually all rural Jamaicans.

Community leadership corresponds closely to the importance of community institutions. Ministers, entrepreneurs and white collar workers such as teachers are the primary community leadership. Elders in churches and officials of national associations have prestige. Farmers with large holdings, wealth and education are also looked to for leadership.

**SOCIAL ATTITUDES,
STRUCTURE,**

VALUES: **Family Structure** - the family is important in the rural

community. Part of the reason for its importance is that most rural areas are not dense, nucleated settlements. On the farm parents and children work together in the fields. Children play together rather than with neighbors and are thus more shy and dependent than their urban counterparts.

Teenage pregnancy is a problem in rural as well as urban areas, and rural females are likely to participate in unstable visiting relationships when young. Societal norms

toward stable relationships seem to be stronger in the rural areas, however. Common-law relationships are more stable and marriage more common than in urban areas.

A study of rural family patterns done by Patricia Desai, et al, seems to support this presumption. Fifty percent of the children sampled in a rural community were in the care of both parents at age five. The study also highlighted the importance of the grandmother in the rural family. She often takes care of children when the mother has to be away because of employment. In the town sampled, many women spent part of the year in Kingston working.

Families in rural areas tend to be larger than in urban settings. Many women believe that they have to have their full number of children or they will become ill. Most rural men are also opposed to birth control.

Families place a high value on education and most attempt to keep their children in school for a time. However, children help during the harvest and others find it difficult to attend regularly. The absentee rate for rural children is 30%. They do tend to go to school, however, irregularly, in the primary grades.

While sugar workers in the past reflected more unstable family characteristics because of the seasonal migratory nature of their employment, this pattern has changed. Today, sugar workers usually live on or near the estate where they work, and family patterns resemble more closely the rest of the rural society.

SOCIAL

INTERACTION: In rural Jamaica social interaction outside the family is less frequent and less necessary than among the urban population. Rural dwellers are not inclined to share except when necessary. They prefer their own house and farm, independent of their neighbors. A study of the rural village of Elderslie found a reluctance among people to share personal matters with neighbors. There seems to be a desire to be physically and emotionally independent in rural society.

ATTITUDES TOWARD HOUSING:

Housing is a high priority to the rural population as it is to most Jamaicans. There is a sense of pride and identity in the house which is kept spotless. Many aspire to a block and steel house. However, farmers are not accustomed to borrowing money to build their house. Usually, their experience with credit is limited to furniture purchases on time. Farmers build their own houses to minimize cost. They often build a small, one room, wooden structure and add on to it incrementally as funds become available.

Income inadequacy and instability are the primary reasons for avoiding credit. Crop failures and seasonal variations can have a severe impact on a farmer's ability to pay regularly on a loan. There is less fear of borrowing from the government than from a private institution, because they believe the government is unlikely to foreclose.

Among the sugar population there is much more willingness to borrow, because income is more regular and on average, is more adequate.

CONCLUSIONS REGARDING HOUSING ATTITUDES

Housing is a priority for all Jamaicans. Even for the lowest income people, a house provides a sense of security and identity for the family. Homes are clean and neat and are a source of pride to their occupants.

A recent study has shown that 94% of Jamaicans want to own their own homes of block and steel with a yard. This is an aspiration toward privacy and self-containment. Jamaicans do not like to share facilities and they do not like to live five to a room.

Despite the fact that most Jamaicans aspire to more, there are many strengths in their existing communities. In Drewsland, for instance, over 90% wanted to stay in the community if it were up-graded. The ties of kin and friendship are important in low income areas and should be preserved when possible. The social function of the yard is valuable and is a situation one should work within rather than destroy.

The two outstanding characteristics of the low income population are their adaptability and proficiency at self-help. Given over-crowding and a lack of facilities, people have learned to share. Given a lack of day care and the necessity of working, responsibilities for children are shared and informal day care provided. For people with such income instability and poverty that any housing cost is too large, squatting has provided an alternative. Although both rural and urban dwellers prefer block and steel, they adapt to wood. Because of an inability or aversion to borrowing money to have a house built, they build it themselves.

B. INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Disposable national income in Jamaica was J\$2,447.3 million in 1976 (up 2 percent from 1975). In per capita terms this translates to J\$1,180.50 for 1976. (See Appendix II B-1).

On a household basis, national disposable income for the employed population rose from J\$1,630.20 in 1975 to J\$1,652.70 in 1976.

The Department of Statistics of the Government of Jamaica has not determined a median personal or household income for the total population. After several discussions with staff members of that Department, however, the shelter team has estimated that the median household income for the island is about J\$1,500. They also estimate that median income for households in urban areas is about J\$1,700, and in rural areas is J\$1,350.

Several factors suggest that income data, estimated or published, be reviewed with caution, because for the reasons suggested below, definitive data are lacking:

- Due to extremely low response rate, no official reports on income data were published in the most recent census;
- Income reporting is typically low (i.e., earned income is underreported);
- No value is imputed to food grown for domestic consumption, (Food accounts for about 33% of personal consumption expenditures); and
- Supplementary income and income from informal activities are not recorded.

In addition the individuals classified as unemployed or non-labor force members have sources of income. Jobs in the informal sector and remittances from kin abroad provide some income.

In terms of consumption expenditures, per capita consumption was J\$932.30 in 1976 (up 10%). On average 12.5 percent of household consumption expenditures went for rent, utilities and fuel in 1976. In 1975, 11.0 percent of household consumption expenditures went to this category.

TENEMENT FAMILY INCOME

Based on the 1975 survey, median household income in Central Kingston was \$20 per week or \$1,040 per year. (See Appendix II B-2). The income in the area has increased substantially, since that time. The minimum wage of \$4 per day or \$20 per week went into effect in late 1975. This has especially affected those people in the \$1-20 per week range. It has also had some impact on those who were earning just over \$20 per week. In addition, because of the Central Kingston construction program and the utilization of Impact Workers on its staff, the unemployment rate has decreased somewhat from the 47% level in 1975. For these reasons, the Urban Upgrading Project staff estimates that individual income has increased an average of \$5 per week. Household income has been found to be 40% higher than individual income by Dr. O. Patterson in his 1972 study of the low income population in Kingston. Therefore household income is estimated to have increased by \$7.00 per week. Therefore, median household income in the area is estimated to be \$27.00 per week or \$1,400 per year.

While there have been no detailed studies of the tenement situation in other cities, Dr. Patterson believes that the income picture in those areas is probably quite similar. The median household income in tenement areas is thus substantially below the median household income of \$1,700 for the urban areas of Jamaica.

SQUATTER INCOME

Appendix IIA-2, shows income data for squatter areas considered typical by Professor Patterson. This table indicates that almost half (45%) of the heads of household were unemployed. Applying factors determined by Professor Patterson in his 1972 study of low income population, would result in a determination of \$6.00 per week for the unemployed (20% of the income of the employed). In the same study Professor Patterson found a relationship of household income to income of head of the household of 1.4. Using this relationship results in a weighted income for all households of \$25.82 per week. Assuming a normal distribution of incomes for the employed and the unemployed, the weighted average of \$25.82 per week or \$1,343 per year may be accepted as the median income for the squatter areas reviewed. Additional unreported income could bring this to \$29.00 per week or \$1,500 per year. Representatives of the Ministry of Housing consider these averages as very typical for most squatter areas, including Montego Bay, May Pen, and Port Antonio. Thus, the median income for squatter areas in Jamaica can be assumed to be at least twenty percent below the median household income for urban areas in Jamaica of \$1,700.

RURAL INCOMES

Of the 231,000 rural housing units identified in the 1970 Census, 151,000 or 65 percent were on very small acreage, less than five acres and actually averaging 1.5 acres. Farmers owning less than five acres have incomes ranging from J\$400 to J\$1500, with the median for the farmers with small acreage probably below J\$1,000^{5/}. The Department of Statistics believes that the median income of all rural households is about J\$1,350, reflecting higher incomes of the unionized sugar workers.

5/ Ibid.

PERSONAL CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURES:

There are no reliable data published on the personal consumption expenditures of the low income population. However, Orlando Patterson's 1972 study of the low income population in Kingston found that tenement families pay 14.5% of their income on rent. Most squatters, of course, do not pay rent. 77% of the rural population and an even higher percentage of the rural small farm population are owner occupants. Regular monthly expenditures for housing, then, among these latter two groups, are minimal.

III. DIMENSIONS OF THE SHELTER PROBLEM

A. POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS AND TRENDS

1. NATIONAL TOTALS

The total population of Jamaica in 1975 was estimated to be slightly in excess of 2 million people (2,050,300). This represents a net increment of approximately 199,000 persons since the 1970 census.

Over the past three decades (1943-1975) the island has experienced an annual rate of population increase of approximately 1.5%. This compares quite favorably in relationship to the Caribbean average of 2.2%. The lower rate of population growth is attributed principally to the continued downward swing in the rate of natural increase (births minus deaths) to a level of 26.1 per thousand in 1969. The rate of emigration within the past 5 years has played a lesser role in the country's overall population growth process. Net emigration has dramatically dropped from a high of 29-39,000 per year in the early 1960's to an annual average of 20,970 in 1975 because of more restrictive immigration policies and practices in the United States and Canada.

According to the census of 1970, for every 100 adults (aged 15 to 59) there were 101 children (under 15 years) and 19 elderly persons (60 and over). Households averaged 4.4 persons, including 2.4 adults.

2. REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION

Historically and even at present, to a lesser degree, Jamaica's population remains largely settled in rural areas. The relative distribution of population between rural/urban is reflected in Appendix III A1 for the period 1943-1970. In the context of this table the term 'urban' is defined as a place having a population of 5,000 or more and meeting certain minimum criteria of available services. The Census defines rural as towns with less than 2500 population. Analysis of these figures makes it clearly evident that the process of urbanization is occurring at a rapid rate in Jamaica. In 1943 approximately 19.2 percent of the population was urban whereas in 1970 it jumped to 40.6 percent. It is believed that this trend has been somewhat arrested in the period 1970-1977 because of Jamaica's economic depression and subsequent high unemployment rates in urban areas. However, the National Planning Agency has projected that the anticipated population growth in the next twenty years (a national total of 2,671,800 or a population increase of approximately 770,000) will be totally settled in urban areas and growth in rural areas will remain virtually unchanged.

In spite of its rapid urbanization, Jamaica's present settlement pattern still reflects the strong rural orientation associated with its background of plantations and small farms, agricultural production and natural resource extraction, and the import/export activities centered along the coast. The most significant aspect of the country's spatial growth pattern is the dominance that the Kingston and St. Andrew urban complex plays. It is the primary center, containing an estimated population which represents 90% of Jamaica's urban population, or 27% of the total population (510,000). The land area encompassed by the Kingston Metropolitan Area is twelve times the size of the next largest urban center - Montego Bay. If current trends continue over the next twenty

years (1990), the Kingston - St. Andrew Metropolitan Area is projected to house 50% of the island's total population.

The second characteristic of Jamaica's physical settlement pattern is that all the larger towns are capitals of parishes and, with the exception of Mandeville and Spanish Town, are located on the coast. In addition there are some 1,150 towns and villages dispersed through the island. The majority of these smaller settlements are located geographically in a wide belt sweeping southward from Port Maria (North Coast) to the Black River (South Coast).

Historically, the island's only large urban areas in 1943 consisted of Kingston - St. Andrew, Port Antonio (Portland), Montego Bay (St. James) and Spanish Town (St. Catherine). By 1960, the number of urban areas had grown considerably in number to include most parish centers.

B. HOUSING PRACTICES

1. TYPES OF SHELTER

Ownership is the predominant form of tenure in Jamaica.

Fifty-two percent of the population own their place of residence. Ownership is consistent with the general preference of the people for an individual, single-story, detached house. In rural areas, residents tend to occupy their own houses. Rental and leasing arrangements are more common in urban areas, with rental units running as high as 90 percent of the total of all dwelling units in the tenement yards of Kingston, Montego Bay, and Spanish Town. For the great majority of the population, housing is significantly substandard in the provision of water, power, kitchen and sanitary facilities.

There is a widespread desire for privacy and self-containment, which at this time is not realistic in relation to affordable housing. However, because the average household size is over four persons, overcrowding is a major problem in existing housing when no more than one or two rooms houses a family. There is a lack of the basic amenities, such as toilet facilities, adequate interior space, water or shelter. In Jamaica as a whole, 41% of all dwelling units require that households share toilet facilities, and in the Kingston - St. Andrew's area, 52% must share toilet facilities. In fact, in yards and tenements, where there are seven persons per toilet, shared pit latrines are common. Twenty-six percent of these households have no, or defective, sanitary facilities. The acute discomforts of such conditions have contributed to an exodus to squatter communities around existing cities and towns. Housing for the entire Island is usually of concrete or wood.

The general preference, across all socio-economic classes,

is for a house of concrete block and steel.

Currently, the private sector is not in a position to build such housing for poor families. In fact, it cannot build any house which could sell below \$10,000, a level far above the income potential needed to amortize a mortgage, for the great majority of the population. With the median income per household estimated at \$1500 in 1977, housing which costs over \$5,000 is beyond the reach of more than one-half of the households of Jamaica.

Even in the public sector, Government housing projects, which are not capable of keeping up with the demand, are currently constructing houses with a market price in excess of \$10,000. (See Appendix III B1). Public sector housing involves a wide range of construction types, including conventional reinforced concrete block construction, precast concrete construction (post and beam, large panel and small panel), steel stud and sprayed cement plaster, steel frame and ferrocrete walls, timber post and beam, as well as other methods.

These construction techniques are basically capital intensive, and require considerable input of imported construction material. The foreign component of construction, which was probably well over fifty percent as recently as two years ago, has had to be cut back drastically, as part of the total cut in imports. The cutback has resulted in higher prices and a significant reduction in construction.

Given Jamaica's current foreign exchange problem, and its high rate of unemployment and underemployment, the current level of prices, and the critical need for housing, especially at the lower economic levels of the society, the Government has moved to:

1. Reduce the foreign content of building materials;
2. Stress labor-intensive methods of construction; and

3. provide self-help solutions where only basic infrastructure is provided, or a core house, which can be expanded; and
4. emphasize the upgrading of tenement slums in urban areas.

2. COMPONENTS AND COSTS: LAND, LABOR, AND MATERIALS

During the period 1970 - 1975 the cost of housing in Jamaica increased almost 100%. Rents increased 106%, while other expenses related to housing (taxes, insurance, mortgage rates, etc.) increased by 80%, and total housing sector costs by 95%. During this period the index for all consumer items increased by 97%.^{1/}

LAND COSTS

Land costs for housing in the urban areas is high in relation to income except at the higher economic levels of the society, and constitutes about 10% of total cost of housing in the private sector. Land costs are comparable to land costs in similar urban locations in the United States, and the total price of housing provided at the higher economic levels by the private sector, is comparable to housing prices for similar size units in Washington, D.C. metropolitan area. This is true, in spite of the fact that heating, cooling, and the building implications of freezing and thawing are not a serious consideration. Development costs are high, though in line with other housing costs. The cost of professional services, a significant part of development costs in the private sector, are somewhat higher than similar costs in the United States.

LAND-LEASE TERMS

For squatter lands, however, the Ministry of Housing places a value of 50 cents a square foot on squatter land for lease to occupants.

The term of the land lease is 49 years. For the first five years the lease holder cannot sell his lease. After five years he may do so subject to the approval of the Ministry of Housing. The may bequeath his land lease to his heirs.

Currently, the monthly payment on the land-lease is a maximum of \$10 which includes a portion of the capital cost of improving the lots. The \$10 is subject to increases under the terms of the lease agreement.

^{1/} A Study of Housing in Jamaica, p. 9

CONSTRUCTION COSTS

Construction costs are extremely high, and constitute about 40% to 50% of the final sale price of housing. However, while the material component of construction is actually higher than in the United States, the labor component basically involves construction workers earning from \$6.00 to \$20.00 per day. The cost of both materials and labor have risen sharply in recent years (See Appendices III B-1, 2 and 3).

Clearly, the material component is the most critical problem at this time, given the restrictions on foreign imports and the extremely high foreign component in building materials used.^{2/} Although cement is produced in Jamaica, it is estimated that the foreign component of a bag of cement is 60%, with 40% of the cost attributable to fuel. Steel, plaster and plasterboard, doors, hardware and fixtures are either imported, or a major portion of the materials involved in their manufacture or assembly are imported. The Government's restriction on foreign imports is aimed at developing labor-intensive methods of construction, utilizing local materials. Particular emphasis is being placed on the upgrading of urban areas where basic infrastructure is in place, and the existing housing can be improved, primarily by labor intensive effort involving comparatively little building materials.

^{2/} National Income Account, for the period 1974-1976 - details on p. of this study.

3. HOUSING STOCK

Housing stock in Jamaica has not kept pace with urban growth. For example, while population in the K.S.A.C. increased by 31% between 1960 and 1970, the number of dwelling units increased by only 15%.^{3/} In the same period the number of persons per dwelling unit increased from 3.7 to 4.2.^{4/} During the same period, all of Jamaica experienced an increase in overcrowding, with the number of persons per dwelling increasing from 4.0 to 4.4.

Shelter in Jamaica is as crowded in character, size, construction and location, as anywhere in the world. Furthermore, for the vast majority of the population, both in urban and rural areas, existing housing, and when attainable, new construction, is very modest, by any standard. For this large segment of the population, most existing housing is substandard by any definition. The census data discussed above for the period 1960 to 1970 indicates that most additional units were rooms, flats and tenements. It is therefore reasonable to assume that there was considerable conversion of houses to multi-family use in order to meet demand. This suggests a decrease in the floor area per household. The gap between the provision of new housing and the growth of population has increased overcrowding to the point that over 50% of all households are living in one room.

As far back as 1967, a survey by the Government showed that in one part of Kingston, which had deteriorated, the population density was 97,000 per square mile in an area of almost all single structures.^{5/} Of the households surveyed, over 60% either depended on public standpipes or had no regular access to piped water, and only 4.2% had access to flush toilets.

^{3/} Population Trends and Housing Needs, Jamaica Dept. of Statistics, 1974 p.11
^{4/} Ibid. p. 12
^{5/} U.N. Special Fund Project, 1971 - A National Physical Plan for Jamaica, 1970 - 1990

The National Physical Plan in 1970 found that the shortage of housing had not only affected the lower-income group; middle-income families as well, were finding it increasingly difficult to get accommodations because of high rents and prices of new housing, as well as the effect of widespread speculation in land and housing which forced prices higher.

The housing situation in Jamaica has not changed for the better, significantly, over the past ten years. The present housing shortage, rising prices, and the uneven distribution of household income excludes the majority of the population from the ability to purchase even the cheapest of new housing. Specific information is lacking on the number and quality of present housing stock and on the number of houses being constructed in the private sector. However, between 1975 and 1980, the increase in population is estimated to approach 195,000, which at an average household size of 4.0 persons per household, would require 49,000 dwellings or 9700 per year. In addition, a United Nations Study indicated in 1971, that between 1% and 5% of the existing stock will have to be replaced each year; at one percent, the requirement for replacement would be over 5,000 dwellings per year. Therefore, based on new household formation and obsolescence, the need for additional housing, or upgrading of existing housing is estimated at 236,000 dwelling units for the period 1975-1990, or approximately 15,500 units per year.

The following data compares the existing physical characteristics of households in urban areas of over 5,000 population to rural

areas: ^{6/}	<u>Urban</u>	<u>Rural</u>
Persons per room	1.6	1.9
Rooms per dwelling unit	2.5	2.7
Concrete construction	60%	25%
Wood construction	30%	50%
Wattle construction	1%	15%

^{6/} Ibid.

4. PUBLIC INFRASTRUCTURE, FACILITIES AND SERVICES

WATER

Three administrative authorities in Jamaica are responsible for the public supply and distribution of water throughout the island. The National Water Authority (NWA), a statutory corporation established in 1963 and now located within the Ministry of Local Government, carries out the planning and development of water supplies for the rural parishes. The Kingston Metropolitan Area's water supply and distribution system is under the control of the Water Commission and the Kingston and St. Andrew Corporation (K.S.A.C.). The Water Commission services the city of Kingston as well as abutting urban areas in the parish of St. Andrew. The production and distribution of water in the rural portions of St. Andrew's parish is met by the K.S.A.C. The Parish Councils operate basically as distributors of the bulk water furnished by NWA, collecting user fees, maintaining the distribution system, extending service into new areas, and constructing small scale improvements.

The island's water supply problem is best described as one not so much of insufficient supply as of conservation, development and distribution in terms of when and where it is needed.

Sources of water supply vary widely throughout the island. The largest collection system is operated by the Water Commission in meeting the needs of the Kingston and St. Andrew Metropolitan Area. Water is drawn from a number of sources, including the Hermitage Dam on the Wag Water River, intakes on the Hope River, and wells in the Liguanea Plain. Outside major urban areas, the primary sources of water supply are often small concrete hillside catchments, springs, and bored wells

which feed into public storage facilities. Roof catchments and cisterns are also utilized in some areas as well as individual wells. The provision of public water supply in rural areas is limited to larger settlements and nearby towns and villages, and also to selected areas along roads where distribution lines have been extended and road-standpipes installed. Many households which are scattered on farmsteads must hand-carry their water a considerable distance from rivers, springs, or standpipes, because of their relative isolation and the prohibitive costs of extending water lines to these areas.

In general, the quality of water in Jamaica is very good at the source, but the potential for contamination increases significantly depending on the mode and distance of the transport from a public supply source. The Division of Environmental Control within the Ministry of Health estimates that of the 1,200 rural water supplies approximately 51% are treated in some form. The untreated water supplies are judged to be of reasonably good quality. The National Water Authority does maintain and operate a water quality laboratory in Montego Bay. As a joint effort between the Authority and the parishes, water samples are taken weekly to the laboratory for bacteriological and chemical analyses.

A number of water related problems exist throughout Jamaica. Some of the most significant ones are identified as follows:

1. A major imbalance exists between the concentration of populations, especially in the Kingston and St. Andrew metropolitan area, and the distribution of rainfall over the island. While parts of island experience rainfall in excess of 200 inches per year, the Kingston area receives an annual average rainfall of less than 50 inches. With this limited amount of rainfall, it must serve over 40% of the island's population. To bring the supply

(source of water) to where the greatest demand exists, will require an elaborate and costly collection and distribution system extending from the north side of the Blue Mountains to Kingston.

2. The demand for water is rapidly outstripping the government's ability to provide service. Much of the problem of water supply demand and distribution is attributed to rapid population growth and urbanization. In addition to domestic needs, the demands imposed by the growth and development in the industrial and agricultural sectors are compounding the problem. Periodic and chronic water shortages in rural as well as urban centers are not uncommon. Identified areas with supply and/or distribution problems are: Spanish Town, May Pen, Mandeville, Black River, Savanna-la-Mar, the south-eastern part of St. Catherine parish and the downtown area of Kingston.
3. In selected areas such as the Clarendon Plains and St. Catherine Plains, excessive withdrawal of ground water poses a problem from the potential intrusion of sea-water into the aquifer. Already some wells have been closed in the southern area of the Clarendon Plains, and the safe yield has probably been reached for both areas.
4. The geological limestone formation underlying much of Jamaica is characterized by its underground caverns and fractured nature. Under normal conditions the quality of this water may not necessitate much, if any, treatment for domestic use. However, the potential for pollution of underground water supplies is increased greatly by the proliferation of septic tank and absorption sewage systems, as well as industrial and bauxite discharges.

5. The lack of established effluent standards, a comprehensive water quality monitoring and evaluation system, and enforcement powers to regulate the location and quality of domestic and industrial effluent discharges into the country's streams, rivers and coastal waters poses a potentially major health hazard in the future.
6. The cost of water production and distribution is excessively high. The prevailing pattern of urban growth is becoming increasingly scattered at low densities. To service this type of development pattern requires extension of water distribution mains long distances at high energy, material, and operating costs to serve relatively small number of people.
7. The administrative responsibility for the planning, production and distribution of water is diffused among numerous governmental agencies.

It is the responsibility of private developers and governmental agencies to incur all costs associated with the extension and construction of water transmission mains to project sites. There is no pro-rata sharing or reimbursement of these costs from any of the identified water agencies. However, where upgrading of existing water service is judged necessary, the Water Commission indicated a willingness to assume these costs whereas the National Water Authority felt a policy determination would have to be made in this area.

SEWAGE

Within the Kingston Metropolitan area, the responsibility for sewage collection and treatment is jointly shared by the Water Commission (WC) and the Kingston and St. Andrew Corporation (K.S.A.C.). Outside the metropolitan area, the National Water Authority (NWA) assumes responsibility of all sewage matters. At present, the construction and operation of public sanitary sewage facilities is limited in Jamaica to portions of the Urban areas in Kingston and Montego Bay.

In Kingston, the Water Commission has two primary treatment plants (Greenwich and Western) which have a combined design capacity of roughly 15 mgd. Present sewage flows range between 6-8 mgd. Treated effluent is discharged into Kingston Harbour which is experiencing serious water quality problems. Kingston's sewage collection system serves only a limited geographic area - the central water front and commercial area, and some newer residential areas. The major portion of the metropolitan area depends upon individual disposal systems. The existing collection system is planned for expansion with the financial assistance of the World Bank (15 million loan). Extensions of the sanitary collection - systems are planned for two problem areas - the lower west area is subject to a high water table and the Upper Central Area is experiencing ground-water pollution problems in wells used by the WC in servicing Kingston's water needs. Montego Bay's system has been recently expanded and the level of treatment is secondary. In addition to these larger facilities, the NWA operates and maintains small scale package treatment plants in Negril, May Pen, and Spanish Town. These were built by private developers and turned over to the NWA. The level of the treated wastewater from these plants is secondary. The NWA has proposed to replace individual systems and construct new wastewater collection and

treatment facilities in Mandeville, St. Ann's Bay and Ocho Rios. Financing has been requested from the Inter-American Development Bank.

Outside of the above mentioned urban centers which are partially served by a public sanitary sewage system the vast majority of the island's population use various forms of individual disposal systems. Some of the more common systems found in use include (1) absorption pits; (2) pit latrines or privies; and (3) septic tanks and absorption pits. In a few cases water-borne systems may be found, including oxidation ponds and extended aeration systems. The adequacy of these systems to handle the sanitary waste needs of Jamaica's rural population is difficult to judge because of the lack of health data and range of factors contributing to the potential failure of these systems. However, it should be noted that Jamaicans appear to be highly conscious of the potential for communicable diseases to be transmitted through the improper handling of human waste. Domestic, sanitary facilities used by one or numerous families (tenements) are usually well maintained and kept extremely clean. This is reinforced by strong personal hygiene habits.

The chief areas of concern therefore are:

1. The constraint of financial and material resources which has prevented comprehensive planning and construction of sewage systems in areas of high density concentration is a serious problem. The need exists to focus Jamaica's limited resources in those areas of immediate critical need and to plan carefully for the areas in which future investments would be best directed. Towards this end close co-ordination between existing agencies in the water sewage fields, or their merger into a national agency, is important to Jamaica's short and long-term interest;

2. The subdivision and development of raw land for residential commercial and industrial uses should be more carefully controlled to avoid construction in areas which are unacceptable for use of land disposal systems; and
3. The May Pen area is experiencing failing individual disposal systems because of a hardpan or clay formation which underlies the ground surface. Therefore, any housing activities (new construction and/or upgrading) should investigate this potential constraint.

ELECTRICITY

In 1970 less than 100,000 residential customers, about one-fifth of the total population of Jamaica, were being provided with electrical service. In 1977, about 180,000 residential customers were being served/

TELEPHONES

The island has had telephone service for almost ninety years. In 1970, over 70,000 telephones were in operation, of which 24,000 were residential. About 80% of the telephones were located in the two largest urban areas (72% in Kingston, and 8% in Montego Bay), with the remainder distributed among some 40 towns, many of which contained only a single phone. Demand is currently estimated at over twice the available service.

ROADS

The total road network of Jamaica in 1970 was estimated at 7000 miles. The main road network totaled 2700 miles, of which approximately 1300 miles are paved.

PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION

Currently there is one major bus line, Jamaica Omnibus Service (JOS), operating in the Corporate Area. Its operating fleet of about 400 buses is supplemented by some small independent bus operators who are franchised to serve particular routes. (For example, there is a private bus company

which operates on the road between Spanish Town and Kingston). There is a small bus company operating in Montego Bay, the Montego Bay Omnibus. There are also some small rural bus operators franchised for specific routes elsewhere in the island.

The Jamaica Railway Corporation is primarily a freight carrier; its small volume of passenger traffic has been described as composed largely of school children and higglers. In an effort to upgrade the passenger service, and attract tourist trade, a dozen new passenger coaches have been ordered.

IV. HOUSING DELIVERY SYSTEM: PRODUCTION AND FINANCE

A. PUBLIC SECTOR ACTIVITIES

1. REVIEW OF INSTITUTIONAL HISTORY AND PRODUCTION

Housing in Jamaica now represents approximately 70% of total construction dollars for the country.^{1/} Approximately 45,000 of the total employees in Jamaica, are employed in construction. During the current economic recession, the construction sector's share of the Gross Domestic Product declined sharply from \$329.2 million in 1971 to \$241.7 million in 1975, a drop from 15.7 percent to 11 percent. However, annual earnings per worker in construction rose from \$3500 to over \$5500 per year in the same period.^{2/}

The public sector is currently delivering an estimated 2500 dwelling units of all types a year, with somewhat less than half of these in the Kingston Metropolitan Area. Data are not available on the current rate of delivery in the private sector.

Available data on new mortgages placed in Jamaica between 1971 and 1975 give an overall indication of the quantity of construction in Jamaica and recent trends; throughout the island, the level of activity had dropped about 30% since 1972.

Accurate data on the numbers and types of dwelling units currently being delivered are not available. However, the following overall percentage breakdown for housing delivery provides a useful perspective.^{3/}

1/ A Study of Housing in Jamaica, p. 1

2/ Ibid., p. 2

3/ Ibid., p. 5

<u>Supplier</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>
A. Public Sector	
1. Ministry of Housing	
a. Government Housing Schemes	42
b. Joint Venture Projects	11
2. National Housing Corporation	3
3. Urban Development Corporation	<u>2</u>
	58
B. Housing Cooperatives	6
C. Private Sector	<u>36</u>
TOTAL	100

2. CURRENT AND PLANNED OBJECTIVES

Government housing, including apartments, row housing, detached dwellings, as well as farm housing, slum clearance and resettlement, the World Bank financed 'sites and services program' and the U.S. AID assisted projects, accounts for over seventy-five percent of all housing currently under construction in Jamaica.

The 1975 Ministry of Housing Development Plan calls for the building of a total of 27,000 units over five years to meet demand expected in the \$1500 to \$5000 income range. Of the total 61 percent will be for incomes between \$1500 to \$2500; 27 percent will be for incomes between \$2500 and \$3500 and 12 percent will be for incomes between \$3500 and \$5000.^{4/}

Based on the Development Plan for 1975 to 1980, the Ministry of Housing planned to provide for housing including infrastructure:^{5/}

- a. Financing, estimated at \$219 million

4/ Ibid., p. 5

5/ Ibid., p. 6

- b. Land necessary for development, estimated at 9,754 acres at a total cost of about \$22 million; about 5600 acres have already been acquired.
- c. Comprehensive Integrated Planning to meet land development and building design and construction needs.

The Government intends to assume a much more positive role in comprehensive planning and building, and in the implementation of standardized building systems. In addition, the Government will directly participate in the research, development, financing, and construction of housing. With Respect to new products and materials, the Government plans to establish a company to mine aggregate and manufacture building blocks, and in joint venture with the private sector, manufacture interior wall boards and ceiling tiles. Research is also being undertaken into possible use of red mud (bauxite sludge and waste) as the major raw material in the manufacture of building blocks. Feasibility studies are underway into the advantages and disadvantages of existing building systems, in order to evolve more efficient standardized building systems.

3. HOUSING STANDARDS

Existing building standards (building codes, zoning, and other applicable regulations) are basically imported British standards, modified over the years, primarily in response to the serious hurricane and earthquake potential in Jamaica. The standards are interpreted locally by the Kingston and St. Andrew Corporation/Building Department and the Parish Council/Building Departments. The Town Planning Department of the Ministry of Mining and Natural Resources along with the Parish Building Departments are the main agencies responsible for the review and approval of residential subdivision and building applications.

There is a general consensus among Government officials with whom the subject of building standards was discussed, that there is a lack of qualified staff to adequately process current applications expeditiously, and that there is considerable unnecessary overlapping of functions.

4. PROCESSING DELAYS

The private sector has also expressed particular concern about the lengthy process of review and the numerous Government agencies which share portions of the responsibility. For example, the Town Planner and the Parish Council must approve subdivisions and zoning, the National Water Authority and the municipal authorities provide water and sewer approvals, and the local Building Department approves building plans. Processing has been known to require a year before construction could begin.

Building code and zoning requirements are restrictive in that they do not permit the development of small units with shared use of facilities, and other solutions that would lower the cost of housing. Professional builders cannot deliver a standard two-bedroom unit of approximately 500 square feet at a sales price of \$10,000; an intensive review of code and zoning requirements would probably result in some discoveries of cost savings.

The relatively high standards have been virtually ignored over the years in the conversion of urban housing to tenement yards and in the development of squatter communities, resulting in actual as well as potentially serious safety and health problems. Under the circumstances, existing standards should be modified or minimum urban upgrading housing guidelines (objectives) should be established to guide the planning and design for the upgrading of existing slum housing to meet minimum health and safety needs.

B. PRIVATE SECTOR INSTITUTIONS - FINANCE

The availability of mortgage money plays a crucial role in the demand for housing. During the first six months of 1976, new mortgage loans registered with the Office of the Registrar of Titles, amounted to \$23.9 million, down from a similar period in 1975 by 12 percent. (See Appendix IV B1).

The decrease registered was due mainly to the significant decline of new mortgages registered through finance companies and merchant banks. For example, while Building Societies, the most active institutions in the mortgage market had 40% of that market in the quarter ending June 1976, up from 32% in March 1975, the actual mortgage volume for that period declined by over \$2 million. An examination of the percentage distribution of new mortgages by size groupings for the first two quarters of 1975 and 1976 shows that new mortgages under \$30,000 increased at the expense of mortgages \$30,000 and over. (See Appendix IV B2).

The noticeable shift in the pattern of lending by various mortgage institutions may be due to many local factors, including the government's economic policy of encouraging low cost housing (See Appendix IV B3).

Information on home improvement loans is typically less well documented. First arises the question of definition as to what constitutes a home improvement. Second there are wide ranges in the value of the loans. Third, several different financial instruments are suitable for financing home improvements.

The data on home improvement loans are not broken out; instead,

home purchases and improvements constitute one category. Financing for home purchases make up the bulk of the category and so fluctuations in the financing of improvements are difficult to ascertain. (See Appendix IV B4).

Several private financial institutions have expressed a willingness to become involved in financing home improvement loans for low-income housing. The Building Societies, the Credit Union League, and the Worker's Bank, are interested in supplying these loans.

CREDIT UNIONS

The Credit Union Movement is well established in Jamaica. At the end of 1976, there were 103 credit unions in the Island, with a membership of 96,000, with a rural membership comprising about 40% of this total. There are credit unions in every parish; in some rural areas, no other source of financing is available, since the population is too poor and too scattered to interest a profit-oriented institution. By law credit unions are limited to an interest of 12% in Jamaica.

All of the local credit unions are members of the Jamaican Cooperative Credit Union League Ltd., an umbrella organization, set up for mutual communication and information, and to provide joint services to the member unions. As of June 1, 1977, the combined assets of the credit unions totalled over J\$48 million, of which J\$13 million represented rural credit unions. The delinquency rate of the credit unions is about 5%. The League has recently set up a mortgage fund, separately financed.

The Credit Union leaders have, in addition, expressed keen interest in participating in any program of loans for home improvement for low-income families, as an undertaking which would be entirely in accord with credit union principles.

BUILDING SOCIETIES

The Building Societies are essentially analogous to the Savings and Loan Associations in the United States. Historically, they have been the major source of mortgage financing. Their lending policies are conservative, their maximum loans being normally limited to 66% of appraised value. In June, 1976, they provided almost 40% of all mortgage money (See Appendix IV B-1).

WORKERS BANK

The Workers Bank is a commercial bank, entirely Jamaican-owned; the Government, Trade Unions and the public all own shares. The Workers Bank is the fifth largest bank in Jamaica with assets of over \$50 Million.

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES

The Government of Jamaica has authorized life insurance companies to invest their legal reserves in housing. In June, 1976, life insurance companies funded over 8% of the total dollar volume of mortgages.

INFORMAL LENDING

In the informal lending sector, lending practices and activities are almost impossible to follow. The "partner" system is one example of this: a group of individuals, usually less than ten, regularly contributes a specified sum. This contribution, often weekly, is small, so the size of the total collection is also small. At regular intervals, each contributing member is given the total collection. For example, if five members participate in the system by contributing a dollar weekly, every week, one member would be awarded the collection and so any one member is sure of getting the total collection every fifth week. It is possible that the size of the group and the contribution is sufficiently large so that upon receipt of the collection a member could purchase building materials for home improvements, but these improvements would be minor.

There is some indication of non-institutional financing of home improvements by private lenders at high interest rates. Data on such practices, however, are unavailable.

C. PRIVATE SECTOR INSTITUTIONS -- CONSTRUCTION

1. AVAILABILITY OF PROFESSIONALS AND SKILLED LABOR

While there is an overabundance of unskilled labor in Jamaica, supervisory personnel are in short supply. In 1975, the construction unions in Jamaica concluded a labor agreement (see Appendix III B3) which had an inflationary effect because of the relative increase in labor costs. Critical, however, to the development of an integrated responsible housing delivery system are the skilled and supervisory personnel necessary for the effective organization, direction and training of the labor component of construction.

Carpentry, masonry, and steelwork skills have developed through the years in Jamaica; however, the productivity is at a low level.

One of the principal reasons for low productivity of local artisans is that skills are principally developed by apprenticeships, and no organized training program exists to train new workers or to improve the skills of existing workers.

2. AVAILABILITY OF CONSTRUCTION CAPITAL

Financing for private sector construction fell to J\$10.1 million, in June 1977 (down 44% from September 1976)^{6/} The decline in funding, while in some part attributable to a decline in the rate of savings, was apparently due in large part to the uncertainty of the private sector as to their future role in the economy.^{7/}

6/ National Savings Review, Vol. 5 (1)

7/ Monetary Statistics, 1976, Department of Statistics, Jamaica

3. AVAILABILITY AND DEPENDABILITY OF MATERIAL SUPPLY

Building materials are currently in very short supply.

The foreign component of all building materials has been well over 50% in recent years in spite of the fact that most components of housing construction are manufactured or assembled locally.^{8/} In view of current foreign import components are down to 37% of 1975 levels and in some specific items such as hardware, 10% or less. The Government's restriction on foreign imports, while aimed primarily at redressing a severe imbalance of payments problem, has a secondary aim of developing the use of local materials. However, except for the abundance of clay, other possible materials are not available in sufficient quantity at this time. Even clay brick and pipe, which are no longer extensively used, but were manufactured in Jamaica for centuries are no longer available in large quantities because of the limited manufacturing facilities at this time. PVC pipe, which was manufactured here in what was described as a model plant, is dependent on foreign imports.

^{8/} The National Income Account for the years 1974 to 1976. Details on page 98 of this study.

4. REGIONAL VARIATIONS

The most important factors influencing regional variations in building in Jamaica are, the size of the Island (less than 150 miles long and 50 miles wide at its widest point) and climatic and geographical differences which affect both housing needs and availability of local building materials. However, regional differences in production processes for housing construction are minimal. Many building materials are single source items either in terms of imports and distribution or local manufacture.

Significant costs are involved in the transportation of building materials to various parts of the Island, most of which are distributed from the predominant industrial area of the Island, extending from Kingston to Spanish Town. Transportation of materials throughout the Island to other urban centers and rural areas is basically by road. However, many roads on the Island are two-lane, and travel time averages less than twenty miles per hour.

There is an Island-wide preference for concrete block as a basic building material in housing; wood is used in substantial quantity in rural areas and in the western part of the Island.

5. CONTRACTING PRACTICES

Public sector projects are contracted for, competitively. The invitation for tenders usually incorporates the contract documents but does not include any work schedules indicating how the project is to be executed. Public sector contracts also provide for the mobilization payment consisting of a percentage of the contract sum to aid in setting up the operation, and for purchasing materials.

Major problems in construction management appear to revolve around working capital, to ensure that the contractor has enough funds at all times to move forward with the project. Delays in certifying work and subsequent delays in payment are reported as problem areas, as well as the settlement of final accounts.^{9/}

6. QUANTITY SURVEY SYSTEM

The quantity survey system of British origin, is normally used in Jamaica. This involves a set of specifications in minute detail of all material and labor costs which will be required for a given structure. Adherents of the system claim that it contributes greatly to the accuracy of cost estimates. Detractors of the system claim that the material costs set by the quantity surveyors actually become a price-fixing control.

^{9/} A Study of Housing in Jamaica, p. 139-141

V. CONSTRAINTS IN THE DELIVERY SYSTEM

A. BARRIERS TO FORMAL SHELTER DELIVERY EXPANSION

Housing programs to improve the shelter conditions of low income families face several constraints:

1. RESOURCES

In terms of supply constraints labor force data show that there is a high rate of unemployment among various skills required in the construction sector, so there is an adequate supply of labor for additional construction activity. For administrative and other technical skills, there could be shortages. A constraint that is more likely to be realized is imported material constraints. Even with a heavy reliance on local materials, and restrictions on imports, it will be difficult to keep the cost of imported materials below one-third of the total cost of construction (from 1974 to 1976 imported materials represented 56, 49, and 42 percent of total cost of construction). Given the balance of payments crisis, the acute shortage of foreign exchange reserves, and the ceiling on imports, it is likely that the required materials will be in short supply and their importation restricted.

These problems are complicated in the rural area by the existence of scattered sites and non-clustered units, where the delivery target covers a wide area.

2. TERMS OF CREDIT

The repayment of a loan involves ability to repay and willingness to repay. Dr. Patterson found in his 1972 study that low-income families expressed a willingness to pay for better housing; the inability of the private sector to provide housing below \$10,000 per house, leaves as a major constraint to the formal system, the ability of low income families to purchase housing, without some form of subsidy.

B. BARRIERS TO INFORMAL HOUSING DELIVERY EXPANSION

1. ACCESS TO CREDIT

Most low-income families have not had access to formal credit for housing. Their experience has been limited to purchasing furniture on time. There is not an extensive informal credit system in communities. People generally save money, either individually or through the partner system, and do incremental improvements to their shelter. Any housing program will have to deal with this unfamiliarity with credit. Outreach and educational programs will have to be undertaken to make people comfortable with borrowing. In addition a concerted effort must be made to emphasize the responsibility for repayment. In the past some Government schemes have not stressed repayment. Consequently, the attitude among the people has grown that a loan from the government need not be repaid. Any housing program should make use of non-governmental means for collection. Private sector institutions should be used whenever possible. The Ministry of Housing is attempting to use cooperatives for this function. This should be encouraged.

2. OTHER EXPENDITURE PRIORITIES

The poor obviously must spend a high percentage of their income for food and other necessities. Where housing costs could be minimized, they have been. One of the reasons for squatting is to eliminate rent. The primary reason for self-help is to reduce cost.

There is an attitude among the poor that they would be willing to pay more for better shelter. It is felt as a high priority; but their actual resources are limited. Therefore, housing programs should build upon the existing patterns of cost reduction so that

the additional costs to the poor are minimized. The two outstanding social characteristics that should be incorporated are adaptability and self-help.

While most Jamaicans aspire to their own house and facilities, financially it is impossible for all but a few. The poor are used to sharing, especially kitchen, water, and toilet facilities, as well as yards. This social infra-structure can be built upon. The self-help construction usually undertaken by farmers and other owner-occupants and squatters should also be utilized.

3. INCOME INSTABILITY

Income instability and income inadequacy are similar problems. Programs must minimize cost in order to make the debt burden a reasonable one for the poor. The ability of poor people with highly irregular incomes to make regular payments of 20 percent of their income may be a problem. The households indicate their willingness to make the effort; certainly the long-range solution is regular employment. Employment programs should be incorporated into housing programs whenever possible to address this need.

4. COMMUNITY CONSIDERATIONS

The pattern of deterioration in communities must also be addressed. As poor people move into an area, services are reduced, landlords and creditors disinvest and vandalism by residents becomes more common.

In an urban setting, then, it is important to have a community focus to housing programs. Community pride, identity, and investment must be encouraged among the residents. Organizing the community to participate in decisions regarding a housing program is crucial. Also, through this organization, the community can begin to insist upon the general maintenance services that are its due.

Investment also needs to be focussed in a particular area. Confidence in a community's future is the critical factor. If residents think their condition will be improved, they will police these members of the community who are destructive. Landlords and credit institutions will be more willing to reinvest in an area when they know that a comprehensive program is being implemented.

Finally, by having a community focus, the total needs of the community can be addressed. Social services are often lacking in poor communities, where they are most needed. A housing program is not enough; there is great need for adequate care of children, education, and health facilities, and recreation space and activities. If these things are not present, a "community" cannot be adequately built. The need for these services must be discussed with the residents to ensure that the programs provided meet their needs. Efforts should be made to use the existing social service resources of the government, which are comprehensive, although inadequately funded in order to minimize additional cost.

Community programs should then be structured to fill those needs and to provide a focal point in the community for social interaction and community involvement. In this way the sense of investment, participation and community pride, which is so important to the success of a housing program, will be reinforced.

C. ENVIRONMENTAL CONSTRAINTS

While a range of serious environmental problems is considered below, it is recognized that the costs involved in their solution are prohibitive for any near-term considerations. The establishment of a priority list of environmental problems that should be addressed when funds do become available may be helpful for planning purposes and are discussed within such a planning framework.

1. Lack of an official national policy dealing with the issues of population growth and the development of human settlements makes it difficult to put into a national perspective the potential implications of any one of a number of housing strategies and the geographic focus of these programs.
2. To significantly improve the quality of life and to mitigate or eliminate the worst environmental problems found in Jamaica's low-income areas necessitates the concerted and coordinated participation of numerous national ministries and local authorities to adequately address the full range of physical, social and economic problems which affect the living conditions of the target population.
3. The process of community development by its very nature requires a long-term commitment of resources to building and rebuilding both urban and rural areas. The resolution of poverty conditions rests principally with the provision of a stable job and an adequate income.

4. To effectively utilize Jamaica's limited physical and economic resources in meeting both current and future development needs, requires a change from the traditional laissez-faire policy toward more control of the location, timing, and character of urban and rural land development. If the physical growth pattern continues outward to the periphery of existing urban centers, or parallels the principal transportation arteries in rural areas, the large public investment required to service this settlement pattern will be inefficient and costly. Under the circumstances, the basic amenities associated with housing will largely remain inadequate across the Island; and

5. The maximum utilization of existing infrastructure in support of present and future population in urban areas represents an environmentally sound approach to conserve limited resources, and to benefit the largest number of persons. The inadequacy of existing infrastructure in particular, the sewage disposal system and other essential services will pose serious problems in supporting current density levels. Given desirable standards of service, the replacement of failing or inadequate systems may pose financial limitations on the capacity of the target population to upgrade their homes if these costs are to be recovered.

VI. HOUSING AND THE GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT

The dependence of the economy on foreign trade suggests some measures which should be used in achieving greater self-sufficiency. The measures should be adopted in the light of the negative foreign exchange reserves and the decreasing ability to service debt. In addition to restrictions and controls (which are costly to administer and deal only with symptoms), the Government of Jamaica, which has decided to adjust the economy to the constraints dictated by the foreign exchange situation, should attempt to develop additional capacity to earn foreign exchange. As mentioned above, labor-intensive export-oriented production may help solve several problems. Export-oriented production will increase export earnings and thus improve the balance of payments situation. A labor-intensive production process will conserve the scarce capital factor and utilize the abundant labor factors.

Construction and housing increase in residential construction are likely to have a favorable effect on the employment situation. It employs a significant portion of the economic resources of a country and contributes, through its output, the major component of fixed capital formation. In addition to increasing wealth, construction, particularly residential construction, may serve to satisfy a socially desirable goal.

Construction activity is usually divided into two sections: residential and non-residential. Generally speaking, non-residential building activity dominates construction activity in terms of dollar volume and so discussions of the impact of construction activity on the rest of the economy are usually centered around non-residential construction.

According to the Emergency Production Plan 1977/78, emphasis is placed on residential construction because this sector employs skilled, semi-skilled, and professional workers; stimulates growth in other sectors; and places relatively small demand on foreign exchange reserves. Since one of the objectives of the Government of Jamaica is to provide adequate housing for the population, the emphasis on housing stems also from socially desirable goals.

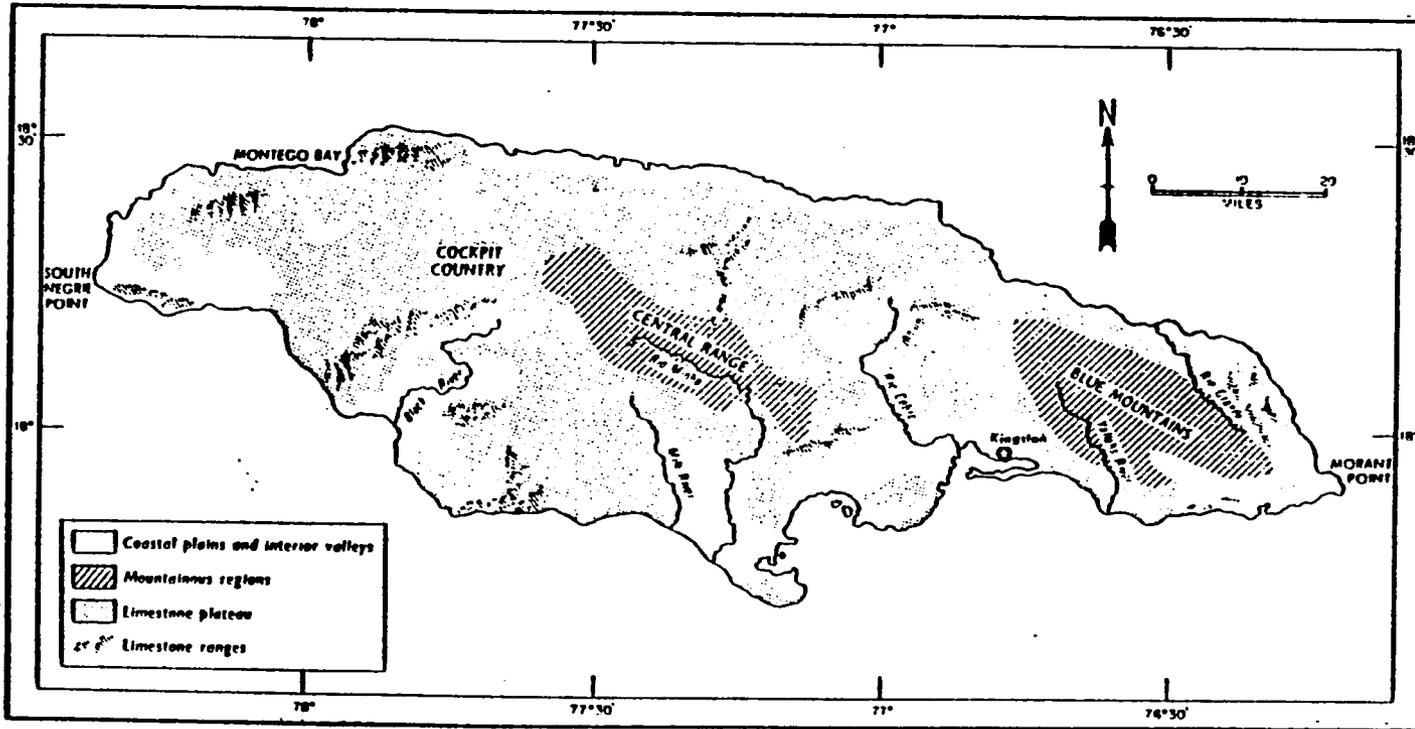
In 1976, the construction sector utilized about 5.5% of the employed labor force (down from 6.5% in 1975). In absolute numbers the construction labor force was 53,400 workers in 1976 (down from 57,250 in 1975) and the unemployment rate in this sector was 28.5% in 1976. This is up from 22.1 in the previous year. While the unemployment rate in the construction sector is slightly higher than the overall rate of unemployment, movements in the construction unemployment rate reflect movements in the overall rate. In terms of the labor force there are indeed unemployed resources which can be utilized in construction activity. The gross domestic product generated by the construction sector purchasers' values, constant dollars (where 1974 = 100) was J\$192,714 million in 1976 (down 23% from 1975) and its contribution (in percentage terms) to gross domestic product was 9.3% (down from 11.5% in 1975). (See Appendix VI-1).

As mentioned above, the Production Plan states that one of the reasons for the selection of construction as a stimulus for the economy is the relatively small demand made on foreign exchange reserves. According to the Ministry of Housing, roughly ten percent of the cost of their five year program will go for the purchase of foreign material. In light of the domestically produced inputs (intermediate and final) used by the construction sector, this figure seems low. According to the national

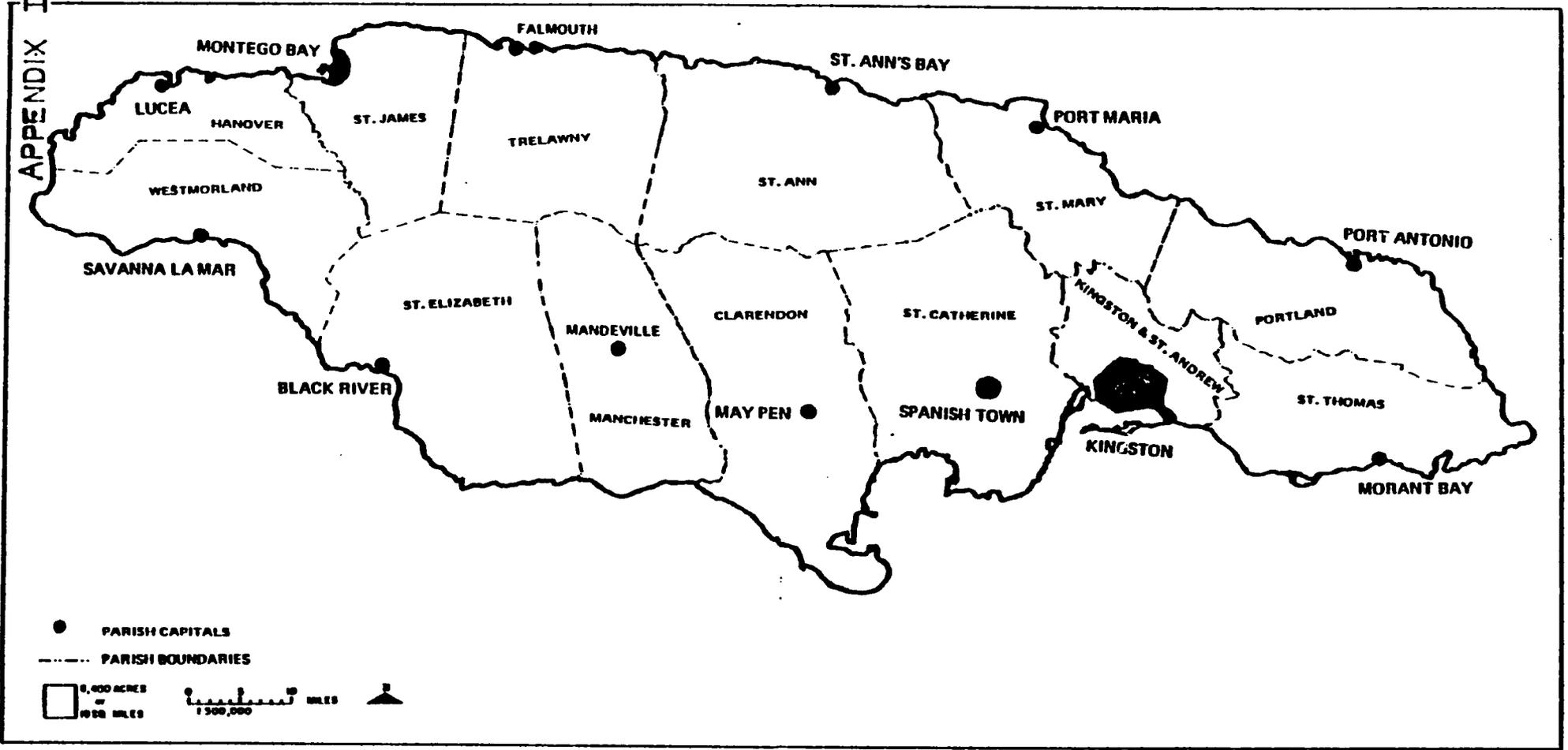
income account, for the period 1974-1976, the cost of imported material for building construction activity represented 56, 49, and 42 percent of total cost. The fact that import costs have been a declining portion of total cost demonstrates an ability and willingness of the construction sector to shift demand away from imports to domestically produced inputs. If the construction sector is able to continue to increase the substitution of domestic inputs for foreign inputs, the import ceiling will not pose a problem. It should be noted that most of the current construction activity is conducted by the Government and the Government imports these materials at the basic rate (J\$0.909 = U.S. \$1.00). If the Jamaican dollar is devalued to the special rate (J\$1.24 = U.S. \$1.00), the cost of imported building materials will rise about 37 percent. Currently, private developers must import at the special rate so they are at a cost disadvantage relative to the Government.



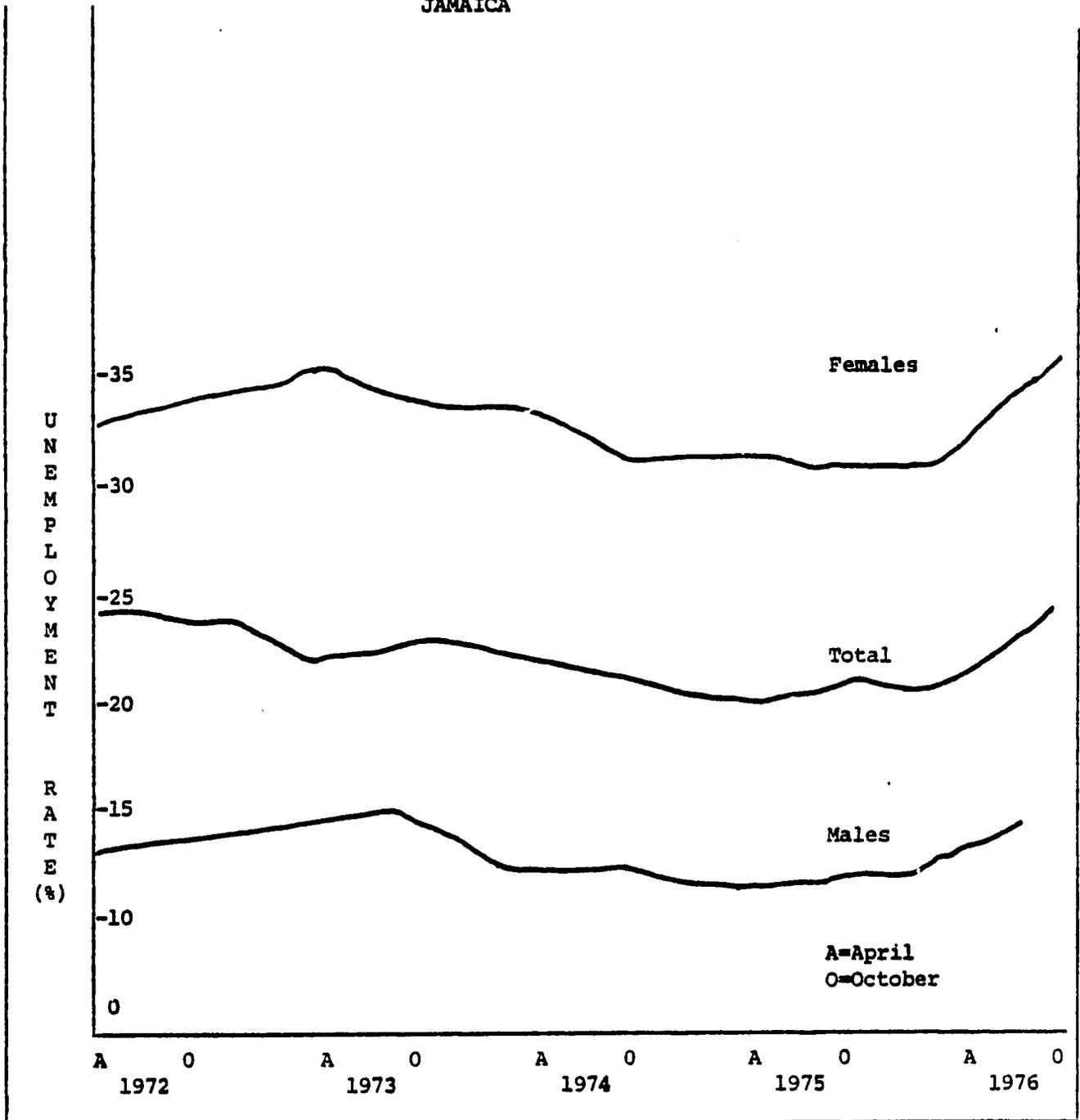
JAMAICA, TOPOGRAPHY



MAIN TOWNS OF JAMAICA



UNEMPLOYMENT RATE
JAMAICA



Source: The Labour Force 1976, Department of Statistics, Jamaica

Source: Bank of Jamaica, Report and Statement of Accounts for the Year Ending 31 December 1976

		J\$Million		
<u>Balance of payments Summary 1974 - 1976</u>				
	1974	1975+	1976*	
A. Merchandise	-106.9	-144.8	-150.6	
Exports (f.o.b.) (adjusted)	630.7	736.7	583.5	
Imports (f.o.b.)	737.6	881.5	734.1	
B. Services (net)	<u>- 66.2</u>	<u>-136.0</u>	<u>-167.9</u>	
Foreign Travel	88.6	69.3	36.1	
Investment Income	- 61.5	- 93.5	-103.0	
Other	- 93.3	-111.8	-101.0	
C. Goods and Services (net)	<u>-173.1</u>	<u>-208.8</u>	<u>-318.5</u>	
D. Unilateral Transfers (net)	21.3	23.8	17.0	
Private	29.6	19.1	12.0	
Official	- 8.3	4.7	5.0	
E. Current Account Balance	<u>-151.8</u>	<u>-257.0</u>	<u>-301.5</u>	
F. Net Capital Movements	<u>221.1</u>	<u>189.9</u>	<u>61.0</u>	
Official	81.9	112.9	69.0	
Private	139.2	77.0	- 8.0**	
G. Overall Balance A through F	<u>69.3</u>	<u>- 67.1</u>	<u>-240.5</u>	
H. Change in Reserves (increase =)	<u>- 54.1</u>	<u>73.6</u>	<u>240.5</u>	
Holdings of S.D.R.'s	1.5	1.1	3.7	
Government	2.9	- 3.4	0.1	
C.D.F.	- 9.0	- 19.3	28.1	
Bank of Jamaica	- 38.8	93.1	204.1	
Other Banks	- 10.7	2.1	4.5	
I. Net Errors and Omissions	- 15.2	- 6.5	-	

+Revised * Provisional **Includes net errors and omissions

HOUSING STARTS - MINISTRY OF HOUSING

PROJECTS	1972/73	1973/74	1974/75	1975/76
Ministry of Housing				
Sales & Rental	1,164	765	931	916
Owner-Occupier	257	225	500	357
Aided Self-Help	-	28	-	-
Slum Clearance & Rehousing	346	790	389	841
Sites and Services	-	-	1,789	2,576
Ministry of Housing in collaboration with Ministry of Local Government				
Indigent Housing	113	145	438	234
Ministry of Housing in collaboration with Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Youth and Commu- nity Development				
Farm Housing	120	216	370	589
Montpelier Complex	-	-	100	140
Project Land Lease	-	-	300	275
National Housing Corporation Joint Venture			460	112
	-	-	579	295
Total	2,000	2,169	5,865	6,335

Source: Economic and Social Survey: 1978 p. 157

NATIONAL PRODUCTION PLAN: 1977-78

HOUSING PROGRAM

PARISH	Number of Units	*Expenditure \$(000)
Kingston and St. Andrew	2,929	\$21,790
St. Catherine	4,452	49,761
Clarendon	1,250	9,770
Manchester	269	2,224
St Elizabeth	302	2,182
Westmoreland	744	5,896
Hanover	286	9,791
St. James	822	5,686
Trelawny	460	3,210
St. Ann	581	4,386
St. Mary	473	3,416
Portland	370	2,560
St. Thomas	523	3,290
Not allocated by Parish	-	2,079
TOTAL	13,452	126,041

Source: Ministry Paper, The Emergency Production Plan - 1977/78

* Note: Dollar values are pre-dual exchange rate prices

MINISTRIES OF THE GOVERNMENT OF JAMICA

THE PRIME MINISTER

Ministry of Parliamentary Affairs

Ministry of Finance and Planning

Ministry of Youth and Sports

Ministry of Labour and Employment

Ministry of National Security

Ministry of Pensions and Social Security

Ministry of the Public Service

Ministry of Housing

Ministry of National Mobilization

Ministry of Works and Communications

Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade

Ministry of Local Government

Ministry of Industry and Commerce

Ministry of Mining and Natural Resources

Ministry of Public Utilities and Transport

Ministry of Education

Ministry of Justice

Ministry of Health and Environmental Control

Ministry of Agriculture

Source: Management Services Division of the Ministry of Public Service

SUGAR INDUSTRY HOUSING LTD, NEW HOUSES

<u>Parish</u>	<u>Project Type</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Project Cost (\$000)</u>	<u>Scheduled or Actual completion</u>
St. Elizabeth	2 BR	16	170	June, 76 (C)
St. Catherine	2 BR	163	2,300	June, 77
St. Catherine	2 BR	143	1,788	September, 77
Clarendon	2&3 BR	221	2,894	December, 77
Westmoreland	2 BR	221	2,377	December, 77
Clarendon	2 BR	56	511	July, 77
New Units on Own land	2&3 BR	69	290	September,
Total		889	10,330	

Source: SIHL Proposal to US AID p. 4

SUGAR INDUSTRY HOUSING LTD. HOME IMPROVEMENT

<u>ZONE</u>	<u>No. of Contracts</u>	<u>Contract Sum</u>
Eastern	49	\$199,015
Central	100	382,262
Western	81	255,747
Total	230	\$837,024

Source: SIHL Proposal to US AID P. 5

MEMBERS OF THE TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING AUTHORITY

The Government Town Planner (Chairman)

Ministry of Finance

National Planning Agency

Natural Resources Conservation Authority

Ministry of Health and Environmental Control

Ministry of Works

Ministry of National Mobilization

Ministry of Public Utilities and Transport

Ministry of Local Government

Ministry of Housing

Land Valuation Division

Urban Development Corporation

Mines and Geology Division

Agricultural Planning Division (Ministry of Agriculture)

Ministry of Education

INCOME DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED LABOR FORCE

Income Group (Average per week)	Frequency	% of Total
No Income	46,172	6.8
under \$10	97,097	14.3
\$10 - \$19	120,862	17.8
\$20 - \$29	146,664	21.6
\$30 - \$39	74,690	11.0
\$40 - \$49	44,814	6.6
\$50 - \$100	105,924	15.6
\$100 & over	42,877	6.3
<hr/>		
TOTAL	679,100	100.0

Source: National Housing Trust, Research Department

NATIONAL HOUSING TRUST
ALLOCATION OF BENEFITS*
(as of September, 1976)

<u>Type</u>	<u>% of Applications</u>	<u>No. of Awards</u>	<u>% of Awards</u>	<u>Value of Awards (J\$M)</u>	<u>% of Awards</u>
Projects	60.4	428	31.9	4.39	48.8
Contribution	13.5	353	26.3	2.65	29.4
Improvements	26.1	561	41.8	1.96	21.8

Source: National Housing Trust Memorandum

*Note: Purchases on the open market are very small and therefore lumped with projects.

JAMAICA MORTGAGE BANK

SECONDARY MARKET OPERATION

SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES

AUGUST 1972 - DECEMBER 31, 1976

INVITATIONS OF OFFERS

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u> \$	<u>Building Societies</u> \$	<u>Other Institutions</u> \$
1972	10,000,000.00	2,500,000.00	7,500,000.00
1973	28,000,000.00	13,000,000.00	15,000,000.00
*1974	14,000,000.00	5,000,000.00	5,000,000.00
1975	12,500,000.00	6,500,000.00	6,000,000.00
1976	<u>4,950,000.00</u>	<u>2,550,000.00</u>	<u>1,400,000.00</u>
Total	<u>68,450,000.00</u>	<u>29,550,000.00</u>	<u>34,900,000.00</u>

*During the months of February, March and April, no distinction was made for funds to Building Societies and Other Institutions. Hence the difference of \$4 million between the allocation.

OFFERS RECEIVED

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u> \$	<u>Building Societies</u> \$	<u>Other Institutions</u> \$
1972	3,668,681.12	850,000.00	2,818,681.12
1973	17,526,795.00	10,750,000.00	6,776,795.00
1974	8,782,223.21	5,880,333.32	2,901,889.89
1975	4,497,306.96	3,156,125.00	1,341,181.96
1976	<u>8,387,207.45</u>	<u>7,542,750.00</u>	<u>844,457.45</u>
Total	<u>42,862,213.74</u>	<u>28,179,208.32</u>	<u>14,683,005.42</u>

OFFERS ACCEPTED

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u> \$	<u>Building Societies</u> \$	<u>Other Institutions</u> \$
1972	996,635.71	650,000.00	346,635.71
1973	8,023,129.00	6,550,000.00	1,473,129.00
1974	4,774,865.34	3,420,333.32	1,354,532.02
1975	4,262,133.96	2,920,952.00	1,341,181.96
1976	<u>3,709,736.23</u>	<u>3,230,100.00</u>	<u>479,636.23</u>
Total	<u>21,766,500.24</u>	<u>16,771,385.32</u>	<u>4,995,114.92</u>

APPENDIX IC-7
(continued)

DISBURSEMENTS

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
	\$	\$	\$
1972	190,461.86	190,461.86	-0-
1973	2,054,331.80	1,855,198.35	199,133.45
1974	5,600,273.59	4,190,698.72	1,409,574.87
1975	4,804,114.28	4,325,444.89	478,669.84
1976	<u>1,961,209.78</u>	<u>1,578,637.48</u>	<u>382,572.30</u>
Total	<u>14,610,391.81</u>	<u>12,140,441.30</u>	<u>2,469,950.51</u>

CANCELLATIONS

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
	\$	\$	\$
1972	156,173.85	9,538.14	146,635.71
1973	1,475,665.75	699,799.20	775,866.55
1974	1,931,200.82	1,351,211.69	579,989.13
1975	1,164,617.76	619,008.67	545,609.09
1976	<u>445,620.25</u>	<u>349,956.32</u>	<u>95,663.93</u>
Total	<u>5,173,278.43</u>	<u>3,029,514.02</u>	<u>2,143,764.41</u>

FIRM COMMITMENTS (Acceptances - Cancellations)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
	\$	\$	\$
1972	840,461.86	640,461.86	200,000.00
1973	6,547,463.25	5,850,200.00	697,262.45
1974	2,843,664.52	2,069,121.63	774,542.89
1975	3,097,516.20	2,301,943.33	795,572.87
1976	<u>3,264,115.98</u>	<u>2,880,143.68</u>	<u>383,972.30</u>
Total	<u>16,593,221.81</u>	<u>13,741,871.30</u>	<u>2,851,350.51</u>

UNDISBURSED COMMITMENT at END of 1976

<u>Total</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
\$	\$	\$
1,982,830.00	1,601,430.00	381,400.00

NUMBER OF MORTGAGES PURCHASED

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
	\$	\$	\$
1972	32	32	-0-
1973	339	297	42
1974	677	554	123
1975	441	399	42
1976	<u>169</u>	<u>145</u>	<u>24</u>
Total	<u>1,658</u>	<u>1,427</u>	<u>231</u>

APPENDIX IC-7
(continued)

AVERAGE ORIGINAL PRINCIPAL BALANCE OF MORTGAGES PURCHASED

<u>Year</u>	<u>Overall</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
	\$	\$	\$
1972	6,871.88	6,871.88	-0-
1973	6,849.48	6,981.73	5,914.31
1974	9,148.20	8,490.49	12,110.56
1975	11,119.42	11,083.77	11,461.57
1976	12,202.84	11,610.93	15,833.33

AVERAGE UNPAID PRINCIPAL BALANCE OF MORTGAGES AT TIME OF PURCHASE

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
	\$	\$	\$
1972	5,951.93	5,951.93	-0-
1973	6,059.98	6,246.46	4,741.27
1974	8,272.19	7,564.44	11,459.96
1975	10,793.48	10,733.11	11,372.74
1976	11,604.79	10,887.16	15,940.51

APPROVED SELLER/SERVICERS

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Building Societies</u>	<u>Other Institutions</u>
1972	9	3	6
1973	8	3	5
1974	4	-	4
1975	2	-	2
1976	-	-	-
	—	—	—
Total	<u>23</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>17</u>

JAMAICA MORTGAGE BANK

PRIMARY MARKET OPERATIONS

SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES

PROJECT	LOCATION	DEVELOPER	SOURCE OF FUNDS	NO. OF UNITS	SELLING PRICE \$	DOWNPAYMENT	MORTGAGE LOAN	INTERIM LOAN	LONG-TERM LOAN
Vestport I	St. Catherine	Mutual Housing Services	US-AID/JMB	304	13,300.00	1,300.00	11,970.00	3,630,000.00	3,630,000.00
Trench Town Phase 5	St. Andrew St. Andrew	Ministry of Housing Ministry of Housing	US-AID(H.G.)	15	8,111.93	811.18	7,399.74)	1,182,915.00	1,184,540.72
				91	9,888.19	958.82	8,629.37)		
				35	9,198.63	919.86	8,278.77)		
Trench Town Phase 6	St. Andrew St. Andrew	Ministry of Housing Ministry of Housing	US-AID(H.G.)	20	8,111.93	811.18	7,300.74)	1,145,447.00	1,147,021.72
				116	9,588.19	958.82	8,629.37)		
Rague	Trelawyn	National Housing Corporation Ltd.	US-AID(H.G.)	27	12,331.30	1,233.13	11,098.17	-0-	299,650.59
Orchard	Hanover	National Housing Corporation Ltd.	US-AID(H.G.)	27	13,754.00	1,376.40	12,378.60	-0-	334,222.20
Pitfour	St. James	MOH/NHC Ltd.	US-AID(H.G.)	81	11,960.00	1,196.00	10,764.00	578,723.00	871,884.00
Westport II	St. Catherine St. Catherine	Mutual Housing Services Mutual Housing Services	US-AID(H.G.)	33	13,970.00	1,397.00	12,573.00)	1,833,422.00	1,833,422.00
				102	15,453.00	1,545.30	13,907.70)		
Richmond Hill I	St. James	JMB/Richmond Hill I Co-op	US-AID(H.G.)	77	4,050.69	203.00	3,847.69	223,384.00	296,272.12
Seaforth	St. Thomas	National Housing Corp.	US-AID(H.G.)	22	10,900.00	1,000.00	9,810.00	-0-	215,820.00
Mansfield Park "C"	St. Ann St. Ann	Urban Development Corp. Urban Development Corp.	US-AID(H.G.)	32	11,000.00	1,100.00	9,900.00	-0-	679,050.00
				35	11,500.00	1,150.00	10,350.00	-0-	
Stadium Gardens	St. Andrew	Stadium Gardens Co-op.	US-AID(H.G.)	81	13,547.00	1,384.70	12,462.30	-0-	1,009,446.30
Catherine Hall	St. James	Urban Development Corp.	Caribbean	60	4,855.00	489.00	4,399.00	-0-	463,940.00
			Dev. Bank (CDR)	52	6,151.00	615.00	5,530.00	-0-	287,872.00
				70	8,100.00	810.00	7,290.00	-0-	510,100.00
				6	10,500.00	1,050.00	9,450.00	-0-	56,700.00

PROJECT	LOCATION	DEVELOPER	SOURCE OF FUNDS	NO. OF UNITS	SELLING PRICE \$	DOWNPAYMENT	MORTGAGE LOAN	INTERIM LOAN	LONG-TERM LOANS
Catherine Hall	St. James	Urban Development Corp.	Carribean	42	11,758.00	1,176.00	10,580.00	-0-	444,360.00
			Dev.Bank (CDB)	14	15,000.00	1,500.00	13,500.00	-0-	189,000.00
				50	18,500.00	1,650.00	14,850.00	-0-	742,500.00
Passage Port	St. Catherine	West Indies Home Contractors Ltd.	Ja.Nat'l Investment Corp.Ltd.	1,183	10,639.00	1,064.00	9,575.00	-0-	13,244,775.00
Waterford	St. Catherine	West Indies Home Contractors Ltd.	Ja.Nat'l Investment Corp.Ltd.	3,725	9,179.00	459.00	8,620.00	-0-	32,000,000.00
Braston	St. Catherine	MOH/Core Tuca	Bank of America	1,000	14,700.00	1,470.00	13,230.00	13,400,000.00	13,230,000.00
Fairy Hill	Portland	MOH/Erdesa	W.F.C. Corp	100	12,100.00	1,210.00	10,890.00		
Fairy Hill	Portland	MOH/Erdesa		5	12,500.00	1,250.00	11,250.00	1,425,301.00	1,428,708.00
				21	14,998.00	1,500.00	13,498.00		
Cooreville Gardens	St. Andrew	MOH/Erdesa	W.F.C.Corp	147	20,000.00	2,000.00	18,000.00	10,065,064.00	10,483,875.00
				462	23,000.00	2,300.00	20,700.00		
Essential Housing	St. Catherine	Ted Warmington	Local Insti-tution/JMB	113	27,500.00	-0-	-0-	2,100,000.00	-0-
				<u>8,157</u>				<u>35,594,256.00</u>	<u>84,583,359.65</u>

TYPICAL CENTRAL KINGSTON YARD



YARD AREA OF APPROXIMATELY 1800 SF.

3.0 HOUSEHOLDS (TENANTS) AVERAGING 4.0 PERSONS LIVING IN 3 DWELLING UNITS OR ROOMS (ONE POSSIBLY OWNER OCCUPIED).

OUTDOOR, PARTIALLY COVERED FIREPLACE/KITCHEN SHARED BY TENANTS.

TOILET AND SHOWER SHARED BY TENANTS.

STANDPIPE SHARED BY TENANTS.

SQUATTER SETTLEMENTS

	-----WALTHAM-----		--RED HILLS ROAD--		HAYFIELD	TOTAL	
1. Households	178	69	218	167	254	89	975
2. % Head of Household Unemployed	53%	20%	54%	53%	46%	50%	45%
3. % Head of Household Employed	47%	80%	46%	47%	54%	50%	55%
4. No. Head of Household Unemployed	94	14	118	89	117	45	477
5. No. Head of Household Employed	84	55	100	78	137	44	490
6. Wkly income-Head of Household Unemployed ^{1/} \$	5.20	6.60	6.60	5.20	6.60	5.80	6.00
7. Wkly income-Head of Household Employed	26	33	33	26	33	29	30
8. Total wkly income-Head of Household Unem.	489	92	779	463	772	261	2,856
9. Total wkly income-Head of Household Emp.	<u>2,184</u>	<u>1,815</u>	<u>3,300</u>	<u>2,028</u>	<u>4,521</u>	<u>1,276</u>	<u>15,124</u>
10. Total - Lines 8 & 9	\$2,673	1,907	4,079	2,491	5,293	1,537	17,980
11. Wkly income per Household Head (Line 10 ÷ 1)	15.02	27.64	18.71	14.92	20.84	17.27	18.44
12. Wkly income per Household (Line 10 x 1.4) ^{2/}	21.02	38.57	26.19	20.89	29.18	24.18	25.82
13. Area (in acres)	7.0	2.5	6.9	10.0	10.0	6.0	54.4
14. No. of People	640	386	893	919	980	420	4,238
15. % Female Household Heads	51	30	43	44	34	43	41
16. % Married or Common Law	37	31	60	53	56	55	51
17. % Under Age 20	53	60	59	60	57	62	58
18. Ave. No. persons per Household	3.7	5.4	4.1	5.5	3.9	5.1	4.4
19. Density per room	2.8	3.6	3.3	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.1
20. % w/past primary education	32	10	19	11	24	15	20
21. % w/trade experience	30	68	50	44	23	33	38
22. Tenure Lease /Rent %	62	17	63	77	50	72	59
23. Own %	35	10	4	-	6	17	11
24. Squat %	1	72	33	18	44	11	28
Characteristics of Community							
25. % Residents over 5 years	60	67	58	60	43	61	56
26. % Trusting family or neighbors	43	32	41	18	39	50	37
27. % Wanting to Remain							
28. % Using Pit Toilets	97	96	87	80	80	72	85
29. % Private water connections	76	16	16	47	36	83	40
30. % with no electricity	61	22	40	37	50	44	45

^{1/} Dr. Orlando Patterson estimates that unemployed have incomes of 20% of the employed, 1972 study

^{2/} Dr. Orlando Patterson estimates that household income approximates 1.4 times income of head of household, 1972 study

SIGNIFICANT PRODUCT AND INCOME INDICATORS

ITEM	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976
Aggregates (\$ mil)								
Gross domestic product	1,016.5	1,196.0	1,305.1	1,456.6	1,752.2	2,251.5	2,658.8	2,768.0
Gross national product	966.1	1,145.4	1,231.8	1,433.3	1,727.4	2,210.7	2,600.7	2,700.2
National income	868.6	1,023.2	1,104.3	1,283.2	1,546.1	1,991.2	2,346.6	2,427.3
National disposable income	883.4	1,045.5	1,126.2	1,308.2	1,576.8	2,021.5	2,378.6	2,447.0
Consumption of employees	523.8	634.1	686.1	803.3	1,003.4	1,295.3	1,632.8	1,786.9
Personal consumption expend.	615.6	712.4	810.0	951.0	1,074.5	1,357.7	1,717.8	1,932.5
Saving	168.6	191.9	158.8	163.9	226.1	272.7	185.0	67.2
Mean Population ('000)	1,843.8	1,869.1	1,906.1	1,932.4	1,972.0	2,008.0	2,042.7	2,072.8
Per capita (\$)								
National disposable income	479.1	547.4	592.4	667.0	800.0	1,006.8	1,164.4	1,180.5
Compensation of employees	284.1	339.3	333.5	415.7	508.8	645.1	799.3	862.1
Personal consumption expend.	333.9	381.1	426.1	492.1	544.9	676.2	841.0	932.3
Saving	91.4	102.7	83.5	84.8	114.7	135.8	90.6	3.2
Consumer price index			53	54	176	27.3	17.4	9.7

Source: National Income and Product, 1976,
Department of Statistics, Jamaica

APPENDIX II B-2

CENTRAL KINGSTON URBAN UPGRADING PROJECT
HOUSEHOLD INCOME, 1975

INCOME PER WEEK	NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS
0	94
1 - 10	135
11 - 20	122
21 - 30	149
31 - 40	73
41 - 50	40
51	86
No response	<u>520</u>
TOTAL	1,219

URBAN POPULATION* FOR JAMAICA AND PARISHES 1943-1970

Parish	1943	1960	1970	% Population Urban 1943	% Population Urban 1960	% Population Urban 1970	% Population Change 1943-1960	% Population Change 1960-1970
Kingston	111,000	123,400	111,900	100.0	100.0	100.0	12.2	.9
St. Andrew	91,800	253,100	363,700	71.6	85.5	88.0	17.6	43.7
St. Thomas	-	7,300	15,100	-	13.6	21.7	-	106.8
Portland	5,500	10,600	13,800	9.0	16.5	20.5	92.7	30.1
St. Mary	-	7,600	17,900	-	8.1	17.8	-	135.5
St. Ann	-	13,600	23,000	-	13.1	19.2	-	69.1
Trelawny	-	5,300	7,700	-	9.4	12.7	-	45.2
St. James	11,500	23,600	43,800	18.1	28.4	43.5	10.5	85.6
Hanover	-	2,800	3,700	-	5.2	6.2	-	32.1
Westmoreland	-	9,800	16,600	-	8.9	14.7	-	69.4
St. Elizabeth	-	5,700	6,500	-	4.9	5.2	-	14.0
Manchester	-	12,800	25,600	-	13.9	21.2	-	100.0
Clarendon	6,000	21,200	39,100	4.8	15.4	22.5	253.3	84.4
St. Catherine	12,000	22,700	62,800	9.9	18.8	34.8	89.2	176.6
JAMAICA TOTAL	236,800	519,500	751,200	19.2	32.3	40.6	119.4	44.6

INTERNAL MIGRATION AND URBAN GROWTH

* Computations of urban population for Jamaica exclude places with population of less than 5,000

Source: Recent Population Movement in Jamaica - 1974 Work Population Year, p. 42

FLUCTUATIONS IN THE PRICES OF
PRINCIPAL BUILDING MATERIALS

	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976
Cement	100	100.00	100.00	100.00	117.05	186.36	222.73	259.09
Aggregate	100	102.44	120.86	120.86	141.72	144.16	158.83	171.92
Steel Bars	100	174.00	148.99	138.91	188.85	331.01	370.46	344.65
Timber	100	101.90	101.90	113.21	145.52	241.00	251.10	280.40
Kitchen Cupboard	100	100.00	100.00	120.00	120.00	160.00	160.00	160.00
Full Frame Aluminium Jalousie Windows	100	100.00	100.00	112.50	123.78	154.72	194.39	194.39
Flush Door	100	100.00	105.92	117.14	150.48	157.14	157.14	180.67
Door Hardware	100	150.07	150.07	152.67	214.17	252.93	311.44	312.74
Metal Door Frame	100	100.00	109.57	113.04	116.00	165.22	191.30	191.30
Terrazzo Floor Tiles	100	100.00	127.19	127.19	144.74	201.75	239.04	263.16
Paint	100	100.00	100.00	103.04	132.61	178.26	178.26	204.35
Plumbing Supplies	100	102.96	119.00	122.39	144.41	205.46	242.68	245.87
Sanitary Appliances	100	109.11	126.81	130.21	146.38	187.23	210.64	218.74
Electrical Supplies	100	100.00	100.00	99.54	123.31	163.83	203.29	204.52
Concrete Blocks	100	105.56	111.11	122.22	133.33	194.44	211.11	222.22
Galvanised Corrugated Sheeting (Zinc)	100	100.00	100.00	106.88	175.63	247.50	331.25	331.25
Aluminium Sheeting	100	114.29	114.29	114.29	126.19	171.43	195.24	195.24

Source: A Study of Housing in Jamaica, The Ministry of Public Service: 1976

OVERALL FLUCTUATIONS IN CONSTRUCTION COSTS

	MID 1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976
Materials	100	107.95	111.20	115.26	137.12	193.32	217.61	230.30
Labour	100	100.00	115.72	115.72	146.12	146.12	254.73	254.73
Combined Material Labor	100	103.98	113.46	115.49	141.62	169.72	236.17	242.52

Source: A Study of Housing in Jamaica, The Ministry of Public Service, 1976

LABOUR MANAGEMENT AGREEMENT

1975 - 76

Building & Construction Industry

THIS AGREEMENT is made the 7th day of July, 1975 between the Employers' Side of the Joint Industrial Council for the Building & Construction Industry (being representatives of the Incorporated Masterbuilders Association of Jamaica representing the employers in the building and construction industry of Jamaica who are hereinafter called the "Employers") and the Workers' Side of the said Council (being representatives of the Bustamante Industrial Trade Union, the Trades Union Congress of Jamaica and the National Workers Union of Jamaica) (hereinafter called the "Unions") WHEREAS in the interests of sound industrial relations in the building industry the parties hereto have agreed -

- (1) To maintain orderly labour relations.
- (2) To exercise their functions as defined in this agreement with due regard to the welfare, speedy and efficient operation of the building industry, as well as the welfare and best interests of the workers.
- (3) To stabilise rates of pay and other conditions of employment.
- (4) To establish a formula for the prompt and fair disposition of grievances, and
- (5) To ensure that works shall proceed smoothly without interruption and at the highest attainable efficiency.

NOW THIS AGREEMENT WITNESSETH AS FOLLOWS: -

PART I - RATES OF PAY AND TERM OF WAGE AGREEMENT

Rates of Pay and Retroactive Date

1. The wage rates to be paid by the Employers in the building and construction industry with effect from the 1st day of April 1975 shall be the rates set out in the Schedule hereto.

Term of Wage Agreement

2. The rates of pay and the other terms and conditions of employment established by this Agreement shall remain in force until the 31st day of December 1976. The workers in the building and construction industry shall not be entitled (either through a Union or otherwise) to make claims for any increases in their remuneration or for any change in the terms and conditions of their employment or any other claim involving any cost to the Employers in respect of the period of their employment up to the 31st day of December 1976 except as is provided in Clause 21. Claims for any changes desired after the 31st day of December 1976, shall be made before the 30th day of September 1976.

PART II - PERMANENT PROVISIONS

The following clauses of this Agreement numbered 3 to 33 shall form part of the permanent terms of employment of the workers of the building and construction industry and shall remain in force until varied by agreement between the Workers' Side and the Employers' Side of the Council and the expression "the Unions" used therein shall mean the recognised bargaining representatives of the workers from time to time.

(The increases in clauses 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 18 are effective from 1st April 1975)

Functions of Management

3. The Employers have the sole right, responsibility and function to

conduct their business and manage their operations in such manner as they shall think fit. Accordingly each Employer has the right at his sole discretion:

- (a) to manage his business, works and construction sites; to plan, direct and control his operations and the working force including the days, times, methods and manner of working, allocation of work and number of workers required in any department or operation;
- (b) to determine the work to be done; to establish the methods and rate of production and to change such methods and rate;
- (c) to control and regulate the use of all equipment and other property of the Employer;
- (d) to introduce new or improved equipment, methods or facilities and to change job procedures.
- (e) to establish working schedule and to make work assignments;
- (f) to hire new workers; to promote, transfer, layoff and recall workers; to discipline and dismiss workers for cause; and to retire workers;
- (g) to establish new occupational classifications;
- (h) to select supervisory personnel;
- (i) to have any part of his work performed by contractors or subcontractors;
- (j) to make rules and regulations which the Employer considers necessary or advisable for the orderly, efficient and safe conduct of its business.

Classification of Workers

4. Where in the Schedule hereto any type of work is divided into two or more separate classes or grades (Example: Grade I, Grade II and Grade

III Carpenter/Joiner) the determination of the worker's skill and his proper grade will be made by the Employer at the commencement of the worker's employment on a job and if disputed by the worker shall be subject to the grievance procedure.

Fair Wages Clause for Task Workers

5. All employers who are carrying out work on a task basis should advise their sub-contractors and task workers that they must keep proper books and pay rates of wages and observe conditions of employment not less favourable than those laid down by this Agreement. In the case of day workers, the sub-contractors must observe the daily rates and also the various fringe benefits such as paid holidays, vacation leave, overtime, premiums, end-of-project bonus, etc. In the case of work carried out by task and paid for on a measurement basis, the rates should be sufficient to allow workers to earn not less than the daily rate plus benefits. The Union holding bargaining rates will be supplied with the names and addresses of the sub-contractors on any project on request.

Functions of Union

6. (a) The Unions have the right to exercise all the functions of a trade union subject to the provisions of this Agreement and will exercise such functions in accordance with trade union principles and practices. Accordingly the Unions have the right:

- (i) to ensure that the agreed wage rates are paid and that the other benefits and conditions herein specified are observed.
- (ii) to protect the workers against arbitrary disciplinary action through the grievance procedure.
- (iii) to deal with grievances.

(b) Except when dealing with a grievance under the provisions of Clause 29 or attending a meeting with management, union activities shall

not be conducted on any Employer's premises without the prior consent of the Employer.

(c) Union delegates shall be regular workers on the job on which they represent the workers. Reasonable time off with pay will be granted to authorised delegates to attend meetings with Management about labour disputes arising in their Employer's business at their respective places of employment provided that permission to attend such business shall be obtained by each delegate from his supervisor and shall be subject to the exigencies of the Employer's work.

Normal Hours

7. The normal work week will be 40 hours consisting of 5 days (Monday to Friday) of 8 hours each, except in the case of watchmen.

Reporting Pay

8. (a) A worker will be paid a minimum of half a day's pay although he is not taken on, if either:

- (i) he is specifically instructed to report for work and actually reports for work at the time he is instructed to report, or
- (ii) he is working on a job in the ordinary course of which he would be expected to report for work at the commencement of the next working day and he was not instructed before 5:00 P.M. on the previous day not to report and actually reports for work at the commencement of such next working day.

(b) If a worker is requested to and does remain at the work site, available to work, after the first four hours of a day, he will be paid a full day's pay.

Overtime

9. (a) Except in the case of watchmen, overtime is defined as time worked in excess of 8 hours per day Mondays to Fridays inclusive and all

work on Saturdays.

Saturdays

(b) Overtime worked on the instructions of an Employer will be paid for at time and one-half EXCEPT that overtime after mid-day on Saturdays will be paid for at double time.

(c) The workers will work reasonable overtime whenever requested by an Employer so to do.

Sundays

(d) All work on Sundays will be paid for at double time, except in the case of watchmen. A watchman will be paid at the rate of double time for work done on his scheduled rest day.

Public Holidays Not Worked

10. Each worker who has worked for the same Employer on both the normal working day prior to and on the normal working day following each Public Holiday will be paid the normal single time pay which the worker would have earned had the day not been a Holiday.

Public Holidays Worked

11. All workers (except watchmen) who work on official Public Holidays on the instruction of their Employer will be paid at double time on an hourly basis for all work on such holidays. Watchmen will be paid an additional \$7.96 for each Public Holiday worked by them. This is not in addition to the premium under Clause 10.

Height Pay

12. Height Pay shall be payable if all the following conditions exist:

(a) The worker is working at or more than 30 feet above ground or floor level in such circumstances that there is the danger of a clear fall of at least 30 feet, and

(b) The worker is not protected by any wall, rail or other barrier

(temporary or permanent), except in the case of work on scaffolds.

The rate of Height Pay for each full hour (over three-quarters of an hour shall be regarded as a full hour) of work at a height, measured from the point at which the work is being done to the nearest floor or to the ground, shall be -

between 30 feet and 60 feet - 9¢ an hour

for each additional 30 feet - 7¢ an hour

This premium shall not rank for overtime, pay for Public Holidays (whether worked or not) sick leave or in the calculation of any other premium or fringe benefits.

Depth Pay

13. Workers who work in excavations in which the shortest horizontal measurement is less than the depth of the excavation shall, where the depth where the worker is working exceeds seven feet, be paid a premium called "Depth Pay" at the following rates.

between 7 and 10 feet - 10¢

between 11 and 16 feet - 13¢

and an additional 7¢ in respect of each

additional 6 feet or part thereof

for each hour (over three-quarters of an hour shall be regarded as a full hour) during which they work at such depth. This premium shall not rank for overtime, pay for Public Holidays (whether worked or not), sick leave or in the calculation of any other premium or fringe benefit.

Working in Water Pay

14. Workers who are physically working in either:

- (a) permanent water with a static water level (e.g. the sea or a swamp) of up to 3 feet in depth, or

(b) temporary flood water for more than one hour shall be paid a premium called "Water Pay" at the rate of 10¢ an hour for each full hour (over three-quarters of an hour shall be regarded as a full hour) during which they are physically working in such water. This premium for working in permanent water with a static water level of over 3 feet in depth shall be negotiated having regard to the circumstances in each case. This premium shall not rank for overtime, pay for Public Holidays (whether worked or not), sick leave or in the calculation of any other premium or fringe benefit.

Over Water Pay

15. Workers shall be paid a premium called "Over Water Pay" of 8¢ an hour for each full hour (over three-quarters of an hour shall be regarded as a full hour) during which they are actually working over water which is more than 4 feet deep from the static water level provided this shall not apply to work done on or from a permanent fixed platform. This premium shall not rank for overtime, pay for Public Holidays (whether worked or not), vacation leave, sick leave or in calculation of any other premiums or fringe benefits. A worker shall not be entitled to this premium as well as height pay and/or working in water pay but shall be entitled to whichever is highest.

Subsistence Allowance

16. A worker who is normally employed by an Employer in or around the town or city where he ordinarily lives and who is requested by the Employer to go to and work at some other place at such a distance that the worker cannot reasonably return home each night will be paid a subsistence allowance of \$8 a night whilst he is so working unless he is transported home each night by the Employer with an additional 50¢ if a worker is required to stay overnight in any of the following areas

- the North Coast from Montego Bay to Ocho Rios, Negril, Mandeville, Ewarton, Nain and Maggotty.

Night Premium

17. Workers who are required by their Employers to work between 6:00 p.m. and 6:00 a.m. (except watchmen) and are not entitled to overtime pay for such work, will be paid a night premium of 12½% of their single time rate for such work. This does not apply on Saturdays and Sundays.

Leaders Rates

18. Any worker who is designated by the Employer as a charge hand or leading hand and who is placed in charge of a working crew or gang, and who also performs work in his regular job classification, shall during that time be paid a "leaders rate" of 10¢ an hour, in addition to his regular rate of pay. Craftsmen or tradesmen working with helpers or assistants are not a crew or gang for this purpose.

Holidays with Pay (Vacation)

19. (a) Every worker will be granted holidays with pay in accordance with The Holidays with Pay Order 1973 except that the entitlement shall be one day for every 20 normal working days worked by him but not more than 12 days in respect of each year.

(b) Each worker who has completed 12 or more years continuous service with the same Employer will be granted one additional normal working week's holiday with pay, in addition to the holiday with pay for which provision is made in The Holidays with Pay Order 1973, in respect of each complete year's (January to December) service with the same Employer. A worker's employment with a particular Employer shall not be considered to be continuous unless such worker has actually worked for such Employer for at least 200 days in each calendar year (January to December).

Sick Leave with Pay

20. Sick leave with pay will be granted in accordance with the Holidays with Pay Order 1973 except that the entitlement shall be one day for every 20 normal working days worked by him but not more than 12 days in respect of each year.

New Job Classifications

21. An Employer may require the establishment of new and different job classifications other than those listed in the Schedule hereto. It is the Employer's right to establish the rate of pay for new job classifications by using his best judgement in good faith to set such rates by reference to and in the most proper relationship to other rates paid for comparable jobs. However it is agreed that the Employers may in their sole discretion establish such new classifications and determine the rates of pay for them subject only to the following conditions: -

- (1) that no such new job classification shall receive a rate of pay lower than the standard rate specified in the Schedule hereto for a labourer and also that all workers placed in a new job classification shall be paid not less than the rate for the said job classification.
- (2) the Employer shall notify the Joint Industrial Council within fourteen days of such new job classification and the rates fixed by him for such classification and the Unions shall have the right within 14 days thereafter to require negotiation of such rate, such negotiations to take place within thirty days after such new job classification is established.
- (3) Nothing in this Agreement is to preclude any Employer from agreeing on higher or other rates.

Seniority

22. In matters relating to promotion, demotion, transfer, lay-off, termination of employment and re-hiring the following principles shall govern: -

- (a) It is the responsibility of the Employer to maintain the highest level of efficiency; therefore the Employers must be the ones to judge the requirements of any job and the ability of any worker or candidate for employment to fulfil the requirements of any job. In exercising this judgment, skill, competence, efficiency and merit of the workers or candidates shall govern.
- (b) Where, in the judgment of the Employer, two or more workers or candidates are equally suitable in all respects for promotion or retention, the worker with the longest continuous service with the Employer shall be given preference.
- (c) If a worker has good reason to believe that he has not been given fair consideration, he or she may present his or her case for investigation through the Grievance Procedure.

End-of-Project Bonus

23. Each worker will, on completion of his work on each project, be paid compensation for the loss of his employment, to be known as an "End-of-Project Bonus", of 15% of the total of his earnings from and after 1st April 1975 at the single time basic wage rates set out in the schedule hereto on such project subject to the following conditions:

- (a) The Unions agree to co-operate in maintaining a high standard of productivity and in controlling absenteeism.
- (b) No End-of-Project bonus shall be payable on any project on earnings during any calendar month during which there is any

strike, slow-down or other interference with work on such project.

- (c) No End-of-Project bonus shall be payable to any probationary worker whose employment is terminated prior to the completion of his probationary period.
- (d) The End-of-Project bonus shall be paid to each worker including task workers in a lump sum within and not later than sixty days of the termination of his employment on each project.
- (e) All amounts paid by any Employer to any worker as End-of-Project bonus at any time shall be deducted from any redundancy payment or amount due in respect of notice of termination or any other compensation for loss of employment whatsoever which may become due and payable by such Employer to such worker, for example, as is provided in the case of Redundancy Payments, by Section 14 of The Employment (Termination & Redundancy Payments) Act 1974.
- (f) Any dispute regarding the amount or payment or non-payment of any End-of-Project bonus shall be submitted to the grievance procedure.
- (g) This clause shall not apply to any project which has been completed before the date of this agreement.

Severance Pay

24. Redundancy payments will be made in accordance with The Employment (Termination & Redundancy Payments) Act 1974 and the foregoing clause.

No Strikes or Lockouts

25. There shall be no strikes, slowdowns or other work stoppages or interference with work or production and the Unions agree that they will not authorise, sanction, approve, instigate or assist any of the same.

J.I.C. Constitution

26. This Agreement shall be read conjointly with the Constitution of the Joint Industrial Council and in no way supersedes it.

Duties of Delegates and Unions in Unauthorised Strikes

27. If any strike, which is contrary to the provisions of the preceding clauses, shall occur all Union delegates, stewards, and other representatives amongst the workers and the officers of the Unions shall in good faith use their best endeavours at all times during such strikes to persuade all workers to resume normal work.

Equipment to be Maintained during Strike

28. The Unions agree that if an Employer so requests sufficient workers will continue to work during any strike as are needed to maintain and protect property and equipment from damage or deterioration and the Unions agree to direct and authorise sufficient workers so to do.

Grievance Procedure

29. (a) All complaints, grievances and disputes concerning any alleged violation of or non-compliance with this Agreement or concerning the conditions of employment of the workers (but not including any desired or proposed changes in this Agreement nor any demands for increase of pay or otherwise involving cost to the Employers) shall be submitted to the following procedure:

FIRST STEP: A worker may present his grievance or complaint to his Supervisor within not more than three working days after the alleged incident or incidents which gave rise to the same or discovery of the grievance, PROVIDED that grievances arising out of discharges and dismissals shall be initiated in the Second Step. The aggrieved worker may be accompanied by or present his grievance through his Union delegate if he so desires. If the disposition of the complaint, grievance or dispute by the

Supervisor in this First Step is not satisfactory then the matter may be taken up under the next Step.

SECOND STEP: In case the disposition under the First Step is not satisfactory, the worker involved may present his complaint, grievance or dispute to the site manager or the site engineer on which he is working within five working days after the disposition of the same by the Supervisor or in the case of a discharge or dismissal within seven working days of the discharge or dismissal. The aggrieved worker may be accompanied by and present his grievance through his Union delegate or a representative of the Union who is not one of the regular workers of the Employer if the Union so wishes. If the disposition of the grievance by the Manager in this Second Step is not satisfactory, then,

THIRD STEP: The Union shall put the complaint, grievance or dispute in writing and send the same to the Employer within fourteen working days after the disposition of the same by the site manager or site engineer under the Second Step. This written grievance shall then be discussed between the chief executive officer of the Employer or his nominee and a representative of the Union who shall not be one of the regular workers of the Employer but who may be accompanied at such discussions by one or more of the Union delegates if either the Union or the Employer so wishes. If the disposition of the grievance in this Third Step is not satisfactory, then,

FOURTH STEP: The written grievance may be referred by either the Employer or the Union to the Council within not more than fourteen working days after the disposition under the Third Step.

FIFTH STEP: If no solution is reached in the Council either side shall have the right to require within not more than fourteen working days of the termination of negotiations in the Council that the matter be placed

before a suitable independent and mutually agreed arbitrator whose decision shall be final and binding on all parties. The terms of reference to be placed before the arbitrator shall be mutually agreed.

(b) At each Step, the Employer's representative will consider and give the dispositions provided for under this Grievance Procedure within five working days after the presentation of such grievances and if a disposition is not made in this time the grievance may be carried forward into the next Step.

(c) Any grievance which is not taken up or pursued within the time limits mentioned above shall be regarded as having been abandoned.

Dismissals

30. If an Employer shall dismiss a worker and the justification of the dismissal shall have been arbitrated and the arbitrator shall have found that the dismissal was not justified and the Union shall have demanded compensation and/or reinstatement for such worker and no agreement thereon with the Employer shall have been reached and such dispute has been negotiated at the Ministry of Labour under the Chairmanship of one of the Conciliation Officers of the Ministry and no agreement shall have been reached then and only in these circumstances, the Unions, the Employer and the workers shall be relieved from Clause 25 hereof and the workers shall be free to strike and the Employer to lock out in respect of such disputes.

Special Projects

31. (a) Workers engaged in the construction of Special Projects shall, with effect from 1st April 1975, be paid wages ten per centum higher than the rates set out in the Schedule hereto.

(b) For the purpose of this clause "Special Projects" are:

- (i) High rise buildings of more than 8 floors (including the ground floor)
- (ii) Hotels with 200 rooms or more
- (iii) Reclamation of land from the sea by dredging
- (iv) The Transshipment Port Project, Kingston, of The Port Authority

Premium Industries

32. (a) The owners of certain industries (known colloquially as "Premium Industries") have agreed with one or more Unions that they will stipulate with any contractors engaged by them to do certain construction work that they should pay specific rates of pay and accord particular fringe benefits which are higher than those agreed by the Joint Industrial Council. Nothing in this Agreement is intended to prevent any Contractor from paying any specific rates and according particular fringe benefits which may be so stipulated.

(b) The following have been recognised as Premium Industries:

- (i) Industrial buildings or plant within the plant compounds of one of the alumina or bauxite companies.
- (ii) Cement factories
- (iii) Oil refineries
- (iv) Electricity generating stations for Jamaica Public Service Co., Ltd.

Voluntary Check-Off

33. The Employer will make deductions for union dues for any of the Unions who are signatories to this Agreement and which has been recognised by the Employer as the sole bargaining agent for the workers on any particular building site, from the wages of the workers who authorise the Employer to do so in writing in such form as the Employer may from time

to time approve and will pay over the same to such Union once per month. The Unions undertake that no interference or coercion will be exercised against any worker to give any such authority and that any such authority may be revoked at any time by any worker by notice in writing to the Employer.

THE SCHEDULE

ANNEXED

Employers' Side

Ted Warmington

R.W. Stewart

Lawson E. Francis

D.H.F. Stone

Workers' Side

Carlyle Dunkley

R.J. Purkiss

(for National Workers Union)

Lascelles H. Beckford

Barry Wright

(for Bustamante Industrial Trade Union)

Hopeton Caven

D. Creighton

(for Trades Union Congress)

Witness:

E. Parchment

S.A. Groves

Worker Delegates:

George Hemmings

Wilbert Meghie

Ezeikel Phillips

Hezekiah Mundy

Horace Campbell

Oscar Porter

Leonard Smith

Alvin Christian

Winston Barrett

Labon Johnson

Gerald Dawkins

Carlton Mighty

Sonny Cunningham

Tony Henry

H. Small

THE SCHEDULE

CATEGORIES	RATE OF PAY PER 8 HOUR DAY		
	Grade III	Grade II	Grade I
Asphalt Distributor Operator	-	\$16.20	-
Banksman	-	\$ 8.16	-
Bituminous Paving Machine Operator	-	\$17.46	-
Bituminous Machine Screed Operator	-	\$14.40	-
Bituminous Mixing Plant Operator	-	\$17.46	-
Blacksmith	-	\$10.875	-
Boilerman/Fireman	-	\$10.50	-
Bulldozers	-	\$14.625	-
Burner	-	\$10.687	-
Carpenter/Joiner	\$ 8.70	\$10.875	\$13.125
Chainman	-	\$ 8.00	-
Checker	-	\$ 8.175	-
Compressor, Power Plant & Air Track Operators	-	\$ 9.562	-
Concrete Screeder & Finisher	-	\$ 8.70	-
Cranes -			
Crawler & Truck	-	\$14.062	\$17.812
Overhead	-	\$10.687	-
Tower	-	\$14.062	\$17.812
Crusher Operator	-	\$ 9.187	-
Dumpers to 1½ cubic yards	-	\$ 8.325	-
Electrician	\$ 8.70	\$10.687	\$13.125
Elevator Construction/Installer	\$10.20	\$12.30	\$15.00
Excavators & Backhoe	-	\$14.062	\$17.812
Flagman	-	\$ 7.56	-

CATEGORIES	RATE OF PAY PER 8 HOUR DAY		
	Grade III	Grade II	Grade I
Front end loaders	-	\$14.625	-
Gateman	-	\$ 8.00	-
Grader Operator	-	\$14.062	-
Greaser/Oiler	-	\$ 8.175	-
Hoist Operator	-	\$ 8.30	-
Janitor	-	\$ 8.00	-
Labourer	-	\$ 8.00	-
Labourer (Asphalt/Bituminous)	-	\$12.60	-
Labourer using paving breaker, rock drill and other pneumatic and vibrator tools	-	\$ 9.187	-
Lagger/insulator	\$ 8.28	\$ 9.60	\$10.80
Low Boy Operator	-	\$14.40	-
Lute Man (Asphalt/Bituminous)	-	\$13.50	-
Maintenance Man (field service minor repairs)	-	\$12.187	-
Mason	\$ 8.70	\$10.125	\$12.00
Mixer Operator to 21/14	-	\$ 8.30	-
over 21/14	-	\$ 9.187	-
Painter	\$ 8.70	\$10.125	\$12.00
Piling hand/hammerman	-	\$ 9.75	-
Piling Winch Operator	-	\$13.125	-
Pipe Layer	-	\$ 8.30	-
Plant Mechanic (Machinist) (able to carry out com- plete overhaul and re- pairs to contractor's equipment including use of lathe etc.	\$ 9.375	\$12.187	\$13.875

CATEGORIES	RATE OF PAY PER 8 HOUR DAY		
	Grade III	Grade II	Grade I
Plant Mechanic (Overhaul) (able to carry out complete overhaul and repairs to contractor's equipment)	\$ 8.512	\$11.625	\$13.312
Plumber	\$ 8.70	\$10.687	\$13.125
Pump Attendant	-	\$ 9.375	-
Ramming Machine Operator	-	\$ 9.187	-
Roller Operator (Hand Vibrating self propelling, Asphalt/Bitu- minous)	-	\$ 9.90	-
Roller (Vibratory smooth/ rubber tyres)	-	\$10.312	-
Rubber tired tractor operator with attachments	-	\$ 9.36	-
Sandblaster	-	\$10.125	-
Scaffolder	\$ 8.30	\$ 8.70	\$11.625
Self propelled scraper operator	-	\$14.625	-
Sheeter	-	\$ 9.75	-
Sheet metal worker	\$ 8.70	\$ 9.75	\$10.875
Sideman	-	\$ 8.175	-
Steel bending/cutting Machine Operator	-	\$11.625	-
Steel Erector/Rigger	\$10.125	\$10.875	\$12.187
Steel Fixer/Bender	\$ 8.30	\$ 9.00	\$11.625
Stresser	-	\$ 9.562	\$12.187
Tack Welder	-	\$10.687	-
Tiler	-	\$ 9.937	\$10.687
Trailer attendant	-	\$ 8.175	-

CATEGORIES	RATE OF PAY PER 8 HOUR DAY		
	Grade III	Grade II	Grade I
Trenching machine Operator	-	\$13.62	-
Trucks - Service, fuel, light up to 5 tons (including pick-ups & land rovers	-	\$ 9.562	-
Over 5 tons (including heavy duty dump trucks)	-	\$10.687	-
Welder	-	\$12.562	-
Winchman	-	\$ 8.30	-
Watchman \$47.80 per week of 6 shifts not exceeding 15 hours per shift (including Saturdays and Sundays)			

Notes:

1. The agreed rate is the daily rate. All other rates are calculated from the daily rates.
2. When only one rate is shown for a category, it means that there are no grades in that category.
3. When only two rates are shown for a category, it means that there is no grade in that category for which no rate is shown.
4. In the case of work carried out by task and paid for on a measurement basis, the new task rates should reflect the new wage rates set out in the above schedule, by adjusting the labour rate content of the task rate by the percentage increase for the same category of work.

**SHARES OF THE MORTGAGE MARKET BY INSTITUTIONS FOR THE FIRST AND SECOND QUARTERS
1975 and 1976**

APPENDIX IV B-1

Institution	March 1975		June 1975		March 1976		June 1976	
	Amount (\$)	Percent- age						
Building Societies	4,201,750	31.86	3,067,060	26.29	4,386,909	31.94	4,042,971	39.69
Life Insurance	1,534,000	11.41	1,417,000	12.15	1,610,370	11.72	842,395	8.27
Trust Companies	798,020	5.94	493,950	4.23	372,900	2.71	841,052	8.26
Finance Companies and Merchant Banks	2,905,730	21.62	3,190,525	27.35	1,227,950	8.94	229,281	2.25
Government	1,986,520	14.78	1,153,780	9.90	3,319,982	24.17	1,652,705	16.23
Non-Financial	1,000,544	7.44	1,037,900	8.90	1,750,644	12.75	1,226,248	12.04
Others	934,531	6.95	1,304,122	11.18	1,066,774	7.77	1,350,883	13.26
TOTAL	13,441,095	100.00	11,664,427	100.00	13,735,529	100.00	10,185,535	100.00

Data are obtained from Records of the Registrar of Titles

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**THE PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NEW MORTGAGES BY SIZE GROUPINGS FOR MARCH AND JUNE
QUARTERS 1975/76**

APPENDIX IV B-2

Size	March 1975	June 1975	March 1976	June 1976
Less than \$5,500	2.70	2.99	2.85	4.10
\$5,000-\$14,999	22.49	25.24	15.15	20.44
\$15,000-\$29,999	30.34	27.31	32.96	40.89
\$30,000 and over	44.47	44.46	49.05	34.57
TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: National Savings Review, Vol. 5(1)

APPENDIX IV B-3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NEW MORTGAGE LOANS TO GEOGRAPHIC AREAS
IN THE MARCH AND JUNE QUARTERS 1976

Size	Kingston, St. Andrew and Clarendon		Other Parishes		TOTAL	
	Amount (\$m)	Percentage	Amount (\$m)	Percentage	Amount (\$m)	Percentage
March 1976						
Less than \$5,000	221,171	1.62	169,943	1.24	391,114	2.86
\$5,000-\$14,999	1,324,840	9.65	755,010	5.43	2,079,850	15.08
\$15,000-\$29,999	3,614,490	26.36	912,800	6.65	4,527,290	33.01
\$30,000 and over	3,958,075	28.81	2,779,200	20.24	6,737,275	49.05
TOTAL	9,118,576	66.44	4,616,953	33.56	13,735,529	100.00
June 1976						
Less than \$5,000	242,883	2.39	175,492	1.72	418,375	4.11
\$5,000-\$14,999	1,528,701	15.00	552,854	5.43	2,081,555	20.43
\$15,000-\$29,999	3,440,591	33.79	724,100	7.10	4,164,691	40.89
\$30,000 and over	2,536,754	24.91	984,160	9.66	3,520,914	34.57
TOTAL	7,748,929	76.09	2,436,606	23.91	10,185,535	100.00

Source: National Savings Review, Vo. 5(1)

APPENDIX IV B-4

CREDIT FOR HOME PURCHASES AND IMPROVEMENTS (J\$000)

	Feb 77	Change Over		Percentage Distribution		
		Jan 77	Feb 76	Feb 77	Jan 77	Feb 76
Outstanding	19,572	- 65	-2,457	17.4	16.7	16.8
New Business	932	-138	- 404	12.8	14.0	13.6

Source: Monthly Review, April 1977, Research Dept. Bank of Jamaica

NEW MORTGAGE LOANS CLASSIFIED BY SIZE AND TYPE OF INSTITUTION FOR QUARTERS SEPTEMBER 1975-JUNE 1976

	Under \$5,000		\$5,000-\$14,999		\$15,000-\$29,999		\$30,000 and over		TOTAL	
	No.	Amount	No.	Amount	No.	Amount	No.	Amount	No.	Amount
September										
Building Societies	15	42,880	99	1,041,693	95	1,921,240	13	454,500	222	3,460,313
Life Insurance Companies	4	9,350	11	120,086	30	666,675	21	1,031,625	66	1,827,736
Trust Companies	4	12,900	29	265,783	30	643,000	7	590,000	70	1,511,683
Finance Companies and Merc. Banks	3	7,100	95	994,500	8	156,436	9	3,771,145	115	4,929,180
Government	5	14,048	16	127,154	8	167,400	39	3,127,432	68	3,436,034
Non-Financial Com.	15	38,046	37	297,400	22	442,880	9	849,690	83	1,628,016
Others	49	114,338	50	411,700	19	359,900	9	604,820	127	1,500,758
TOTAL	95	248,662	337	3,258,316	212	4,357,530	107	10,429,212	751	18,293,720
December										
Building Societies	30	86,246	96	945,800	101	2,104,700	19	1,015,700	246	4,152,446
Life Insurance Companies	-	-	5	52,500	35	738,034	19	869,100	59	1,659,634
Trust Companies	4	11,000	24	219,600	31	659,500	4	260,000	63	1,150,100
Finance Companies and Merc. Banks	1	1,600	6	61,500	3	56,000	4	2,499,000	14	2,618,100
Government	4	13,700	61	579,350	5	100,560	18	2,346,500	88	2,040,110
Non-Financial Com.	23	56,721	26	207,683	10	195,700	8	328,152	67	788,256
Others	55	131,300	48	380,574	19	379,400	10	543,300	132	1,434,574
TOTAL	117	300,567	266	2,447,007	204	4,233,894	82	7,861,752	669	14,843,220
March										
Building Societies	24	67,996	82	793,743	127	2,867,470	21	657,700	264	4,386,909
Life Insurance Companies	6	23,775	4	45,595	18	384,000	22	1,157,000	50	1,610,370
Trust Companies	6	17,900	8	63,000	9	166,000	4	126,000	27	372,900
Finance Companies and Merc. Banks	1	1,000	5	53,120	3	63,830	9	1,110,000	18	1,227,950
Government	50	88,167	56	520,195	16	327,920	22	2,383,700	144	3,319,982
Non-Financial Com.	28	60,750	26	228,724	23	470,670	6	990,500	83	1,750,644
Others	62	131,526	48	375,473	12	247,400	7	312,375	129	1,066,774
TOTAL	177	391,114	229	2,079,850	218	4,527,290	91	6,737,275	715	13,735,529
June										
Building Societies	35	108,411	62	639,260	120	2,524,300	24	771,000	241	4,042,971
Life Insurance Companies	-	-	6	60,395	24	464,500	9	317,500	39	842,395
Trust Companies	3	9,900	13	113,500	20	427,700	7	289,952	43	841,052
Finance Companies and Merc. Banks	1	3,500	12	121,881	-	-	3	103,900	16	229,281
Government	59	94,045	40	346,809	13	144,791	15	967,060	127	1,652,705
Non-Financial Com.	19	49,294	49	421,439	10	219,400	7	536,125	85	1,226,248
Others	64	153,235	46	378,271	13	284,000	10	535,377	133	1,350,883
TOTAL	181	418,375	228	2,081,555	200	4,164,691	75	3,520,914	1,684	10,185,535

Source: National Savings Review, Vo. (5)

APPENDIX VI -1

CONSTRUCTION SECTOR

	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76
Purchase value of construction, contract prices								
74=100	325,686	383,995	329,214	347,397	279,312	260,225	248,712	192,714
% Contri- bution to G.D.P.	16.7	17.8	15.0	14.7	12.2	11.5	11.2	9.3

SOURCE: The Labour Force 1976, Department of Statistics, Jamaica

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS LOCAL TEAM

Mr. Calford Scott	Town Planning Department
Mr. Stan Kennedy	Urban Upgrading Project
Mrs. Alicia Taylor	Urban Upgrading Project
Mr. Junior Reynolds	National Housing Trust
Mr. Clive Laidley	Office of Ministry of Housing
Mrs. Faye Johnson	Urban Development Corporation
Miss Pauline McHardy	National Planning Agency
Mr. David Levermore	Jamaica Mortgage Bank
Mrs. V. C. McLarty	Sugar Industry (Housing)
Mrs. Yvette Hinds	Department of Statistics
Mr. D. J. Morris	Ministry of Local Government
Dr. Orlando Patterson	Office of the Prime Minister

PERSONS INTERVIEWED

Mr. Willard B. Sammas	Jamaica Mortgage Bank
Mr. Stanley D. Moore	Jamaica Co-op Credit Union League, Ltd
Mr. Trevor Sterling	Jamaica Co-op Credit Union League
Mr. Rivi Gardner	Sugar Industry (Housing)
Mr. Carlton Cunningham	Sugar Industry (Housing)
Mr. Hema Perera	Building Society Association
Mr. Michael Webb	Urban Upgrading Project
Mr. Leroy Walfor	Workers Bank
Mrs. Angela Herron	Ministry of Housing
Hermine McKenzie	Dept. of Sociology, University of the West Indies
Carl Stone	Dept. of Political Science, UWI
Ruttie Mitchell	Ministry of Agriculture
Gloria Tapper	Ministry of Agriculture
Ted Warmington	Master Builders Associates
R. J. Pressey	Quantity Surveyor, Jamaica Mortgage Bank
Fred Kooyman	Sites and Services, Housing Ministry
John Campbell	Sites and Services, Housing Ministry
Roger Foster	Sites and Services, Housing Ministry
Alan Eyre	Dept. of Geography UWI
Mr. Carl Wright	Building Society Assn.
Jerry Odwin-Hinds	Jamaica Nutrition Holdings Limited
Ralph Brown	Minister for Local Government
Glaister Duncan	Permanent Secretary - Department of Local Government

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