UNITED NATIONS
COMMON COUNTRY ASSESSMENT
SAMOA

REPORT

2002

Prepared by the United Nations Country Team
Samoa
It gives me great pleasure to present Samoa’s first Common Country Assessment. The introduction of the Common Country Assessment (CCA) is an important step forward for UN Country Teams worldwide. It is part of the overall programme of UN reform, launched by the Secretary General in 1997, with the aim of preparing the organisation to meet the challenges of the 21st century. The purpose of the CCA is, by working collaboratively with the countries they serve, for UN Country Teams to identify national development achievements and highlight key challenges for the future. This process is designed to be participatory, dynamic and continuous, to reflect agreements emerging from recent international development conventions, as well as the priorities of the national government concerned. In this way, the CCA provides the basis for a more coordinated approach to development assistance, and encourages greater cooperation and partnership within and between UN agencies.

Samoa’s CCA is the culmination of a process that began in January 2001 with the establishment of a CCA Steering Committee. Data collected using desk research was augmented by a series of consultative forums with development partners and stakeholders. As a result of these meetings, consensus was reached on the identification of nine key issues. These are: governance; privatisation; trade and international development; agriculture, fisheries and rural development; food security and nutrition; poverty alleviation; employment; education; and health and water sanitation. The CCA categorises these issues into three broad thematic areas: governance and economic management, food security and poverty reduction, and social services and human development.

Under the theme of governance and economic management, the CCA found considerable progress has been made in recent years. Of particular note are the introduction of performance budgeting and monitoring, and the adoption of the Forum Economic Ministers Meeting (FEMM) principles of public sector accountability. These elements have resulted in greater transparency and responsibility in the allocation and use of public funds. Other important milestones have been the successful consultative process now in place to formulate national economic policies and strategies, and the new corporate regulatory framework aimed at improving the performance and timeliness of State Owned Enterprise (SOE) reporting. Progress has also been made towards trade liberalization with the introduction of new trade policies aimed at enhancing export competitiveness particularly in fishing, light manufacturing and tourism. Nevertheless, much remains to be achieved in terms of the diversification of cash crops, increasing value added agro processing and reducing vulnerability to external shocks and natural disasters. Future priorities identified under this theme include the need to balance subsistence and export production, and to build institutional capacity that will enable government and development partners to move ahead with the implementation of reform programme already initiated.

The section on food security and poverty reduction explains how natural disasters and the depletion of inshore marine resources have severely decreased subsistence security in protein procurement. Although there is a general absence of hunger and under-nutrition in the country, protein energy malnutrition amongst the under 5 year olds has emerged as an increasing concern.
The replacement of traditional foods such as taro and fish with poor nutritional imports like mutton flaps and turkey tails has also resulted in the increased prevalence of obesity and cardiovascular disease, particularly in adults. Controversy remains over the variables and benchmarks used to measure poverty, but results from the 1997 Household Income Survey suggest 50 percent of households do not have sufficient daily food expenditure to meet their dietary requirements, and one in three households cannot meet their basic needs. **Future priorities for this theme include the need to increase the capacity of domestic food production and to improve the monitoring of poverty over time.**

For the theme of social services and human development, the situation for employment, education, health and water sanitation have been assessed. Despite economic growth and stability in the country, the outlook for formal employment appears to have declined. This is a worrying trend given the number of school leavers entering the job market every year. Although significant educational improvements have been made at all levels, supported by donor funding, the CCA found school leavers are still under-equipped in literacy and numeracy skills to meet the challenges of participating in a modern global economy. In terms of healthcare, the eradication of communicable diseases and the success of village health committees are notable achievements. Further work is needed, however, to increase public awareness of activities that can help prevent such threats as lifestyle diseases, dengue fever and the spread of HIV/AIDS in the country. Greater information, education and communication are also vital to the improved management and conservation of water supplies. **Future priorities under this theme include upgrading village primary education teaching and supporting and expanding primary health care systems at community level.**

In addition to specific findings in the thematic areas identified by the CCA, the process has also served to highlight a number of cross cutting issues that need to be addressed in an integrated and multidisciplinary manner if future challenges are to be met. These have been identified as the environment, disaster management, gender, children and youth and information technology.

The overexploitation of environmental resources currently jeopardises domestic productivity and the frequent occurrence of natural disasters and prevalence of invasive species further threatens the country’s valuable biodiversity. The indiscriminate disposal of wastes is also an increasing concern with the amount solid waste rising dramatically, limited land available for landfill and the lack of main sewerage system in the town area. Future challenges include the updating of the National Environment Management Strategy and improved linkages between this and national development strategies. A related issue is that of disaster preparedness. All sectors have shown their susceptibility to past cyclones and efforts are now being made to improve weather forecasting, increase public awareness and preparedness, enforce building codes, and diversify many areas of the economy in order to reduce their vulnerability to disasters.

In terms of gender issues, progress has been made. In comparing men and women, women appear to be faring well with relation to education achievement and health. Their participation in business, government and formal employment is also on the rise. Much of this could be attributed to both governmental and nongovernmental efforts by women’s NGOs, community women’s committees and the work of the Ministry of Women’s Affairs. However, the CCA also
draws attention to women’s vulnerabilities in terms of domestic violence and single female headed households and their lack of participation in decision-making activities. Children and young people face similar challenges socially and economically. Of particular concern are the number of teenage pregnancies, suicide, unemployment and the low skills levels of school leavers. The vulnerabilities of this group need priority consideration in all areas, particularly health, education and employment.

Finally, role of Information Communication Technology (ICT) is critical to the development of all sectors and managing entry into the global economy. Improved application of ICT can greatly assist in the management of education and health systems as well as the private sector through the development of e-commerce and access to global market trends. The CCA highlights the acute shortage of ICT human resource skills in Samoa and prioritises programmes to address this issue.

In summary, the message emerging from Samoa’s 2002 CCA is that considerable strides forward have been made in all three of the thematic areas covered by the CCA particularly governance and economic management as well as education, gender issues and health care. Whilst challenges remain in other areas under the theme of food security and poverty reduction such as the generation of employment opportunities, domestic food security and the management of the environment, in general, progress is being made in the right direction and is on track. Efforts now need to be made to support and sustain this trend. This will necessarily involve the upgrading of institutional capacity, improvements in the availability of up-to-date, accurate sources of data and enhanced public awareness of development issues. These areas will need to be given additional focus in the UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF), for which this document serves as a foundation.

The CCA marks the beginning of a new on-going development assessment process for Samoa. It looks at key issues and cross cutting themes and attempts to better integrate economic, environmental and social priorities and helps to identify linkages, common concerns and priorities. The CCA process has also fostered greater understanding between UN Country teams, development and government partners. This is certainly a foundation that will serve as a solid base for future development planning. I wish to congratulate all those who have been involved in this process and welcome feedback comments from interested stakeholders.

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for Operational Activities in Samoa
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This Common Country Assessment Report is the culmination of consultation and contributions from several individuals, organizations and UN Specialized Agencies, Programmes and Funds on the development priorities of Samoa. The National Steering Committee, comprising key representatives of the Government, NGOs, private sector and the UN, which was selected to spearhead its preparation, has also keenly and thoroughly reviewed it. The task was made easier by the existence of a number of key policy level documents such as the Government's latest *Strategy for the Development of Samoa, 2002-2004*, being one of the most important, which formed the foundation for the process to its completion. The CCA for Samoa will have a significant impact on reducing the amount of time and effort exerted by the individual agencies in assessment of the priority needs of the country and indeed will provide a clear framework within which the UN System as a whole can work in the delivery of its technical and resource assistance to the country.

The following key representatives of the United Nations System serving Samoa have endorsed the Common Country Assessment Report as a complete representation of the development condition in the country, and as such, agree to it being used as the basis for the development of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). I commend their hard work and thank them for the commitment to continue working together for our Pacific Island Countries.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Common County Assessment Process

The Common Country Assessment (CCA) is a country-based process for reviewing and assessing the national development situation and identifying key issues as a basis for policy dialogue and forms the foundation for the ensuing United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). The CCA has been prepared in close collaboration with the Government of Samoa and other key partners from the donor community, civil society, and the private sector. All UN organizations present in Samoa, which together comprise the United Nations Country Team (UNCT), participated in the CCA process. The UN Agencies located in Fiji but whose programmes cover Samoa, also contributed to the process. The specific objective of the CCA process is to enable all partners to achieve a shared and deeper knowledge of the key development challenges facing Samoa, based on a shared in-depth understanding of the country’s development situation. One of the central aims of the CCA is to ensure that the UNCT and its planned programmes are broadly consistent with the strategic outcomes sought by the Government in its national development plans. The CCA process therefore ensured the full participation of government and selected community representatives in the consultative process, the assessment of the current situation including initiatives already undertaken and identification of key issues and challenges. It also took into account other available economic and social assessment and reviews of the Samoa economy.

2. Selected Thematic Groups and Areas and Cross Cutting Issues

The consultative process during the preparation of the CCA lead to the identification of the following thematic areas and cross cutting issues which have been deemed critical to the overall future economic and social development of Samoa. The thematic areas include:

Governance, Economic management, Community and Social Cohesion
1. Governance
2. Privatisation
3. Trade and International Developments
4. Agriculture, Fisheries and Rural Development

Food Security, Vulnerability and Poverty Reduction
1. Food Security and Nutrition
2. Poverty Alleviation

Social Services and Human Development
1. Employment
2. Education
3. Health and Water Sanitation

The cross cutting issues include:
1. Gender
2. Information Communications Technology
3. Children and Youth
4. Disaster Management
5. Environment
3 Thematic Areas

The key findings from the CCA process for each of the thematic and cross cutting issues are as follows.

Governance

Samoa has made considerable advances in the area of good governance, which has led to the introduction of new policies, processes and legislative framework for managing government finance and budgeting and also the improved oversight and monitoring of the operations of State Owned Enterprises (SOEs). These reforms are crucial given their focus on improving the efficiency of the core functions of the public agencies and on improving overall performance of government operations. However, much more needs to be done to ensure the new policies, processes and legislative framework are fully institutionalized. In this respect, development partners, will continue to support the government in institutional strengthening and capacity building, strengthening regulatory frameworks and to institutionalize the positive reform processes put in place in recent years.

Privatization

The new governance framework now introduced is seen by Government as a fundamental shift towards international best practices in the operation and oversight of SOEs. The new Act however has yet to come into force, as there are auxiliary pieces of legislations that must also be completed and passed as law. The challenge for the government and development partners is to move ahead swiftly with implementation. Much has been done particularly on public and stakeholder consultations to prepare the new governance framework and there is wide support for the goals and objectives as well as the operational framework envisioned in the new Act. The risk is that this momentum may be lost should there be further delays.

Trade and International Developments

Samoa’s development efforts in the area of trade both national and at the international level are considered relatively advanced compared to the current situation in other Pacific Island Countries. The proactive approach taken to move forward firstly with reforms to develop the private sector are seen as important prerequisites to developing and opening up Samoa's trading environment to the realities of the markets, will place Samoa in a good position to take on the competitive international trading environment promoted through a number of regional free trading areas but also the onset of globalization. The key challenges will be the ability of the economy to support and develop export opportunities particularly in fishing, light manufacturing and tourism in the event of what some predict as a gradual tapering off of remittances in the longer term. As Samoa progresses towards accession to the WTO, it faces the challenges common to other Pacific island economies such as dealing with the adverse effects of the erosion of preferential market access, how to minimize social costs through analyses of price changes on the less advantaged and changes in labour demand. As well it needs to ensure that it achieves export competitiveness if Samoa is to break into new niche markets or establish value added processing for existing export industries.

Agriculture, Fisheries and Rural Development

Village and commercial agriculture will continue to be an important sector of the Samoan economy. Village agriculture will provide food security and support to the agro-based industries such as coconut cream, oil and desiccated coconut that have been major export products in the past years.
The commercial development of many of the crops traditionally farmed in Samoa, as well as new ones, further encouragement of commercial livestock production and support of commercial fisheries will support more processing and added value of products on island for export and will generate employment opportunities in this sector. The continuation to completion of institutional strengthening of both public agencies and private operations in this sector especially in the areas of extension services support, production and quality control and marketing will in the medium term greatly assist in the development of agriculture and agro based industries in Samoa.

Food Security and Nutrition

Agriculture, including forestry and fishing, continue to provide the food and other materials necessary for population survival and well-being. However, there is some concern about the capacity of agriculture to meet the needs of future generations. The challenges in Samoa come from population growth, increasing demand for food and the threat to agricultural resources of land, water and environment. The underlying structural changes in Samoa’s primary sector are a concern. The variation in income levels, the lack of access to land for subsistence particularly for urban dwellers, the shrinking pool of family labour, are causal factors to some families’ inability to maintain a balanced diet. The health problems related to nutrition and dietary deficiencies will become more prevalent in Samoa unless the Government and community leaders are fully committed to addressing the root causes of these problems. In addition to public awareness programmes already put in place, further action may be needed such as placing a ban on the importation of low nutritional value food products or increasing tariffs on such products to discourage their consumption.

Poverty Alleviation

Whilst there have been no specific policies for poverty alleviation, the Samoan Government has been aggressively pursuing major rural development initiatives to improve access to and quality of infrastructure and services in education and health. The current Samoa Development Strategy 2002-2004 (SDS) also reflects the strong focus of providing opportunities for all through the improvement of the rural village economy as well as a strengthening of social institutions. Also important are the close linkages to Government development plans of the development assistance provided through the regional organizations, non-governmental organizations and other development partners.

It will be important for economic growth to continue and for government to develop and implement policies that support growth while at the same time establish a firm basis for identifying and assisting the most vulnerable groups. Improving basic education and facilitating private sector operations in a non-distortive economic environment are critical. Employment growth in both the formal and non formal sectors are key outcomes that the government will focus on. Government will need to continue to provide an enabling environment for private sector development in order to generate more jobs and incomes. Specific programmes aimed at reducing vulnerability to poverty should be pursued. Well-targeted intervention by the UN agencies to support these programmes will be crucial over the coming years.

Employment

The bulk of the economically active population recorded by the 1991 census worked primarily to grow, gather or catch food and totalled over 37,000 persons or some 66 percent of the labour force.

The ADB 2000 study found that data sources and available estimates, particularly with regard to employment categories, population growth and migration were incomplete or difficult to compare overtime. This makes the 2001 Census crucial as a means to validate sampling systems and as the
single most important future source for planning data across all sectors, with special application to health, education and human resource development.

**Education**

The present situation marks considerable progress in education and training. Samoa has achieved remarkably well gender-wise in education. The strategic planning and policy framework supported by both the government and its development partners in concert with processes to strengthen stakeholder involvement, institutional strengthening, and infrastructure development are the basis for much improved educational services. Challenges in the medium to long term include improved teacher quality, implementation of new and revised curriculum for the various levels of education and to ensure education for all through non-formal and second chance learning. Current cooperation with UNDP is expected to result in the establishment of the National Training Authority which will coordinate all training available, set qualification standards and regulatory measures for training providers.

**Health and Water Sanitation**

The priority concern in the health sector is in improving health care services through strengthening primary and secondary prevention and treatment programmes for specific non-communicable diseases. There is also a need to improve efficiency of service delivery at the community level through strengthened planning, management and resource utilization.

A major health issue that remains is awareness raising and a drive to control diabetes and NCDs, as well as renewed thrust through community-based programmes (women’s committees) on old diseases. A high level of public education on HIV/AIDS is a high priority for a country where factors such as high STI prevalence, predominantly youthful population, and high migratory patterns place Samoa at risk of being heavily affected by the disease.

In a broad context the water resources sector suffers from fragmented management with both the DLSE and MAFFM having catchment responsibilities and little coordination between water users such as the Samoa Water Authority and EPC. The gathering of data for water resources planning and decision making lacks a coordinated approach.

Communities have an essential role in the development and protection of water resources and efforts must be made to ensure that they understand the changes that need to be effected and their involvement in the process.

Effluent from Apia has damaged the ecosystem of near shore waters and the reef on which the livelihood of many Samoans and existing and potential tourism depend. Public health risks are increasing with incidence of water borne disease in Apia considered to be higher than the rest of Samoa. To address this concern an ADB Apia sewerage project is in its planning stages.
The Cross Cutting Issues

Information and Communications Technology

Whilst there have been significant improvements in the range and quality of ICT infrastructure, the developmental benefits from such improvements require a clear national ICT strategy to coordinate the policy, regulatory, institutional and operational components and how they will contribute to addressing the developmental goals articulated in the Samoa Development Strategy, 2002-2004. The need to establish such a strategy has led to the set up of a national task force on ICT and a policy paper has been submitted for Cabinet’s consideration. The most critical ingredient, which Samoa will face in implementing a successful ICT strategy, will be its ability to spread the benefits of ICT to rural areas in order to make it work for improvement of social and economic life in the rural areas through knowledge of tides, market prices for example, and to rapidly build up a pool of ICT skills from both overseas recruitment programmes in the short-term and educational and training programmes in the medium to long-term. The educational and training programmes necessitate giving priority to incorporating ICT into the curriculum at all levels of primary and secondary schools.

Environment

Whilst there has been significant progress in the planning and management of environmental resources in Samoa, there is a need to consider institutional arrangements for the promotion of sustainable development and the corresponding capacity building in a number of areas including information dissemination through communications networks and public outreach, training, strategic planning, participatory consultations, provision of technical information as well as logistical support equipment and materials. Priority is to be given to the completion of all proposed policies under the National Environment Management Strategy as well as others in furthering the stand of legal instruments to enforce sustainable development approaches that prioritise environmental concerns and relearning again the sustainable use and husbandry of natural resources.

Disaster Management

Building on the experiences of recent natural disasters in the early 90s and the negative economic impact of the taro leaf blight and African Snail epidemic, the concept of National Disaster Management needs to be broadened to include both man-made and natural disasters. If this approach is accepted then priority needs to be accorded to the preparation of national disaster preparedness and contingency plans for all sectors especially at the community levels, considered vulnerable and at high risk. Another priority area is the rationalization of administrative responsibilities among key Government Departments for implementation of the proposed national disaster-preparedness and contingency plan as well as consideration of the key roles of non-government organizations.

Having endured the ravages of pest and disease infestation on major crops in recent years, there is a need for stricter quarantine procedures; these issues will be addressed under an ongoing project for capacity building in the Quarantine Division of MAFFM.

Gender

Gender equity has always been an integral part of national policy development; subsequently efforts have been concentrated on ensuring that gender issues are mainstreamed in the development process. Women community organisations played and will continue to play a pivotal role in the delivery of social services at village level as well as initiate economic activities for their families’ well being.
However, more work is needed to address women’s human rights including women’s legal rights; acts of violence against women; women’s access to land; and family law will need to be revisited and addressed.

**Children and Youth**

Having ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) on 29 November 1994, Samoa started to draft in 1998 its initial report on the implementation of the CRC but has yet to complete this. To date, a translation of the draft is submitted for approval to Cabinet before it can be submitted to the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (Geneva). In Samoa children’s issues are receiving more and more attention and are now part of the national political agenda. Also, youth in many countries including Samoa, are receiving attention. The active National Committee on Children and the CRC has started the national consultation on youth through the initiation of annual youth forums where the issues of concern and the opportunities towards solutions are being addressed. Whilst progress has been made in clarifying the problems and issues relating to children and youth in Samoa, provision of non-formal life skills training for school leavers would appear to be a critical area which needs immediate attention.

4. **The Way Forward**

The CCA report will be used as the common basis by the UN Agencies for finalizing the United Nations development Assistance Framework (UNDAF).

Consistent with the strategic outcomes and priorities set down by the government in its Strategy for the Development of Samoa, 2002-2004, and as a partner in addressing Samoa’s strategic challenges, the UN System organizations and agencies will be focusing their attention on the following areas, which will be delineated in the UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). As a result of the CCA process to date, it is anticipated that such areas would encompass, inter alia:

- Support towards the goals of good governance,
- Further support for primary health - CDs & NCDs, HIV/AIDS
- Improvement in non-formal & primary education,
- Human Rights
- Gender in development
- Agriculture and Food security,
- ICT specific intervention under the selected thematic areas,
- Poverty definition, reduction strategy, support to vulnerable groups
- Disaster Management and
- Environment.
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1. **INTRODUCTION**

1.1 **Background to the Common Country Assessment Process**

The Common Country Assessment (CCA) is an assessment of the development situation of Samoa undertaken by the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) in collaboration with the Government, other development partners and stakeholders. As well as providing an overview of the state of development in Samoa, particularly within the selected thematic areas and cross cutting issues, the CCA also identifies some of the key development issues and challenges facing the country that the UN system, along with other agencies and the government, need to address in their policies and programmes of assistance. One of the central aims of the CCA is to ensure that the UNCT and its planned programmes are broadly consistent with the strategic outcomes sought by the Government in its national development plans. The CCA process therefore ensured the full participation of government in the consultative process, the assessment of the current situation including initiatives already undertaken and identification of key issues and challenges, and it also took into account other available economic and social assessments and reviews of the Samoan economy.

The CCA has several specific purposes. Firstly, it provides the background for the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). As a shared basis of assessment of the development achievements and key challenges facing the Samoan economy amongst the UNCT, government and other development partners, it is planned that this will result in greater collaboration among the agencies and greater coherence in the overall programmes of assistance. It should be noted that this process is greatly assisted by a now established Government process of more timely production of its development plans conducted through an extensive consultative process. It is expected that the CCA will replace the situation analyses previously carried out by individual agencies as part of their preparations for a new country programme. Whilst the primary strategic focus for UN programmes will continue to be within its resources, comparative advantages and scope of activities, the CCA review may also highlight issues that are best addressed by development agencies outside the UN system.

The second purpose is that the CCA is expected to provide a common reference for information. Agreement on the appropriate data to be used both for the standard set of CCA indicators and the country-specific indicators of the development status of the country will facilitate more fruitful policy discussion and analysis.

Thirdly, the CCA provides the basis for an on-going dialogue on development issues, especially those on which it may be difficult to achieve a broad consensus. By creating a network of groups, the CCA process contributes to the resolution of any policy differences between the UN system and the government.

The CCA report is one output of the CCA process, which is considered important in itself. The CCA process is however, envisioned to be participatory, dynamic and continuous. Future updates of the CCA will incorporate what has been learned, continue to bring in the UN system organizations combined knowledge and new ideas, new or revised consensus with the government and other stakeholders.

The content of the CCA is also expected to reflect the consensus on development priorities and
strategies that are emerging from a range of recent international conventions and declarations. “Peace, security, human rights and development are now recognized as interdependent conditions for human progress”. The CCA should be “people centered” and take full account of such cross cutting issues as food security, vulnerability, gender, and information and communications. Where data is available, the CCA provides an outline of those groups regarded as most vulnerable.

The CCA process begun in Samoa in January 2001 under the guidance and administration of the UNDP and in collaboration with other UN agencies when the initial consultative meeting brought together the government, UNCT and other stakeholders from 21-23 November 2001 (List of Participants - APPENDIX V). A four-person CCA Steering Committee representing the Government, UNCT, NGOs and Chamber of Commerce, was established and charged with the overall responsibility. The Workshop participants were recalled to a meeting on 11 January 2001 to endorse the Workshop Report and recommendations. A two-day retreat followed in April 18-19, 2002 to review the draft CCA attended by government, private sector, UN Agencies, other development agencies, regional organizations, NGO’s and civil society. The UN agencies collaborated closely throughout the process through active participation and provision of briefing materials on their respective fields and activities. Local consultants were recruited to assist with the compilation of a draft CCA and to facilitate the consultative forums. Whilst the CCA process in terms of assessment and identification of key issues and challenges has been greatly assisted through the cooperation and support of both government, private sector and other development agencies, it is noteworthy that for a number of social sectors, reliable data are generally not available out of date or yet to be fully developed. A number of Government initiatives are now directed at this important area including the completion of the 2001 Census, the conduct of recent Labour Market Demand Surveys new Household Income and Expenditure Survey in 2002 and the development of a specific poverty alleviation framework and strategy.

The current CCA draws from the ADB 2000 Samoa Economic report, the 2002-2004 Strategy for the Development of Samoa, Government of Samoa LDC III, KVA Consult Samoa Poverty Profile 2001, and past studies conducted by the UN Agencies. The full list of references used is provided in the Appendix. The UNCT is most grateful for the support and cooperation it has received at various stages of the CCA process. The list of participants during the CCA process is attached to this report. The UNCT looks forward to a continuing partnership with government and all the stakeholders not only throughout future CCA processes but also as the cornerstone for a development approach towards the goals of peace and improved standards of welfare for the people of Samoa.

1.2 The General Setting

Samoa is a small open economy highly dependent on a narrow resource base that is limited to agriculture, tourism, small-scale manufacturing and fisheries. Samoa’s macroeconomic economic performance is highly dependent on external factors like other small Pacific Island Countries, in the form of commodity pricing, crop disease, weather and climate related shocks. The unique feature of Samoa’s culture and traditional way of life “the Faa-Samoa” provides a natural social network that enabled political and social stability and a more broad-based social achievement. However, it is also recognized that although these have hitherto been strongholds of Samoan society, these family-based support systems are in a state of change, and the vulnerability this brings to less well-resourced families needs to be addressed.

Based on the UNDP Human Development Index Samoa has one of the higher levels of social development rankings amongst Pacific Island Countries reflecting higher overall education and
health standards relative to other Pacific Countries. This, despite its Least Developed Country (LDC) status.

The Government is currently in the process of developing an appropriate framework for defining, measurement and monitoring of poverty for Samoa. However, preliminary studies using data from the Household Income and Expenditure Survey of 1997 indicate that one in three households do not have sufficient income to sustain an acceptable standard of weekly food diet expenditure with the majority of food poverty households living in rural areas. It has been argued however, that a more appropriate definition of poverty for Samoa will need to be defined more broadly in terms of opportunities given the unique social structure and culture of Samoa and also the impact of significant monetary support received through remittances from Samoans living abroad. The Government, with the assistance of the Asian Development Bank has commenced this task with a view to developing a specific poverty alleviation strategy and is expected to be completed in 2002.

In recent years the Government of Samoa has embarked on a program of structural reform. The aim of the reforms is to develop a more efficient and open economy as it progresses towards accession to the World Trade Organization (WTO). The programme has focused on reforms within the public sector, including health and education, and for the development of the private sector. In addition, the latest development strategy for Samoa has placed emphasis on the need for a more balanced distribution of benefits from the reforms. Underlying the reforms are plans for continued effort to press ahead with reforms on good governance through improved accountability and transparency of government operations. The economic reforms are seen by the Government as crucial for Samoa in the pursuit of government goals to improve the living standards and welfare of its people.

Samoa hosts a number of United Nations Agencies. These include a UNDP Office responsible for Cook Islands, Niue, Samoa and Tokelau. It also hosts the UNESCO Regional Office for the Pacific and the FAO Sub-regional Office. It has a WHO office, and through the South Pacific Regional Environment Programme (SPREP), hosts the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) Sub regional Office for the South-West Pacific. Other UN Agencies coordinate their development assistance to Samoa through regional offices situated in either Fiji or Vanuatu, or from Regional Offices based elsewhere.

Samoa, as a member of the United Nations and many of its specialized Agencies, is signatory to a number of UN Conventions, Declarations, and related International Conferences. Some of these include:

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)
- Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment of Punishment
- Declaration on the Right of Development
- Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC)
• World Conference on Education for All (EFA)
• World Summit for Children (WSC)
• United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED)
• World Conference on Human Rights (WCHR)
• International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD)
• World Summit for Social Development (WSSD)
• Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW)
• Ninth Congress on the Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders (UNCPCTO)
• Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (HABITAT II)
• World Food Summit (WFS)
• Ninth Session of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD IX)
• General Assembly Twentieth Special Session on the World Drug Problem (GAD)
• World Meteorological Organization (WMO) Convention

Membership of different UN Agencies and Bodies also create certain development relations and responsibilities between Samoa and the UN Body both specifically and in general. A brief outline of some of the activities carried out by different UN Agencies in Samoa is provided in Annex 5.2 of the CCA document. In addition to UN-specific bodies, Samoa also has development cooperation programmes with both bilateral as well as multilateral organizations that work hand-in-hand with the United Nations around the world. These include, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, Asian Development Bank, European Union, and bilateral donors such as Japan, Australia, and New Zealand. Samoa is also an active member of Pacific regional organizations.

1.3 Demographic and Social Trends

The Samoa islands comprise two main islands Upolu and Savaii, and seven small islands. The majority of the population live on Upolu. In 2001 the total population was around 175,000, just over twice the total population of 1956. A sizeable proportion of Samoans live in overseas countries such as New Zealand and Australia. The total land area is 2,820 km² with an exclusive economic zone of 98,500 km², the smallest in the Pacific.

The 1991 Population and Housing Census data (the last completed population census) portray a youthful population, a structure similar to that of other small Pacific Island Countries. Approximately 53 percent of the population are under 19 some 38 percent aged between 20 and 54 and the remaining 9 percent being 55 or older.

The crude birth rate is around 29 to 31 live births per annum per 1,000 persons of population. The crude death rate of 4 persons per annum per 1,000 persons is relatively low, but around the average for similar nations. The net national population growth is estimated at around 0.5% per annum. The low rate of net population growth reflects the significant impact of continuing net migration. Other possible contributing factors to low growth are decreasing fertility, marriage at
later ages and increased use of family planning methods.

Samoa is recorded as having a low mean annual urban growth rate compared to other Pacific Island Countries. This reflects strongly the social structure and culture of Samoa that maintains the importance of family and village identity.

Samoa has a low mean annual urban growth rate compared to other Pacific Island Countries and reflects strongly on the social structure and culture of Samoa that maintains the importance of family and village identity although there has been rapid growth of peri-urban settlements just outside the urban perimeters. People living in these areas are living outside the traditional village structures which contributes to the changing disposition of Samoan society to the extent that in the near future the easily recognized structures of the fa‘asamoa may be replaced by less clearly recognized rules and support systems. The increased rate of divorces, family breakups and the increased number of women headed households, are other indications of a social trend towards alternative lifestyles that will need to be taken into consideration in development planning. Urban expansion is influenced mainly by land tenure rather than an integrated planning system with the conversion of once owned crown plantation lands to low-density fringe residential development. This unplanned expansion of Apia cannot be ignored as urban environmental problems continue to rise. The recent development of a Planning and Urban Management agency under an ADB funded project is the start of a staged birth of an urban planning mechanism for Samoa.

Males predominate in all age categories (at five year intervals) in all censuses from 1971 to 1991. Males consistently account for 52 percent of the total population and females 48 percent.

From 1986 to 1991, the levels of 0-4 year olds show an overall downward trend, in part, indicative of a decreasing fertility rate and an increasing rate of family planning methods. Health Department Annual Reports show that in 1988, some 14 percent of women of childbearing age were accepting family planning with the figure increasing to 29 percent in 1993. The latest Demographic and Health Survey (1999) indicates that some 42 percent of sexually active females and 20 percent of sexually active males use some form of family planning.

The social indicators have been relatively good since the early 1980s and have generally shown improvement. Life expectancy at birth in the early 1980s was reported to be around 63 and is estimated to be around 70 in 1998 and access to health services has also been very high for at least the past two decades.

Samoa has a long history of relatively high educational attainment relative to other developing countries. In the early 1980s adult literacy of 98 percent, a primary school enrolment ratio of 100 percent and 9 mean years of schooling were reported. However closer examination of educational indicators suggests there could be major functional literacy and numeracy weaknesses for a large segment of the population. Information produced through the UNDP funded and UNESCO-executed Basic Education and Life Skills (BELS) regional project, suggests there could be major functional literacy and numeracy weaknesses among a large segment of the population. The National Youth Policy is proposing that measures are strengthened to ensure that both females and males have access to schooling right through to tertiary. Compulsory versus free education continues to be a matter of general public interest particularly amongst those of the lower income brackets.

In relation to health the most important problem is the increasing risks that are a result of excess weight and increase in changing lifestyle diseases including diabetes and high blood pressure.
A high rate of youth suicide among youth indicates that there are problems among young people in Samoan society that have to be analysed and should be taken seriously. There is anecdotal evidence of a rise in reported petty crime (theft, assault, breaking and entry, etc) in the past three years, involving youth offenders.

Presently there are over 100,000 Samoans who are permanent residents of New Zealand and the Treaty of Friendship commitments between the two nations established a quota of 1,100 Samoans per annum to migrate indefinitely. Other principal host countries for migrants are American Samoa, USA and Australia. For the ten-year period 1988 through 1997 (the latest Immigration Office and Department of Statistics official figures), the net-recorded outflow of persons has been approximately 1,900 a year of approximately 55,000 citizens recorded travelling overseas annually. This would have implications for education and the job market and have other ramifications for development.

Remittances from abroad are the major source of cash income for many rural households. This fact has important implications for human resource development. Dependency and support measures must account for cash income and other forms of support received from Samoans abroad. The contribution of the migrant Samoans is not insignificant such that the social capital invested in education and health in Samoa should be seen more broadly than developing human capital to work in Samoa. It should also be seen as assisting Samoa’s international workforce. The available data indicate an on-going commitment to cash support from emigrant and urban workers in Samoa, for their Samoan rural kin who have limited income generating opportunities. Although emigration has often been interpreted as a problem, the returns in terms of remittances demonstrates a very strong commitment by the majority of Samoans to their culture and extended family. Furthermore, ideas, information and training are brought to Samoa as emigrants return or visit their relatives. The influence of technology and communications ICT, email and television see ideas and images going to the most remote Samoan villages.

Given the low net population growth and continuing emigration, resulting in loss of human resources, the challenge for future planning is to determine the sustainability of these processes, particularly given the increasingly difficult terms of emigration and the probable decrease in remittances from Samoans abroad as social linkages between them and local recipients decline. The practice of replicating village groupings in overseas communities appears to have reduced the risk of weakening links.

In education, planning for improvements can take place presently within a framework of slow student number expansion and more importantly the distribution of students in relation to the schools. School dropouts need to be kept to a minimum to ensure sufficient throughput for secondary and post-secondary studies. For both education and the preparation of the workforce in general, it means that external opportunities continue to remain an important consideration.

The traditional culture is the foundation for social and political life and is the basis of national stability. The traditional chiefly (Matai) system still plays a dominant role both at the village level and in national politics. Over 80 percent of the land is under customary tenure. However, it is notable that succession to Matai titles is by consensus of the extended family rather than any fixed mode of inheritance. The national system of government combines traditional and democratic features. Universal suffrage has been applied since 1991 however only matai title holders are eligible to run for parliament. Out of the 49 seats, two are reserved for voters considered to be outside the governance of the Matai system. Since about 97% of matai are male it is not surprising that only 6% of the Members of Parliament are female. It can also be
suggested that since universal suffrage is only about 10 years old, people are still learning how to use their vote effectively. The present government has been in power continuously for about 18 years which has ensured a level of stability that could not have been guaranteed otherwise and made it possible for the government to implement major programmes in a consolidated manner. The women’s committees and the churches are dominant forces that are integral to the fa’asamoa in traditional settings that may be missing in the emerging sizeable peri-urban village settings.

1.4 Economic Situation

In the past two decades Samoa has made reasonable progress in terms of economic and social outcomes. In the early 1990s two cyclones wreaked major devastation on the economy but infrastructure has been restored, macroeconomic stability has been achieved and important reforms undertaken in the tax and tariff systems, public sector and the finance sector.

GDP

The economy is very small, with aggregate nominal GDP in 2001 of Tala$851.5million or about US$243 million, implying a per capita income of about $US1,431. Remittances is an important source of income for any rural and urban families especially the low-income groups.

Real GDP increased by 6.5 per cent over 2001 following growth rates of 6.9 per cent, 2.6 per cent and 2.6 per cent in 2000 and 1999 respectively, continuing a trend of positive real growth that began in 1995. Underlying the recent growth indicators were good performance from fishing, other manufacturing such as that of Yazaki, construction, commerce, and public administration but also the impact of infrastructure rehabilitation following the devastating cyclones in the early nineties, and the initial benefits from economic reforms.

The relatively better economic performance in recent years however, has not led to any significant improvement in the real per capita GDP on account of the net population growth.

The recent phase of good economic performance follows a period of disappointing growth over the 1980s and early 1990s caused by external and internal shocks but also inherent inefficiencies within the public sector. Cyclones Ofa and Val in 1990 and 1991 devastated the agricultural sector, severely damaged the economic infrastructure and interrupted economic reform programs. Government assumed the debts of the national airline in 1994, which represented in total approximately 25% of GDP.

The combinations of both internal and external shocks during the early nineties led to negative growth in real output, a substantial reduction in foreign exchange and increased external debt. The mid-1990s was characterized by a tightening of macroeconomic policies and the introduction of important and significant economic policy reforms. In 1996 the government introduced important reforms on taxes and trade, financial and public sector controls. Sound fiscal and monetary policies were also put in place that contributed to a relatively smooth adjustment period for the economy.

The extent of growth resulting directly from economic reforms of recent years is somewhat unclear. However, as expected, the initial impetus from lower import tariffs and duties has led to a more rapid expansion in the wholesale and retail sector and to containing prices at lower levels. Whilst the benefits of these reforms may take some time to flow through to real economic growth, the positive environment created through a stable macro environment and the consultative process adopted by Government during the reform process will support positive
prospects for the economy. Strong growth is expected over the next few years reflecting a very substantial public investment program, further expansion of the fishing sector and the stimulus from economic reforms.

The most important structural change in the economy has been the decline in the relative importance of subsistence activity in real GDP. The subsistence share of GDP has declined from around 25 percent in the early 1980s to around 15 percent in 2000. This may be an important factor when considering the issue of food security and long-term sustainability particularly in the rural areas. This situation has resulted in a strong focus on the revitalization of the village economy under the current Strategy for the Development of Samoa. The breakdown of the support system is vital to livelihood security (as well as food security) and points to vulnerability.

Despite the good overall economic growth performance in recent years, growth of formal sector employment has been relatively weak. Most of the workforce is still employed in the agriculture and fisheries sector, reflecting the importance of subsistence activity. The importance of the informal sector and micro enterprises as major cash earners for many families cannot be underestimated.

Economic performance is further constrained by distance to major markets, a small domestic market, a limited skills base of workers which makes them less competitive than their Asian counterparts in labor-intensive production, and vulnerability to cyclones.

**Inflation**

Inflation has declined substantially over the past two decades. The better average performance of the 1990s compared with the 1980s reflects the impact of more modest depreciation of the currency and the substantial tariff cuts in 1998 and 1999. At times there are spikes in inflation reflecting local food shortages or tax changes. Domestic inflation is heavily influenced by external factors particularly adverse movements in the terms of trade reflecting the heavy dependence of the Samoan economy on imported goods and supplies.

The annual average recorded negative growth rates over the first half of 2000 before edging back up to 1 per cent over 2000 and 4 per cent in 2001. Increases in both local and import prices have contributed to the gradual rise in the inflation rate. The combination of lower prices resulting from the reductions in tariffs and duties as well as improving conditions in domestic supplies has enabled the economy to absorb price hikes particularly in petroleum products and other imported goods.

**Fiscal Outturns**

In the first half of the 1990s, fiscal and monetary policy was dominated by the response to the two cyclones and the subsequent rehabilitation program. Initially this meant large increases in government expenditure, substantial budget deficits and tight monetary conditions overall. In the second half of the 1990s the budget position has been consolidated, macroeconomic stability has been good and the government increased its net deposits in the banking system, complementing monetary policy targets of low inflation and facilitating credit to the private sector.

However, the fiscal position since 1999 is showing signs of deterioration with increasing budget deficits being recorded. The government budget outturns for 2001, 2000 and 1999 show budget deficits of around 1.4 percent of GDP. The reversal of the gains made over the second half of the
1990s in the fiscal area is a key concern in terms of macroeconomic stability as this may have important implications for price stability, the sustainability of the external position and availability of credit to the private sector, and momentum to government plans for continuing economic reforms.

Subsidies to State Owned Enterprises and other services provided by third parties (non-core department activities) which constitutes around 30 percent of total domestic expenditures are key expenditure categories that continue to undermine the budget outcomes. Also important will be the efforts of government to cut back on supplementary budget expenditures unless supported by adequate revenues. Adopting a framework of hard budget constraints within which departments are made accountable will help.

Money and Credit

The improved fiscal position of Government over the mid-nineties has also meant a more accommodating stance by the commercial banks for private sector credit.

For the year ending December 2000, the annual change in monetary growth (M2) remained steady at 11.4 per cent following a 12.5 per cent increase in 1999. Partly reflecting build up of government net deposits in the banking and also coinciding with the period of financial system reform, the monetary growth rate has declined steadily from around 22 per cent in 1995. The growth in credit to the private sector has increased by around 18 percent per annum between 1996 and 1999 without a large increase in the money supply. Over 2000 and 2001 the annual average growth of credit to the private sector (including public institutions) and money supply grew by 17 per cent and 12.4 per cent respectively. A continuation of these rates of growth in the monetary aggregates and credit to the private sector, in light of the recent budget outturns poses some threat to inflation stability and the balance of payments.

Commercial banks weighted average lending and deposit rates were at around 12.53 percent and 5.01 percent at end of 1999, declined gradually to 12 and 4.34 over 2000. However the interest rate spread has remained almost unchanged over the period.

The Government of Samoa introduced measures in January 1998 to liberalize the financial sector; moving away from a financial sector that was highly regulated and direct monetary policy and credit controls. The reforms of the financial system was supported by credit facility from the Asian Development Bank with conditions linked to the implementation of a detailed plan of financial reform including the privatization of selected state owned enterprises. Whilst key components of the reform, such as the strengthening of the Central Bank management and development of deeper secondary financial markets have yet to be fully developed, the financial sector reforms are being implemented in a stable macroeconomic environment. This financial stability has been important to the transition to a more market oriented financial sector.

Balance of Payments

The balance of payments recorded a surplus in 1999 and 2000 continuing the good performance of the previous two years. Fresh fish, garment, beer, coconut cream and kava dominated exports for 2000 of USD $13.7 million. The total value of imports was USD105.7 million. The trade balance increased 3.4 percent over 1999/2000 following an increase of 28 percent over 1998/1999. The rapid increase in the trade balance in 1999 partly reflects the arrival of an inter-island vessel funded under grant aid and high government imports for infrastructure projects. Tourist earnings and private remittances reached USD40.3 million and USD47.6 million,
respectively, in compared to USD35 million and USD38 million in 1999. For 2000 net foreign assets stood at USD56.4 million, representing import cover of 6.4 months; which is around the official target figure.

The balance of payments continues to be dominated by private and official transfers, which make up for the small export earnings. Private investment inflows remain negligible however. The current account has been in surplus since 1994 due to earnings from tourist receipts, private remittances and official grants. Remittances have traditionally been the major source of external income but have declined slightly in relative importance in recent years. Aid has also been very important, averaging over 10 percent of gross domestic product (GDP) for the past two decades. Tourism receipts have grown from 5 percent of GDP in the early 1980s to around 10-15 percent of GDP in recent years. In contrast, merchandise exports declined substantially from early 1980s to the mid-1990s, reflecting the adverse impacts of the cyclones, African snail and taro leaf blight on traditional primary export commodities but recently have shown improvement.

1.5 Vulnerability and Related Issues

Around 43 percent of the land is classified as arable and three-quarters of the population still depend on the land and the sea to provide their main or a supplementary source of income, however access to land for and titles to land remain issues that need to be addressed in relation to the increasing number of women heads of households, youth, etc. Samoa is ecologically fragile and vulnerable to environmental degradation and to the impact of cyclones and associated effects. It is estimated that over 30 percent of agricultural production is carried out in areas with severe soil limitation. Steeper slopes are being cleared, increasing the vulnerability to erosion. Samoa lies in the “cyclone belt” and is close to the earthquake-generating Tonga Trench. Its exclusive economic zone is “sea-locked” and smaller than those of its Pacific neighbours. Agriculture provides the mainstay for around 70% of the population and remittances is the single most important source of income, particularly for the rural population. However, it has to be recognized that the levels of remittances differ markedly between one family and another with some receiving more than others hence, the levels of long-term economic benefits to the families differ markedly.

Financial and Economic

Following the two devastating cyclones in the early 1990’s a financial crisis involving a state-owned company required the Government to provide financial support from the national budget to repay company debts and to restructure the company’s operations. This financial crisis has strengthened Governments resolve to privatise public sector enterprises and to divest its many investments in business ventures. It has also strengthened its commitment to develop a corporate regulatory framework to ensure the management and operation of state owned enterprises are consistent with best practices adopted internationally for private enterprises.

Samoa continues to be exposed to the vagaries of a narrow foreign earnings base. Fresh fish now account for around 70% of the total export earnings, and those like coconut cream, copra and coconut oil, all coconut based products, account for around 8% down from a high of 52% in 1997 when copra and coconut oil production were in normal production. Coconut-based exports have the potential to climb back up when production processes are back to normal. The production of garments for export meanwhile, has become a major export activity, now accounting for 10% of total export value.

The threat of disruption to economic production and costs of doing business in Samoa from
increasing oil prices and the high dependence on oil imports for power generation has been eased through the adoption of a tax and price structure to discourage wastage and by a combination of investment in hydro based energy and improving efficiency of diesel based power generation.

The status of the country’s net foreign assets has been sound over the past several years. The target for foreign exchange reserves has been set at a minimum of six-month import cover to reduce the risk of any unforeseen crisis. However the need to borrow externally to finance needed major development projects will impact on the foreign reserves situation with subsequent increased debt-servicing load. Such commitments also impact on deliberations on local currency valuation decisions, and eventually on the competitive position of local exporters. The existing government policy strategy of incurring budgetary deficits only to finance “economically viable socio-economic and infrastructural” projects however, provides a sound investment guideline under these circumstances.

Questions over whether foreign private remittances can continue at their recent levels, and into the longer-term future, remain an important consideration because of the value of these transfers to the economy. Total remittances in 2000 amounted to Tala$146 million. The total for 2001 is expected to be around 3% higher. Remittances are also closely tied to visitor arrivals, many of whom are ethnic Samoans returning to visit, or for those born overseas, visiting for the first time. Visiting expatriate Samoans also contribute goods and services to the local economy.

The diversification of the sources of aid and the reform of processes for improved and efficient aid management, coupled with efforts to strengthen domestic resource mobilization (e.g. through the introduction of broad based VAGST) will minimize the impact of any future financial crisis. Possible risks to financial stability include a decline in the levels of remittances; fluctuations in export prices and a reduction in inflows from foreign aid.

Natural Disasters

The vulnerability of Samoa and its economic performance to natural disasters was exposed when it was struck by two devastating cyclones in the early 1990s which caused considerable damage to both agriculture and infrastructure and by the leaf blight disease which wiped out the country’s major food and export crop, the taro from late 1993 onwards.

The consecutive cyclones of 1990 and 1991 resulted in a cumulative decline in real GDP of almost 12 percent during 1990-1992 including extensive damages to agricultural and fisheries production. Agro-processing industries, particularly coconut oil, are slowly recovering with the post cyclone introduction of high yielding hybrid coconut seedlings and improved world market prices for copra and coconut oil. Similarly, timber production and coconut cream production levels have yet to restore pre-cyclone levels of production. Consequently the composition of traditional Samoan exports has been affected. Coconut oil, coconut cream as well as taro, which had been destroyed by leaf Blight, have been surpassed by recent successes in commercial fishing.

The experience of these cyclones has provided valuable lessons in terms of strengthening the institutional and support framework for disaster preparedness. There is a need to identify cost effective and adaptive management approaches and national disaster responses to the impacts of weather variability. A permanent National Disaster management Council has been established to coordinate early warning programmes, strategic responses during an extreme event and relief efforts after an event. These responses include maintaining food security in the face of a major disaster where some 90% of all food crops were destroyed and imports of food had to rise
drastically. There have been significant upgrading and improvements in the capacity and capability of the Samoan Meteorological Service Division to access critical weather information on a timely basis and to receive and disseminate advance warning on any natural disaster such as cyclones, tsunamis and earthquakes.

Government has also developed and enforced building code standards for all new buildings to minimize damage to infrastructure from cyclones. A national programme has also been launched to identify the best strategies for the design of coastal infrastructure, roads and bridges to protect such infrastructural assets as well as keep potential disaster – related damage and loss of lives to the minimum.

Vulnerable Groups

The situation of those who are less advantaged is not well documented despite a recent household and income expenditure survey. It is also important to recognize that the opportunity to live supported by a mix of traditional subsistence activity supplemented by modest cash income activities and remittances makes the interpretation of poverty difficult. However, the economy is highly dualistic and the growth of the formal economy, which is important for securing higher living standards, has meant an increasing concentration of income since the early 1970s. This has raised concerns that the benefits of growth and economic reforms need to be more widely dispersed so that all Samoans receive a fair share of the gain. Such concerns have motivated the theme of the Statement of Economic Strategy for 2000-01 — “Partnership for a Prosperous Society” and the same theme underlies the current Strategy for the Development of Samoa 2002-2004 — “Opportunities for All”. The theme is to ensure that the benefits of reform are spread throughout the economy.

An important source of income for many rural and urban families including low-income groups is remittances, which have grown substantially since the early 1980s.

The two main groups who are likely to be vulnerable to poverty are urban villagers which embrace youth with minimal formal education and limited employment opportunities, those who have migrated from the rural areas and have no or little access to land for subsistence production, women-headed households, and the elderly and people with disabilities and rural villagers with limited cash earning opportunities.

In summary, the key concerns of vulnerability includes:

- Continuing clearance of farming land;
- Cyclones;
- Disaster preparedness;
- Food security;
- Agricultural pests and diseases;
- Economic Management, particularly the efficiency of public enterprises;
- Sea level rise earthquakes, volcanic activity;
- Maintaining share of agriculture in GDP;
- Sustainability of remittances, this crucial;
- Continuing external support through aid and grants and access to soft term finance;
- Strength and sustainability of the traditional customary/traditional Faa-Samoa that is vital in terms of sustaining and spreading/sharing of wealth;
- Breakdown of social systems and law and order
2. SELECTED THEMATIC AREAS AND CROSS CUTTING ISSUES

2.1 Introduction

This section assesses the state of economic and social development in Samoa from the perspective of the selected thematic areas and cross cutting issues. The assessment of each thematic area and cross cutting issue is divided into three parts:

(i) A general description of the current situation and an assessment of the underlying causes and conditions;

(ii) A review of the key challenges facing the government and development partners in addressing these conditions;

(iii) A conclusion.

Crosscutting issues such as gender, information and communications technology, disaster management, are covered in the latter section, but some reference to these issues will be found within the assessment of the thematic areas as well. For the purpose of the 2002 CCA, the thematic areas and cross cutting issues have been selected/identified through a consultative process and reflect some of the key areas, issues and challenges facing the Samoan economy in its quest for sustainable development. They also indicate possible areas where the UN agents may best intervene given their resources and scope of activities. Statistical tables are generally not included in the text, however, selected indicators for the Samoa economy as well as CCA Indicators are included in the Appendix III and IV. Many of the available indicators are based on statistics that are generally outdated; with some indicators dating back 2-5 years. Whilst the results of the 2001 Population Census, yet to be published, is expected to provide useful updates on a number for economic and social indicators, and noting the significant improvement made in a number of macroeconomic indicators, particularly on the trade, output, monetary aggregates and government fiscal operations, bringing Samoa’s overall development statistics up to date is an important priority for the coming years.

GOVERNANCE, ECONOMIC MANAGEMENT, COMMUNITY AND SOCIAL COHESION

2.2 Governance

The Government has since the early 1990s committed itself to the promotion of good governance. The introduction of performance budgeting to bring about greater efficiency and accountability in the allocation and use of public funds, the creation of a level playing field for public and private sector enterprises, the setting up of consultative processes between Government and the business community and civil society to jointly formulate national economic policies and strategies have enhanced good governance at all levels of Government. Recent institutional reforms in the public service and in several public sector agencies have been practical examples of Samoa’s ongoing strive to improve its governance framework.
Eight Principles of Public Sector Accountability (See Attachment on summary of the Eight Principles of Public Sector Accountability)

Samoa’s adoption of the FEMM principles of accountability and transparency and the considerable progress made in recent years to comply with the principles has further strengthened performance in the governance area. There is now much greater awareness of the importance of good governance in facilitating economic growth, in maintaining socio-political stability and in reinforcing the confidence of the donor community in the management by Samoa of the aid resources it receives.

The ongoing improvements to the budget structure and processes, the recent clearance of the backlog of public accounts and the reformatting of the accounts to improve public understanding of the financial operations of Government have been important milestones in fostering transparency and accountability in the public sector.

The Strategy for the Development of Samoa, 2002-2004 confirms Government’s commitment to the FEMM Eight Principles of Public Sector Accountability. The following initiatives and reforms have been introduced in recent years.

Principle 1. Performance budgeting was implemented in the financial year 1995/1996. Multi-year budget frameworks or forward estimates have been developed but have yet to be implemented. With budget reforms, major constraint was staff capacity to carry out reform. On the other hand, departments’ also had to adjust to manage the changes in budget procedures as well as getting use to the new budget format. The new budget system has helped government determine what it wants to achieve by giving focus on outputs and programs of priority, and resources are therefore allocated accordingly. Implementing these principles have also strengthened public sector accountability. Processes have been put in place for ongoing review of output structures and definitions to reflect and aligned with reformed functions. The new Public Finance Management Act 2001 now enforced provides for a transparent and accountable environment to better manage public finance. Public accounts are also presented to Parliament as stipulated in the new Act.

Principle 2. All government and SOE accounts are required under legislation to be audited and published. The new Public Bodies Act requires that the accounts of all Government enterprises are subject to audit by the Controller and Chief Auditor.

Principle 3. Loan agreements used to be presented to Parliament but current practice uses authority of Attorney General to approve loans. They are then presented to Parliament when the budget is tabled. A Bills Committee of Parliament reviews any Loan Authorization Bills submitted to Parliament.

Principle 4. Contracts are advertised and awarded competitively;

Principle 5. Administration of the legal framework is governed by the new Public Finance Management Act 2001, through which significant amendments to the Public Monies Act 1964 have been introduced.

Principle 6. Public Accounts and Parliamentary Committees are key committees of Parliament which need to be resourced adequately to perform their role effectively. The Public Accounts Committee is empowered by Parliament to have full disclosure.
Principle 7. Statutory independence is applied to the Chief Auditor General and Ombudsman.

Principle 8. Central Bank has been amended to allow prudential guidelines for the management of non-financial institutions.


The IMF Code of Good Practices on Fiscal Transparency has been used extensively in the development and implementation of fiscal reforms in Samoa. The fiscal reforms are seen as central in support of the principles of good governance. External assistance was sought and obtained through the AUSAID and Asian Development Bank over the period 1995-2001 in the development and implementation of these fiscal reforms.

New Financial Management Reforms

An additional budget reform which is expected to be introduced within the next 24 months is the multi-year budget frameworks or Forward Estimates.

Forward estimates provides clarity and certainty to the Departments in terms of their medium term financial resources thus enabling them to forward plan with certainty.

Governance Framework for State Owned Enterprises

A new corporate regulatory Framework has been introduced aimed at improving performance and oversight of state owned enterprises.

Key Issues and Challenges

- Ongoing refinements to performance budgeting, monitoring and accountability frameworks,
- Effectiveness of consultative processes between Government and the business community and civil society to jointly formulate national policies and strategies and institutional reforms in the public service and in several public sector agencies,
- There is a need for a clear definition of the partnership between the government and civil society and what this translates into in terms of roles and functions and resource allocation
- Full compliance with the FEMM principles of accountability and transparency,
- Institutional capacity to sustain new budget structure and processes, including timely auditing of public accounts and the reformatting of the accounts to improve public understanding of the financial operations of Government.
- Improving systems of performance management and internal checks.
- Simplifications may be required of the current performance monitoring system. A desirable option is the adoption of a multi-year plan of performance monitoring and evaluation rather than the annual process currently envisaged.
• The appropriate governance systems for SOEs are largely embodied in the new SOE Act. The main issue to be considered in the near term is how to implement the proposed Act’s provisions. A case can be made for paying most attention to the utilities, being the SOEs that are probably the most important to the economy but also the SOEs with the greatest problems.

Samoa must maintain the momentum it has built up in recent years if the full benefits of past efforts are to be realized. The potential gains that could be achieved from a more efficient and effective public service are high, both in terms of economic and social development.

Conclusion

Samoa has made considerable advance in the area of good governance, which has led to the introduction of new policies, processes and legislative framework for managing government finance and budgeting and also the improved oversight and monitoring of the operations of State Owned Enterprises. These reforms are crucial given their focus on improving the efficiency of the core functions of the public agencies and on improving overall performance of government operations. In this respect, there is scope for further assistance to the government to support institutional capacity building, strengthen governance and regulatory frameworks and to institutionalize the positive reform processes put in place in recent years. As well, whilst notable strides have been made in improving local governmental systems leading to better government, there needs to be some recognition of a distinction to overall governance. There is a need to delve into the situation regarding the communities and social cohesion in the face of change. Answers are needed on the level of coping that is taking place in the villages and new semi-urban settlements where more and more as young people are growing up. The impact of monetary demands on income levels for basic services such primary health care being channelled through the women’s and other such committees, are already placing strain on already vulnerable groups of the population pushing them further out of the realm of village and family social nets, due to the non-payment of membership fees.

2.3 State Owned Enterprises (SOEs) and Privatization

The Government of Samoa has already demonstrated a strong commitment to improving the performance and accountability of its SOEs and to further strengthening its partnership with the private sector. Since the mid 1990s a governance framework for SOEs has been developed and legislation in the form of the new Public Finance Management Act and Public Bodies Act have been passed recently by Parliament. Government has confirmed to improve the enabling environment to support private enterprise. In this regard Government has made a lot of progress in maintaining a sound and stable macroeconomic framework a key objective of its development strategy, has introduced major tax and tariff reforms, liberalized the financial sector, privatised several public sector enterprises and has target several commercial activities currently undertaken by Government agencies for either outsourcing or privatisation.

The continuing unsatisfactory overall performance of state owned enterprises underlies the Governments resolve to privatize public sector enterprises and to divest its many investments in business ventures. It has also strengthened its commitment to develop a corporate regulatory framework to ensure the management and operations of the remaining public companies are consistent with best practices adopted internationally for private enterprises.

The service quality of some of the main utilities has been widely criticized (notably water, electricity and telecommunications), while sustained losses and weak financial management have
eroded the financial position of a number of the SOEs (eg low cash reserves, negative working capital).

But there are also some good individual performers amongst the SOEs. The two shipping-based operations are providing a reasonable rate of return, and all SOEs in the finance sector were profitable by the latest estimates. Polynesian Limited, the operator of the airline, is also running at a profit (although the presence of transactions between the three related airline companies and the absence of consolidated accounts creates uncertainty in the fundamental position of the airline as-a-whole).

The considerable variation in performance among the SOEs is shown by their rate of return. For fully owned SOEs, the latest estimate of the real rate of return on total assets varies from plus 14 percent to minus 30 percent. The latest estimate of the return on those enterprises that are partly owned with the private sector is as high as 30 per cent.

As of the end of 1997-98 the accumulated losses from the national airline operations were reported as more than SAT$100 million. These were essentially incurred in the difficult period prior to October 1994. Total grants and subsidies to SOEs account for around 10 percent of total government expenditure.

Underlying the poor financial performance of many SOEs are a range of factors. Poor commercial practices are undoubtedly a contributing factor, but losses can also be explained by factors outside the SOEs control. For example, Government controls on setting tariffs, the pursuit of non-commercial community based service activities at the request of the Government, inappropriate facilities, poor quality plant and equipment have all impacted on SOE financial performance. There are also problems in ensuring the payment of bills by customers.

The only SOE that is called on to provide a financial return to the Government (eg through dividends) is Samoa Communications Limited. The corporation was created from the Post and Telecommunications Department in mid 1999. Substantial dividends are projected for 1999-2000 and beyond, reflecting improved performance since corporatisation.

SOEs are subject to a weaker system of oversight than departments, despite their autonomy. Autonomy for SOEs is important but, as for departments, it can only be justified when there are appropriate checks and balances.

One of the more basic features of a sensible system of oversight for SOEs is adequate and timely reporting. There are examples amongst the SOEs of good reporting. The Accident Compensation Board, the Samoa National Provident Fund and the Samoa Shipping Corporation prepare annual reports that explain their activities in some detail and allow external scrutiny of their operations. Both the Accident Corporation Board and the National Provident Fund publicly report on the return on member’s funds managed, a key indicator of performance. The Samoa Water Authority and Samoa Communications Limited have also recently taken steps to establish a suite of performance indicators.

However there is a general problem with the timeliness of reporting. For example, as of January 2000, the State Owned Enterprises Monitoring Division (SOEMD) of the Treasury Department had no accounts for 1998-99 for the fully owned SOEs, with the latest accounts for 14 of the fully owned SOEs being 1997-98. Most annual reports are very brief and do not explain the activities of the SOEs, key issues facing the SOE or non-financial performance measures.
There is little information available to the public on the activities of the SOEs, with public reporting limited to those accounts tabled in Parliament or with the companies’ registry.

SOE monitoring must be strengthened and must focus on indicators of productivity or service quality. Simple indicators can be derived to both increase public accountability and stimulate an organization to improve its operation. The key is to establish at least some objective measures of performance.

The SOE reform efforts of the 1990s have focused on privatization. These reforms have been desirable, but it has been a lengthy process requiring significant external assistance.

Most of the reformed enterprises were among the better performers in past years. Many were partly privately owned, and because the private partner has a strong incentive to manage the organization profitably the potential improvement in performance from such privatizations was probably relatively low.

Current plans are to continue the privatization of the partly owned enterprises. Although this initiative in itself is warranted, there is a risk that such efforts will continue to divert attention from the much needed reforms of the fully owned SOEs. The government investment in the remaining partly owned enterprises is valued at SAT$7 million, compared to the more than SAT$400 million invested in fully owned enterprises. The partly owned enterprises are already profitable whereas the average real rate of return on fully owned SOEs has been negative.

As the resources available to manage reform process are limited, there may be merit in giving priority attention to the larger, poorly performing SOEs.

New Governance Framework for SOEs

Strict implementation of the new Public Bodies Act will substantially enhance the standard of oversight and subject SOEs to a high degree of public scrutiny. The key features of the Act are:

i A principle objective for every SOE to operate as a successful business, including an obligation for each SOE to be as profitable and efficient as comparable businesses that are not owned by the state.

ii A requirement that Statements of Corporate Objective, corporate plans and financial statements be prepared to document the activities of SOEs and that such material be tabled in Parliament.

iii An obligation for Ministerial directions to an SOE to be tabled in Parliament.

iv The provision of increased powers to SOEMD to ensure SOEs report in a timely manner.

v A provision that directors only be persons that will assist the SOE achieve its principal objective.

vi An obligation for the Government to fund non-commercial activities.

A key issue to be considered in adopting the new Public Bodies Act is its coverage. A case could be made for the initial application of the proposed Act to only some SOEs. This would give the SOEs and SOEMD time to familiarize themselves with the new systems introduced by the Act and to develop workable approaches to be applied more broadly. It would also avoid the reform process becoming bogged down in the negotiation of a large number of Statements of Corporate Objectives, asset valuations, etc, as required by the Act. The most likely priorities for early action would be the utilities given their size, importance to economic activity and performance.
There have been calls for a strong regulatory framework to objectively monitor and regulate the operations of SOEs, especially those in near monopoly positions. This is an issue that warrants serious consideration.

Another issue is the future of commercial enterprises or activities within Government departments. These include the government printers within the Prime Ministers and Education Departments, road maintenance within Public Works and the Treasury Stores. Privatization and contracting out of management may be the best options.

Key Issues and Challenges

- Implementing the new SOE Act. A case can be made for giving priority attention to the utilities, being the SOEs that are probably the most important to the economy but also with the greatest problems;
- Management training and support for Board members and CEO;
- Re-deployment of redundant workers from corporatisation and privatization programmes
- Training on the requirements of the new SOE Act;
- Completion and implementation of the new Companies Act,
- Improving the environment for doing business in Samoa
- Strengthening the oversight and monitoring role of the SOEMD
- Strengthening regulatory framework to ensure that SOEs and private companies operate with integrity.

Conclusion

The challenge for the government and development partners is to move ahead swiftly with implementation of reforms already begun. The risk is that the momentum does far may be lost should there be further delays.

2.4 Trade and International Development

Since 1998, the Government undertook substantial economic reforms to enhance the development of the economy through introduction of trade liberalization policies. The trade policies were aimed at improving the competitiveness of Samoan businesses, developing a more diversified economy and generating employment opportunities for Samoans in the years ahead, with the private sector as the engine to economic growth. Some of the trade policies introduced included:

- Promotion of trade in goods through exports;
- Promotion of trade in services through tourism, and liberalization of the financial sector;
- Increase access to international markets;
- Substantial tariff and tax reductions;
- Developing enabling environment for business through updated legislative framework

The corporate tax rate has been reduced to 29%, down from 35%, for both resident and foreign companies. A minimum threshold of $52,000 has been introduced for VAGST. The tariff structure has been simplified to a four tier levels of 0%, 5%, 10% and 20%. These reforms have given Samoa a competitive, certain and transparent tax structure.

As part of continuing Government reforms in this sector, further reductions are expected in the medium term in tariffs as well as the rationalization of other taxes and charges such as stamp duty, business license and registration.
The distance from export markets and the high costs associated with developing these markets and in improving the quality and the packaging of Samoa produced goods are constraints that need to be addressed. Another important constraint is the increased international competition due to the erosion of trade preferences as world markets commit themselves to trade liberalization and globalization. Commercial fishing exports have surpassed foreign exchange earnings from traditional primary commodity exports.

Besides natural disasters and pests/diseases infestation, other threats to the export sector include volatility of prices for export commodities, the lack of an effective quarantine system, the lack of clarity on the implications of the WTO and the and the erosion of preferential market access. The Government has concentrated its efforts on areas of macroeconomic reform which would enhance export competitiveness. This calls for efficiency and productivity in all business operations including an improved market focus as well as keeping abreast of international developments in standards and certification procedures. A UNDP funded structural adjustment facility has been established to assist producers in improving the quality of their products and enhance their competitiveness.

The relative social and political stability of Samoa coupled with its impressive economic performance and commitment to reform in the recent past would make Samoa an attractive destination for foreign investment. The commitment of the Government to private sector development is underlined by the development of an enabling environment for the private sector operations.

Certain constraints, which may be hampering foreign investment include:

- high transport costs
- sometimes unreliable and relatively expensive economic infrastructure and related services
- land rights and access
- Inadequate legal and regulatory environment for protection of investment
- high cost of borrowing
- low productivity levels and lack of discipline among labour force.

While foreign investment is encouraged, it is vital that policies to promote small and medium enterprises continue to be advanced as they constitute the mass of economic activity in the country.

Tourism has become one of the major sources of foreign exchange earnings for Samoa. Gross tourism revenues were about ST$133 million in 2000. The emerging popularity of Samoa as a potential tourist destination will further strengthen growth in the sector. However, constraints relating to the limited tourism infrastructure and the high costs associated with air travel because of long distances from main tourism source markets would need to be addressed promptly if Samoa is to take advantage of the potential growth in the sector.

Samoa is a founding member of and an active participant in international and Pacific based regional organizations. Through these organizations Samoa has played a key role in promoting and fostering regional cooperation on transboundary issues that are best addressed –through regional or sub-regional approaches. Examples of these issues are environment and natural resource, management, fisheries, quarantine, trade, transport – especially shipping – and communications. In recent times its commitment and proactive approach to economic and
financial reforms, better governance and active participation in decision making processes at the
to region’s heads of Government level have all contributed to enhancing its influence on regional
cooperation.

**Key Issues and Challenges**

Key issues and challenges likely to be faced by the Samoa over the medium term would include
the following:

- Enactment of the Foreign Investment Legislation, completion of supporting legislations
  for the new Companies Act and implementation of the new Public Bodies Act.
- Progression towards ultimate WTO accession,
- There is a need to enhance public education and awareness of the impacts of WTO
  accession. This process will be vital and should be supported given anecdotal evidence
  that suggest very low levels of public awareness particularly at the grass root levels.
- Supporting the commercial fishing sector in the areas of international standards and
  certification;
- Revival of traditional commodities and agro-based exports;
- Pacific Islands Trade Agreement logistics as Samoa has ratified regional agreement.
  Four out of six countries is the minimum requirement to allow the agreement to become
  effective and it is expected that the minimum number will be achieved within the next
two years. Key issues would be the identification of products to be included under the
transitional arrangements. Given the relatively higher trade taxes in other PIC’s and in
view of the fact that Samoa’s reforms are ahead of other PICs, it is likely that Samoa will
face continuing barriers to markets
- Establishment of a negotiating position that would be of added benefit with regard to the
  new trading arrangements with the EU given that Samoa already has access to EU
  markets under the prevailing Lome Convention conditions and as a result of its LDC
  status.
- Further tax and tariff reforms
- Development of further foreign direct investment.

**Conclusion**

Samoa’s development efforts in the area of trade are considered relatively advanced compared to
the current situation in other Pacific Island Countries. The proactive approach taken to move
forward firstly with reforms to develop the private sector are seen as an important prerequisite to
developing and opening up of Samoa’s trading environment to the realities of the global markets
and will place Samoa in a good position to take on the competitive international trading
environment as a result of globalization. The key challenge will be the ability of the economy
to support and develop export opportunities that can achieve competitiveness particularly in
fishing, light manufacturing and tourism.

### 2.5 Agriculture, Fisheries and Rural development

Agriculture plays an important role in the Samoan economy with at least two-thirds of households
reliant on a mixture of subsistence and cash income. Samoa retains a highly agricultural society
and economy. In 1989, more than 70% of the economically active population of 55,967 were
employed in the agriculture, fishery, and forestry sectors. An estimated 72% of 15,474 rural
households are active to some degree in agriculture, with 19% producing for home consumption
only and 47% producing mainly for home consumption. About 90% of village households
maintain mixed livestock enterprises comprising of mainly pigs and chickens with some having cattle, horses and goats. Commercial agricultural production, including coconut products, cocoa and taro is estimated to account for 14% of GDP (1994), and 17% (including fisheries) of Total GDP in 1998.

However, agriculture and the economy are highly vulnerable to the potentially destabilizing impacts of external shocks as well as natural disasters. The taro leaf blight outbreak in 1993 and the introduction of the African snail in 1995 was catastrophic, destroying Samoa’s major export crop taro and others.

The inherent uncertainty of agricultural production affects export earnings. In this regard there is a push towards diversification of cash crops so that the country does not become too dependent on a few crops for subsistence needs and for export earnings.

The contribution of agriculture to GDP has declined since 1995 and continued to 1999 mainly as the result of the combined effect of the cyclone damages and the taro leaf blight. By contrast fisheries has been increasing its contribution to GDP rising from 4.3 percent in 1994 to 6.2 percent in the first half of 1999. This remarkable improvement in the performance of fisheries has been due to the rapid growth of commercial fisheries, mainly for the export market, as a result of private sector investment.

A concern is the depleting inshore fish stocks through over fishing and the use of exploitative methods, which has led to the introduction of fresh water fish farming of Tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) to reduce pressure on the inshore fish stock and as an alternative source of protein for the rural communities, and generate income and employment.

Offshore landings have significantly increased mainly due to the tuna industry. This has been mostly sold to overseas markets. Exported fish increased from 212 metric tons (2% of export earning share) in 1995 to 4,408 metric tons (47% of export earnings) in 1998. The industry is lucrative, but requires considerable initial working capital which is often beyond the scope of most rural households.

The revitalisation of the village economy continues to be a key element of Samoa’s development strategy. The post cyclone/taro blight period saw a diversification of the staple food base as well as income generation activities at village level through the development of cottage industries, small scale tourism activities and agro-processing. The development and maintenance of Plantation access roads are subsidised by the Government.

The development of the village economy through a partnership involving Government and civil society will bring greater prosperity to the communities and also ensure that the rural sector participates in and receives the benefits of the national development efforts.

Support is expected to continue for micro-level projects in areas such as education, health, agriculture, fisheries, tourism, youth, sports and culture.

Key Issues and Challenges

Around 43 percent of the land is classified as arable and three-quarters of the population still depend on the land and the sea to provide their main and/or supplementary source of income. However Samoa is ecologically fragile and vulnerable to environmental degradation and to the impact of cyclones. It is estimated that over 30 percent of agricultural production is carried out in
areas with severe soil limitation, and steeper slopes are being cleared, increasing the vulnerability to erosion.

- Maintaining food security through a balance in the dual strategy of subsistence and export production
- Reducing vulnerability to external shocks, such as fluctuating commodity prices, exchange rate movements and changes in economic policies of Samoa’s trading partners and also natural disasters;
- Encourage more diversification into value added agro-processing
- Further development of subsistence and commercial fisheries together with sustainable management practices;
- Effective strategies to revive the rural economy; with due consideration of economic, social and environmental systems;
- A distinction must be drawn between servicing the needs of the commercial and subsistence sectors and, concomitantly, between economic and social objectives in providing extension and other services to farmers;
- The approach to economic development of the agricultural sub-sector should be to focus on the private sector and those already successful in commercial agriculture. Private sector entrepreneurs will provide leadership and become the ‘engine for growth’ in agriculture; Government, through MAFFM, has an important role in extension, research, regulation and policy development
- The reform process is establishing an environment that is conducive to commercial agricultural development. The taxing of the sector should, however, be revisited, with removal of taxes on inputs, but the imposition of income tax;
- Government to divest itself of the various commercial activities in which it is involved, such as beef cattle farming, Samoa Trust Estate Corporation, Samoa Land Corporation, the Agriculture Store and the Oilseed Crushing Company Limited;
- Land for commercial agricultural development can be made available through divestment of Samoa Trust Estate Corporation and Samoa Land Corporation.

Conclusion

Agriculture will continue to be an important sector of the Samoan economy. Village agriculture will provide food security and support to the agro-based industries such as coconut cream, oil and dessicated coconut which have been major export products in the past years. The Commercial development of many of the crops traditionally farmed in Samoa, further encouragement of commercial livestock production and support of commercial fisheries will support more processing and added value of products on island for export and will generate employment opportunities in this sector. The ongoing institutional strengthening of both public agencies and private operations in this sector especially in the areas of extension services support, production and quality control and marketing will in the medium term greatly assist in the development of agriculture and agrobased industries in Samoa.
2.6 Food Security and Nutrition

Food Demand

Between 1980 and 1993, total food energy requirements rose by 0.5% per year and is projected to rise by 2.3% annually between 1993 and 2010, largely as a result of population growth and changes in population structure. The rate of increase is greater in urban areas where it is expected to be 3.3% per year for 1993 – 2010. Food production for domestic consumption is composed of banana, coconut, breadfruit, taro, yam and other root crops; fish capture within the reef is declining. Domestic consumption of taro was estimated at 0.5 kg per person per day prior to the Taro Leaf Blight (TLB) infestation, which at present, has shifted to banana and ta’amu, which are also traditional staples, but less preferred than taro. There is rapid change from a dietary pattern based on the traditional staple foods to one in which imported foods feature prominently. Depleting inshore marine resources has already impacted on subsistence security in protein procurement.

Food Supplies

Between 1988 – 90 food crops comprised 82% of the total food supply, with livestock and fisheries contributing 16% and 2%, respectively. The composition, stability and reliability of food supply in the early 1990s has been influenced by natural calamities. These included the disastrous cyclones Ofa (1990) and Val (1991) and devastation by taro leaf blight, in 1993. Supplies of the main staple (taro) on the domestic market in June 1994 were 1% of the supplies available in June 1993. By early 1995 rural households were producing alternate adequate food (bananas, giant taro, breadfruit, yams) crops for household subsistence, and the domestic market prices for these food crops on the domestic market had declined, producing marketable surpluses. Responses to and recovery from these series of disasters suggest that Samoans maintain subsistence security through rapid transformations in their cropping systems and in the diversification to other crops. At present, the recovery of the Taro industry is reflected in the decline of taro prices and major staples as well, with the introduction of the new resistant varieties of taro. Average price for taro in 1998 was ST$ 2.85 per pound and the February 2000 average price was ST$ 1.67 per pound.

Food imports such as mutton flaps and turkey tails of poor nutritional quality, have risen by almost 18% from ST$ 42.6 million in 1994 to ST$ 50.2 million in 1995, and increased 26% to ST$ 63.3 million in 1996. This has accounted for, about 48% to 60% of total dietary energy and protein requirements.

Food Security

Samoa’s Human Development Index (HDI) of 0.701 (1999), suggests the absence, in general, of hunger and under-nutrition. Although national food supply appear sufficient, food insecurity exist, particularly among some economically disadvantaged households in Apia and the peri-urban areas. Malnutrition particularly for under 5 children as well as over-nutrition are found. Food and nutrition problems include (a) increase in the prevalence of changing lifestyle diseases
such as obesity, hypertension, diabetes linked to changing dietary patterns and lack of exercise; (b) protein energy malnutrition among infants; and (c) iron deficiency anaemia among pregnant and lactating mothers. The presence of chronic under-nutrition (stunting) and micronutrient deficiencies is most prevalent in rural areas.

Nutrition

Nutrition deficient symptoms also indicate food insecurity in Samoa. There is evidence of the existence of moderate to mild forms of malnutrition reported to be affecting most rural low-income families. Physical symptoms show that those most vulnerable are those under 5. From the available data, 17% of children under 5 years old were reported underweight (1979) with 5.3% of low birth-weight babies reported in 1994. Infant mortality rate in 1994 has been reported at 20 for every 1000 live births.

Rural communities, which rely mainly on farm produce as the main source of food, are more vulnerable to nutritive deficiency and food insecurity.

While severe malnutrition is not widespread, protein energy malnutrition (PEM) among the under 5 year olds is an important problem in Samoa today. This usually results from poor child spacing, inadequate breastfeeding, poor weaning foods, food mal-distribution and possibly food shortage. It could also be the result of diseases caused by diarrhoea, chronic worm infestation and scabies due to a lack of hygiene.

A survey conducted in 1988 shows that breastfeeding rates have been on the decline since 1975 from a rate of 80% to less than 60% in 1988. F Hughes (1993) observed that the health system was failing both to undertake adequate growth monitoring and to use available opportunities for checking that children’s growth and development are monitored.

While the malnutrition problem among children is largely an issue of underweight, the opposite is the case with adults. A five year longitudinal study of the cardiovascular disease risk factors between 1991 and 1995 showed that the prevalence of obesity in Samoa is on the rise with more than half of the population above 20 years being overweight. The situation is significantly higher among females with the proportion severely overweight being 43.5%. Iron deficiency anaemia is a significant problem among women and children in Samoa. Nearly 56% of women attending ante-natal care at the national hospital in 1995 and 3 out of every 5 children admitted to the children’s ward were found to be anaemic. Iron deficiency results in low birth-weight and reduced working and learning ability. The present situation highlights the need for further integrated health prevention programs to lower the potential for massive treatment costs in the future.

The causes of the problems of malnutrition are complex and are related to modernization of Samoan society including such pressures as increasing workload of women, poor maternal health, change in dietary habits, lack of awareness and education and the promotion of production for cash ahead of subsistence.

A National Food and Nutrition Policy and Plan of Action were approved in 1997. A National Nutrition survey was completed in 2001.

Key Issues and Challenges

The challenges for food security and nutrition include:
• Sustaining domestic food production levels in line with food demands and market potentials;
• The rising volume and prices of poor quality and nutritionally inferior food imports;
• A narrow base of (predominantly) agricultural exports;
• A key developmental constraint is the absence of a coherent national agricultural policy and investment program for achieving sustainable agricultural growth and food security objectives. Inaction on redressing natural resource degradation issues will also compromise the attainment of these objectives.
• Declining land availability for cultivation and the absence of appropriate technology use in agriculture to ensure efficient production.
• Taro has been a major crop for domestic market and for export. The taro leaf blight has resulted in costly input demands for production. Recently, taro production has been improving with the introduction and adoption of new taro cultivars that are blight resistant drought tolerant.
• Declining inshore fishery resources, as a result of destructive fishing methods and overfishing and the destruction of breeding habitats such as mangrove swamps has led to intensive efforts in conservation of marine resources and putting in place sustainable management practices involving communities.
• There is a need to develop skills of agricultural workers and farmers to ensure sector production and productivity and food security.
• Technical support is needed for the development of to environmentally sustainable agricultural development through the development of national policies and action plans using integrated approaches for environmental protection and resource management.

Conclusion

Agriculture, including forestry and fishing, continue to provide the food and other materials necessary for population survival and well-being. However, there is some concern about the capacity of agriculture to meet the needs of future generations. The challenges in Samoa come from the population growth, increasing demand for food and the threat competing use of the same resources of land and water. The underlying structural changes in Samoa’s primary sector are a concern. The variation in income levels, the lack of access to land for subsistence particularly for urban dwellers, the shrinking pool of family labour, are causal to some families’ inability to achieve a balanced diet. The health problems related to nutrition and dietary deficiencies will become more prevalent in Samoa unless the Government and community leaders are fully committed to addressing the root causes of these problems. In addition to public awareness and health education programmes already put in place, additional action may be needed such as banning the importation of food products of low nutritional value or increasing tariffs on these products to discourage their consumption.

2.7 Poverty Reduction

On a macro scale the per capita GDP, which has been traditionally used as the measure of the standard of living, has increased to around USD760 in 1993. On a global scale the human development achievements based on this measure places Samoa under the United Nations category of a Least Developed Country.

The shortcomings of the GDP per capita has led to the increasing use of the Human Development Index which is constructed from a number of economic, health and education achievement indicators including life expectancy, real per capita GDP, adult literacy rate and combined
enrolment ratio. In 1994 Samoa ranked 88 out of 174 countries in the Human Development Index. The index measure was slightly less than Fiji, but well above Papua New Guinea. The strong social indicators have lifted the global ranking of Samoa in contrast to the GDP per capita measure.

To capture poverty issues in development the Human Poverty Index (HPI) has gained increasing attention for global comparisons. The HPI is constructed from a number of health and education access and achievement indicators including the likelihood of dying before 40, the adult literacy rate, percentage of people without access to safe water, percentage of people without access to health services and percentage of under-weight children under 5. The Human Poverty Index for Samoa developed by the UNDP in 1999 of 8.6 ranks Samoa 6th amongst 12 Pacific Island Countries or about the same ranking amongst 75 global Developing Countries. The relatively high ranking for Samoa reflects relatively strong social indicators in life expectancy, literacy and access to water, health and education services.

The main characteristics of poverty as they apply in Samoa using available statistics are discussed as follows:

**Poverty of Income**

Income poverty defines the lack of sufficient income to meet minimum consumption needs. Relative poverty means living in a considerably worse way relative to other people in the same society. These poverty concepts are often analyzed based on National household income surveys which attempt to measure household or individual income or the extent of income inequality. The effectiveness of these income-based measures is limited on account of the special characteristics that are also important for livelihood.

In the case of Samoa such characteristics include the role of subsistence production, remittances, operations in the cash and non-cash economy and an understanding of the Samoan traditions and culture.

As part of the UNDP Poverty Strategy Initiatives, the latest empirical study to measure poverty in Samoa, was conducted through the Department of Statistics using the results of the 1997 Household Income Survey. The study examined absolute poverty using food and basic need poverty lines estimates as well as relative poverty assessed in terms of the characteristics of the poorest 20 percent of sample households. There has been some controversy with the findings of the study on sampling methods such that Government has yet to decide on an acceptable benchmark for poverty measurement. The Government plans to undertake a poverty-focused survey in 2002 as part of the development of a comprehensive poverty strategy.

**Food Poverty Line (FPL)**

The FPL identifies households, which cannot afford a basic minimum nutritionally adequate and palatable diet. Using the data from the 1997 Samoa Household Income and Expenditure Survey the Food Poverty Line was estimated through the UNDP funded study at ST152.43 representing a weekly diet for a family of four adults and three children developed by the Nutrition Centre of the Health Department. The results show that around 50 percent of households did not have sufficient daily food expenditure to meet the dietary requirements.

**Basic Need Poverty Line (BNPL)**

BNPL identifies households, which cannot afford the basic minimum nutritionally adequate and
palatable diet as well as essentials for life transport, energy (electricity, kerosene and wood), health, education, water, and housing. Using data from the 1997 Samoa Household Income and Expenditure Survey the Basic Needs Poverty Line was estimated at ST189.27 representing a weekly minimum expenditure for a diet for a family of four adults and three children as well as the minimum costs for transport, energy, health, education, water and housing. The results found that one in three households could not properly meet their basic needs and were poor relative to the estimated BNPL.

Relative Poverty

The characteristics of the poorest households were analyzed using standardized household expenditure data. The analysis assumes that household expenditure is for the equal benefit of all household members, which may not necessarily be so in reality. The results show a median total daily expenditure per adult equivalent from standardized data of ST6.12. The lowest 20 percent of households spent around ST3.39 per day for each adult male equivalent.

Poverty of Opportunities

Poverty of Opportunity is defined as the inability of people to lead the kinds of lives they aspire to and is based on an underlying idea that more people are denied basic human opportunities than are denied a minimum income. Poverty of Opportunity can be assessed in terms of education, health and employment, however, poverty of opportunity can also involve the denial of opportunities in material well-being, access to markets, job security, political and social freedoms and other dimensions that are not easy to quantify.

On account of the Samoan culture and social practices, the broader concept of poverty of opportunity include the level of access to and standards of education and health services, lack of economic assets, social exclusion and political marginalisation, is considered a more appropriate description of poverty for Samoa.

The possible potential areas, which aggravate poverty in Samoa, are linked to the following economic, political, cultural and vulnerability factors.

(i) A narrow economic base and geographic isolation from markets
(ii) Customary land tenure system with no clear registration system in place hinder development of customary lands particularly in rural areas, however, it also ensures that there is access to land for every member of the extended family.
(iii) Customary owned land cannot be used as collateral for financing.
(iv) The social and ceremonial obligations in the extended family, church and village context of the Faa-Samoa could aggravate poverty of income particularly in the rural areas,
(v) Vulnerability of agricultural crops to pests and diseases as shown by the taro blight could aggravate poverty in the agro-based villages in the rural areas,
(vi) Vulnerability to cyclones and other natural disasters like flooding is significant given the concentration of settlements and traditional villages are located in exposed coastal areas.
(vii) Urban drift

(viii) Lack of paid employment opportunities

(ix) Lack of access to credit

The growth of the formal economy has been reflected in a growing concentration of income since the early 1970s. However, where growth is achieved on a sustained basis it has been argued that generally poverty will be reduced and most people will benefit from a higher standard of living.

The wage-earning sector makes up less than half of those who are classified as economically active. In 1996 the national average wage in the formal sector was about SAT$5,000, with 60 percent of wage earners earning less than the average and around 86 percent earning less than SAT$10,000 (UNDP 1998). Urban villages are much more likely to have a waged worker compared with peri-urban and rural villages. Villages studies have shown that 78 percent of families in an urban village had at least one waged worker compared with 37 percent in a peri-urban village and 33 percent in rural villages (Fairbairn-Dunlop 1991).

At the village level the economic differences between families can be extremely variable depending on access to cash, either from earnings or remittances. A social demarcation (not an economic one) relates to rank in accordance with the matai system. Within the traditional domain both pastors and local entrepreneurs have higher economic standing. However entrepreneurs must redistribute considerable income to traditional causes to maintain their ability to operate effectively as an entrepreneur.

The Government has demonstrated a strong commitment to social development. This is reflected in particular in the priority given to education, health and basic infrastructure. However as the formal economy continues to grow there will continue to be growing social pressures with urban drift possibly leading to higher crime and environmental pressures and a weakening of traditional cultural norms.

Key Issues and Challenges

Within the context of promoting social development the Government should now look to address the following issues.

- Definition of poverty at national level; the distribution of poverty nationwide; the identification of most vulnerable groups in the economy (e.g. usually women headed households); develop national database for policy formulation and monitoring of poverty over time;
- Clear linkages of poverty alleviation programmes/activities to outputs and outcomes sought;
- Strategy for poverty alleviation and equitable distribution of benefits from the reforms;
- Maintaining social fabric of Samoan culture and traditional safety nets;
- Strengthen and support the role of organizations that work in the communities in service delivery.

Conclusion

Whilst there are no specifically designed poverty alleviation policies, the Samoan Government
has been aggressively pursuing major rural development initiatives to improve access to and quality of infrastructure and services in education and health. The current Samoa Development Strategy (SDS) also reflects the strong focus on the improvement of the rural village economy. Development assistance re-emphasizes the focus on priority areas articulated in the SDS.

It will be important for economic growth to continue and for government to develop and implement policies that support growth while at the same time establish a firm basis for assisting the most vulnerable groups. Improving basic education and making it easier for the private sector to operate in a non-distortive economic environment are critical. The creation of employment opportunities is a priority concern. This can only be effectively done by the private sector. In this respect Government will need to continue to create the conditions under which the private sector will thrive on a sustained basis creating jobs and incomes. Specific programmes aimed directly at poverty alleviation should be pursued. Well targeted intervention by the UN agencies to support these programmes will be crucial over the coming years.

**SOCIAL SERVICES AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT**

**2.8 Employment**

Despite the good overall economic growth performance in recent years, growth of formal sector employment has been relatively weak. The majority of the workforce is still employed in the agriculture and fisheries sector, reflecting the importance of subsistence activity. However recent indicators of GDP also indicate a relative decline in the share of subsistence activity in GDP. This trend in activity together with little increase in formal employment whilst is a not an entirely new feature of the Samoan economy, is a concern.

Samoa’s workforce consists of two major categories (1) persons who worked primarily to earn money and (2) persons who worked primarily to grow, gather or catch food. The first category is taken primarily to represent the formal employment sector and the second represents a larger and more fluid semi-formal and informal sector primarily based around agriculture. Table 1 provides a brief summary of the 1991 census categories. Proportionally, males consistently outnumber females in all categories. The total workforce consisted of 68 percent males and 32 percent females in 1991.

**TABLE 1**

**Categories of Employed for 1991**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Percent of the Total</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employers</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpaid workers</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>55,967</td>
<td>38,240</td>
<td>17,727</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The bulk of the economically active population recorded by the 1991 census worked primarily to grow, gather or catch food and totaled over 37,000 persons or some 66 percent of the labor force.
The other category, *persons who worked primarily to earn money*, appears to be growing. The 1999 Demographic and Health Survey of a 20 percent sample of the total population records 52 percent of the population 15 years and over as economically active with some half of these persons working primarily to earn money. A further 10 percent are studying, 35 percent involved with domestic duties and the remainder either retired/disabled or not responding.

With excess labour readily absorbed into subsistence activity, formal unemployment rates are very low. The 1991 census showed that 3.2 percent of the female workforce and 1.5 percent of the male workforce were unemployed and looking for work. It is considered however that there is significant underemployment in the sense that there are many people capable of undertaking higher value added activity if the opportunities were available.

With regard to gender, the 1999 sample proportions have changed to a work force consisting of 78 percent males and 22 percent females. This represents a considerable shift in favour of males since 1991 if it is actually the case.

### Formal Sector Workforce

Samoa’s formal private sector work force is relatively small and subject to considerable variation over time. (Note that presently there is a need for consistency of categories and the application of ISIC codes amongst the various collectors of employment data to assist in the use of these data for planning and monitoring.)

Males predominate in all divisions of the formal economy. The tertiary sector has a relatively greater number of females and as this sector appears to hold the most potential for growth, female participation should continue to increase. This is certainly the trend in the public sector, where some 53 percent of all permanent public servants being female (with temporary employees being predominately male). At senior levels, presently the permanent secretaries for 7 government departments are females, demonstrative of increasing female participation at all levels of government.

### TABLE 2

**Public Sector Employment, 1998**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent (salary)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>4,281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary (casual)</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total public sector employment</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,959</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,736</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,695</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: a. Excludes statutory authorities.*

*Source: Public Service Commission of Samoa.*

National Provident Fund data show total formal sector employment of some 23,000 persons in 1999. Employment has declined since 1996, reflecting a loss of employment in the manufacturing sector.

Agriculture remains the primary area for employment. As a sub-sector of agriculture, fisheries are gaining in importance and tourism will potentially provide increasing demand for skilled and semi-skilled labor. Absolute numbers required for tourism, however, presently remain small.
Human resource development appears best directed to provide the work force with a solid foundation that allows for flexibility and change. This encompasses a broad-based approach that focuses on the fundamentals of numeracy and literacy first. These are the priority prerequisites for the adult working population, including those who will work abroad.

Minimum adult wages apply but are amongst the lowest in the Pacific, and real minimum wages have declined substantially since 1980.

Conclusion

Most of Samoas work force is in the formal sector, involved in rural income generation and semi-subsistence agriculture, with remittances from abroad still the major source of cash income for many. The challenge for government and development is to generate more employment opportunities and to ensure a more gender balanced distribution of such opportunities.

2.9 Education

In 1999, there were 168 public schools, 35 schools administered by religious denominations and 3 privately owned schools. Over the period 1995-1999 national enrolments in schools remained fairly constant at around 50,000 per annum. A slight decrease in enrolments in public schools is matched by an increase in enrolments in non-Government schools.

The national participation rates (i.e. percentage of an age cohort enrolled in the education system for the period 1995-1999 revealed that the rates for students aged 5-14 years have been consistently above 90 percent. The rates for students aged 15-19 years have increased and should continue on this upward trend as a result of curriculum and infrastructure improvements. The balance between school participation between males and females has also been very good and Samoa has performed well in maintaining the gender balance.


“the policies and strategies of the plan are designed to build an institutional structure capable of delivering an education product that meets the criteria of equity, quality, relevancy and efficiency to its stakeholders”

Early Childhood Education

There is a strong demand for pre-school education throughout the country. The demand is being met largely by non-government organizations. The role of the Government is in curriculum development, teacher training and providing support for the National Early Childhood Education Council.

Primary Education
Primary education is readily accessible to all with practically every village in the country having its own primary school or sharing a school with neighboring villages. The dropout rates are high. A policy for compulsory education at the primary level is in place and the government is looking at measures for implementation.

The development of School facilities are the responsibility of the villages but have been consistently assisted by donors such as Japan, European Union and Australia. An ADB funded Infrastructural development project addresses overcrowding in the urban government schools through the upgrading of satellite schools in the urban areas and on Savaii.

**Secondary Education**

Equitable access to secondary education, rationalization of secondary facilities and more choices of study in the secondary curriculum are key issues that are being addressed and will be accorded priority in the new decade.

**Post Secondary and Tertiary Education**

There is a relatively high number of institutions in Samoa for tertiary education. The National University of Samoa is the largest tertiary institution with facilities in education, nursing, commerce, arts and science. Samoa also hosts the agricultural faculty of the University of the South Pacific as well as its centre for extension studies.

Samoa has invested heavily in education. It recently upgraded both the Technical Institute into a full-fledged Polytechnic and the University Preparatory Year Programme into the National University of Samoa offering full diploma and degree qualifications in a number of vocational and academic programmes. The education sector has attracted considerable donor funding. The Education Mini Summit convened by the Government of Samoa in May 1999 reported that 42 percent of all Australian assistance, 68 percent of New Zealand Overseas Development Assistance (NZODA) and 58 percent of all European Union micro-project assistance was dedicated to education. The Japanese Government funded the new campus of the National University of Samoa. Moves towards establishing a National Training Authority to standardize all accredited tertiary level education systems in the country has been started and will be lead to a more consolidated linkage between education on labour market demands in the country.

Although health and education have always been priority areas in the national development, it was not until the 1990s that public sector investment shifted from economic infrastructure to these social sectors. The Government has now put greater emphasis on vocational and technical training to help minimise structural unemployment and to ensure a steady supply of skilled and trained labour would always be available to meet the demands of both the public and private sectors for these skills. The ongoing commitment to provide under graduate and post graduate training for Samoans both in country and overseas underlines Government’s long term commitment to producing qualified Samoans to meet the development challenges of the next decade and beyond.

A major component of the public sector reform programme is the institutional strengthening of the public service agencies to enable a better focus on core functions of policy development, financial sustainability and efficient and cost effective service delivery to the public. An ongoing institutional strengthening project for the Department of Education is progressing well.

A major concern with acquiring specialised skills is the possible loss through overseas migration.
This ‘brain drain’ has been quite pronounced in the health and education sectors.

Key Issues and Challenges

- A considerable effort to improve education is now underway with virtually all the significant problems being addressed. This comprehensive approach to improvement may be ambitious. Government and donors will need to exercise care in avoiding the over-burdening of education officials and other stakeholders in attempting to accomplish too much too quickly.

- The fundamental priority is to ensure that primary education outputs include an increasing number of functionally literate and numerate students.
- The village primary school teacher still faces a plethora of difficulties. These reverberate through the entire education system to the detriment of basic human resource development.
- The evidence is clear that primary education, the basic building block of formal education, requires strengthening. Presently, the top ranking students completing secondary school and successfully passing examination requirements to enter post secondary and university courses are held to be deficient in basic numeracy and literacy skills. Total graduates of year 13 represent some 20 percent of all school leavers per annum. If the best of this 20 percent is now being found deficient, then there are grave implications for all the others.

Conclusion

The present situation marks considerable progress in education and training. The strategic and policy framework supported by both government and overseas assistance in concert with processes to strengthen stakeholder involvement should further strengthen education. The next challenge and most pressing priority is to achieve a sustained improvement in primary school teaching, teaching materials and primary school teachers.

2.10 Health and Water Sanitation

Samoa has relatively good health services. These services are however being reformed to meet the changing patterns of illnesses and deaths associated with changes in the level of development. Diseases spread by infection is giving way to ‘changing lifestyle’ diseases caused by changing dietary habits, lack of exercise and excessive use of alcohol and tobacco.

The main health indicators given in the table below point to a sound health basis for Samoa – low infant mortality rates, relatively high life expectancies and high rates of immunization coverage.

SELECTED KEY HEALTH INDICATORS (1990-1996)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crude birth rate/1000 population</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude death rate/1000 population</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality/1000 live births</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low birthweight</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 5 mortality</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality rate/100000 livebirths</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliveries by health personnel</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antenatal coverage</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immunisation coverage %</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>BCG</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPT3</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPV3</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measles</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2000, WHO health databank

The distribution of deaths by major causes can be summarized as follow:1
Non communicable diseases: 54.5%
Infectious Diseases: 8.3%
Accidents: 7.4%
Others: 29.8%

Communicable Diseases

Much progress has been made in the control and prevention of communicable diseases. The risk
of common childhood diseases has been reduced through the expansion of immunisation
coverage.
Communicable diseases such as poliomyelitis, tetanus and diphtheria have been virtually
eradicated in Samoa with the incidence of whooping cough, tuberculosis and measles remaining
relatively low.

Tuberculosis: There is need for government to implement a more constructive and productive
political commitment through sustainable financial support for the Stop TB Program nationwide.
Capacity building need to be developed for staff in the management, supervision, monitoring,
reporting and planning of programmes and technical training for laboratory staff and medical
personnel on relevant diagnostic skills to prevent over-reliance on x-rays for diagnosis. HIV
surveillance on TB cases also need to start in the near future.

Leprosy: In 1997 Samoa reached the point of Leprosy Elimination according to WHO standards
(prevalence below 1/10,000). Case detection rate has remained practically at the same level for
the last 10 years. The case detection rate recorded in August 2001 was 0.41/10,000. Case
detection, referral and follow-up are done by the nurses through their integrated community
services as there is very limited staff in the unit.

Lymphatic Filariasis: Lymphatic Filariasis is endemic in Samoa, though with numerous Mass
Drug Administrations dating back to 1965 the debilitating effects of this disease are no longer
evident in the population. The Samoa Filariasis Programme in 1999 was the first activity
implemented by PacELF since it was established following the meeting of Pacific Ministers of
Health in Palau. This first activity involved implementation of the new MDA treatment regime.
Two other MDAs followed in 2000 and 2001 with population coverage averaging at 90%.

Typhoid: Typhoid and Dengue are both endemic and occasionally reached epidemic levels in
Samoa. The last typhoid epidemic was in 1993 with 360 clinically diagnosed cases 270 laboratory
confirmed cases. In 2002 the typhoid outbreak had also reached epidemic levels and the
Department of Health has officially released a report to the WHO. Intensive media campaign had
been implemented on the TV Samoa with radio talkbacks on two radio stations to promote

1 Demographic and vital statistics survey, 2000
awareness and educate the public on the importance of hand washing, safe handling of food and to seek early medical consultation if suspected of experiencing symptoms of typhoid. There is free treatment for all clinically and laboratory diagnosed cases.

**Dengue:** The last dengue outbreak was in 2001. Public Response to control outbreak included vector control measures through environmental clean up of mosquito breeding sites and chemical spraying of prevalent areas and any new locations as identified by new cases. Communicable disease surveillance needs to be supplemented by environmental surveillance. Environmental preventive measures should be preferred to disease-specific interventions as they prevent a wider range of communicable diseases. Environmental surveillance should include identification of prevalent and high-risk areas, risk factors and to regularly monitor progress throughout the year. These need to be part of the annual plan and budget allocation of the government and channeling of funding and technical assistance from WHO. Laboratory capacity must be improved and strengthened to meet minimum standard requirements for ongoing monitoring and to be able to respond effectively during outbreaks.

**HIV/AIDS and STIs:** The first HIV/AIDS case was reported and recorded in 1990. Between 1990 and 2001, a total of 12 HIV/AIDS cases (10 adults and 2 infants). Eight (8) have since died and remaining four HIV positive have not yet manifested AIDS. Samoa’s experience with HIV/AIDS reveals sexual contact as the prevailing means of transmission. The high prevalence of STI (31%) in a moderate to low-risk population of pregnant women and its subsequent implications on the spread of HIV/AIDS, highlights the need to improve STI diagnosis and treatment and strengthen surveillance of sexual behavior in the population.

The government of Samoa responded to the presence of HIV/AIDS by developing a National AIDS Coordinating Council (NACC) and the Technical AIDS Committee (TAC) were established by cabinet mandate in 1987 and 1988 respectively to manage the implementation and monitoring of the National AIDS Prevention and Control Program and to coordinate national programs and activities in HIV/AIDS prevention. A national AIDS Policy had been officially approved and endorsed by cabinet. The development of the National HIV/AIDS policy provides a national framework to guide resource allocation and promote a more concerted effort for the implementation of prevention activities. The health department is the national focal point for HIV/AIDS management and control and provides secretariat support for NACC and technical leadership for TAC.

**Reproductive Health**

During the period between 1997 and 1998 pregnancy, childbirth and puerperium accounted for the highest percentage of hospital admissions. Conditions originating in the perinatal period accounted for the second highest (14%) cause of death amongst those hospitalized, the highest percentage (25%) of deaths was due to diseases of the circulatory system.

In 1999 the WHO funded a survey targeting antenatal women in the main Antenatal Clinic at the National Hospital. The survey was conducted on 472 pregnant women aged between 15 and 48, 47% of which were 25 years and younger. The survey revealed a high prevalence of STIs most common of which were chlamydiosis (30.9%), trichomonas (20.8%) and 3.3% with gonorrhea. HIV testing was also done but there were positive results. There is concern that the problem of STI is much more serious than is officially reported and the age group most commonly affected according to the survey is between 19 and 35 years of age.
Non-Communicable Diseases

Non-communicable and lifestyle-related diseases such as diabetes and hypertension are an increasing cause of morbidity. It is estimated that between 1991 and 1994, over 60 percent of the ten leading causes of death were diet-related.

**Obesity:** Obesity is a relatively new phenomenon as pictures of Samoans in the early 20th century were lean people. It is believed that the Samoan diet has changed with the importation of cheap food, which has very high fat content and it is more a matter of affordability rather than taste.

**Hyperlipidaemia:** Samoans have very high rates of hyperlipidaemia according to recent studies. Over one third of people in every age and sex category, even the young people, had at least one lipid abnormality.

**Smoking:** The 1997 WHO Western Pacific Regional Report from Manila reported an overall prevalence of current smokers in 1991 to be 34% in 15 years or older: 53% of males and 19% of females. The rise in people seeking medical treatment for Cancer & other related lifestyle diseases reflects the above trend. The Samoan Government and DOH & Attorney General have indicated support to ratify The Framework Convention on Tobacco Control.

**Hypertension:** McGarvey in 1995 found the prevalence of hypertension in Samoa to be 31% and 25% for men and women respectively aged 44-60 years.

**Rheumatic heart disease (RHD) and Rheumatic Fever,** are common causes of children being admitted to the National Hospital in Samoa and RHD is a common cause of death in young adults. “The prevalence of RHD in school children aged 5 – 17 years diagnosed by clinical criteria was 77.8 per 1000 (95% CI 64.0 – 91.6). This is the highest in the world to date.

**Diabetes:** Diabetes is increasing dramatically in parts of Samoa. The 1991 survey established a crude prevalence of 11.5%, almost a two-fold increase in the previous 13 years. Diabetes prevalence is significantly higher in the urban area than in the rural, and slightly higher in females than males. In males, the prevalence of diabetes in the four-year period 1991 to 1994 twenty people died in hospital of cancer. This figure almost doubled in 1995 and is reported at 14 in 1998.(DOH Annual Report 1997 &98) It is believed that environmental factors, unsafe sex practices, tobacco use and unhealthy dietary habits are contributing factors. It is also reported that patients present very late and often in advanced stages.

**Mental Health:** The community-based mental health nursing services recorded in 1997/1998 a total number of 2800 mental disorders. The three most important of which were: Mental retardation with epilepsy (44.6%), Schizophrenia (30.5%) and Effective Mood Disorders (11.5%).

**Suicide:** From 1983 to 1999, the average yearly number of attempts was 37, with a death rate of 57% or around 21 deaths. Young people as revealed from records of the Health Department, make the majority of suicide attempts.

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2 Department of Health Report 1997-1998
The rate of Low Birth Weight infants has remained steady since 1995 = 3.4% to 3.1% in 2000 but the number of malnourished children reported to the Nutrition Center has declined. From 66 in 1995 to 30 in 2000. Reports from the TTM Hospital reveals that the leading causes of mortality amongst Samoan youth are injuries from accidents and poisoning associated with high risk behaviour including substance abuse and suicide. Other significant causes of death include diseases of the circulatory system, infectious diseases and cancer. The leading causes of morbidity amongst youth are related to reproductive health and infectious diseases. Non-communicable diseases amongst youth have increased from an estimated 10% in 1978, to 15% in 1991. The most serious health issues identified by youth in the Apia Urban Youth Survey (1996) include Suicide, Substance Abuse and Reproductive Health.

National Health System

Most of the publicly financed and provided health services are funded through a national taxation system including income taxes, goods and services taxes, import taxes etc. With the exception of relatively low user charge at the point of use, all of the health services at government health facilities are heavily subsidised and some, mostly preventive health services and medical care for the elderly (above 65 years) are provided free of charge at all government health facilities. There are additional variable charges levied by Women’s Committees in the rural health facilities for primary and limited secondary care. Tertiary care overseas for patients that meet set criteria for referral are fully financed (with the exception of travel costs) by the governments of Samoa and New Zealand.

The Samoa National Health Care System is dominated by the public health sector consisting of the Department of Health (DOH) which provides primary, secondary, limited tertiary care and public health services through a network of 34 health facilities. Tertiary care unavailable in country is provided off island in neighbouring countries. There is one 201-bed National Hospital (NH), one 21 bed regional hospital, 3 district hospitals, 12 health centres and 17 sub-centres. There is a significant and rapidly expanding private health sector consisting of one 21 bed private hospital, 7 private medical clinics, 2 private pharmacies, 2 private dentistrys and an estimated 900 traditional healers. There are various health related NGOs focusing on reproductive health, HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancies, suicide and an extensive network of Womens Committees co-managing public funded rural health services.

Health and Financing

A breakdown of total health expenditures by function indicates, almost 45% is spent on curative services, 9.9% on ambulatory services, 14% on medical goods and pharmaceutical, 10.8% on health administration, 10.2% on health programs and 9% on other health related functions.

Water and Sanitation

Access to safe water remains a problematic issue for Samoa as it is for other parts of the Pacific. Presently this is being addressed, especially in the urban area of Apia. The problems are not technical but socio-economic. Community information, education and communication will be vital to ensure the sustainable success of providing safe water supplies. 68% of the population have access to safe water; 100% of the urban population and 95% of the rural population have access to adequate sanitation. 3

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3 UNICEF 2000
Sanitation has become a problem as Apia grows and is subject to flooding during the wet season. The Department of Health is also continuing to address the problems of sanitation in rural areas. The department is responsible for inspecting village water and sanitation facilities as well as other public health issues.

Key Issues and Challenges

Health and education are tightly woven into the Samoan way (fa’a samoa) through village committees. Thus stakeholder and grass roots participation has a long and successful history in Samoa. This grass roots community involvement presents enormous opportunity. At the same time, it has brought challenges.

One means to improve health has been through the integration of services with a more rational central hierarchy that concentrates many services. Health has also worked to upgrade nursing qualifications and divide community nursing between morning village clinic sessions and afternoon house calls that ensure an inclusive approach to those who may not be entitled to village clinic access. The place of preventative health within this scheme has been increasing to include environmental health officers being placed in nearly every district. The strengthening of prevention is also targeted through the primary education system where a project is commencing that provides hygiene and public health awareness material to supplement the primary curriculum.

The next great challenge for both health and education is to further and sustainably strengthen their primary sector that is primary health care and primary education. The Department of Health understands the importance of primary health care. It is taking a realistic stance on the socio-political challenges to balance secondary and tertiary health services with primary health care given that the latter consistently has been proven the most cost-effective expenditure of public health funds. However, as in virtually all countries, primary health care is often not as publicly popular as secondary and tertiary treatment services. The search for appropriate balance is ongoing.

Conclusion

The government reform process specifically aims to devolve much greater responsibility to line agencies, in this case, specifically to health and education. This is to include hiring and dismissing staff, and generally assuming responsibility for both outputs (the present concern) and outcomes (the requirement of the future). Both health and education are moving toward the reorganization of their management fabric. The next step is to devolve management and leadership to clearly defined local levels where outcomes such as functional literacy or infant mortality can be measured, understood and responded to locally. Continued vigilance in monitoring the HIV/AIDS situation is needed and must be given due attention by the national authorities and community.
3. INFORMATION COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY

3.1 Recent Developments

Samoa is undergoing a rapid shift in its strategic development focus on information communication technology (ICT) as a vehicle to diversify and enhance its economic base. The Government of Samoa has therefore set up a National ICT Council to map out a national strategy. Establishment of an ICT Ministry which will incorporate the national policy and regulatory functions of telecommunications and broadcasting is being finalised. The use of a wide range of technologies to collect, store, process, analyse and transmit information still relies heavily on an effective and efficient telecommunications sector. A significant improvement from the teledensity of 5% recorded in 2000 is now expected with the national fibre optics cable network in the most populated areas being completed in 2002.

The per capita utilisation of cellular phones in Samoa which is considered relatively high is also expected to be further enhanced by the introduction of a digital cellular phone system.

Approximately 15% of the population have direct access to Personal Computers (PCs) and this indicator is rapidly improving with the increasing volume of PCs being imported.

The internet services provided by three private internet service providers have improved significantly since 2001 due to access to larger bandwidth and improved quality and access to telephone lines.

A number of policy and institutional reforms have been instituted to enhance the competitiveness of telecommunications sector. The Department of Post and Telecommunications is divided into three separate entities – namely a ministry dealing with legislation and sector policy issues, a regulator to administer and monitor technical functions such as frequency spectrum management and the setting and supervision of technical standards; and the corporatisation of the operational side of posts and telecommunications. Although exclusive licenses have been issued to the telecommunications service providers in which Government is involved, there has been monitoring of licensing conditions and time limits have also been imposed. There are clear policy objectives to ultimately make the telecommunications sector open to increased competition. Some of the recent major developments in the ICT area include the following:

(i) Active promotion and use of electronic banking through use of automatic teller machines

(ii) Development by the National University of Samoa (NUS) of teleconferencing facility for delivery online of courses produced in Samoa for American Samoa and neighbouring countries through a public service telecommunication link (SAS) between Samoa and American Samoa.

(iii) Support by the Health Department of a private online medical school for local and overseas students.

(iv) Development of a national health information systems which will assist in internal and international communications.
3.2 Key Issues and Challenges

Governance

- Finalising a national ICT strategy linked to processing economic and social goals articulated in the Statement of Development Strategy (SDS)
- Establishment of the ICT Ministry with strong policy and regulatory capacities.
- Establishment of legislative framework to promote, regulate and protect ICT-based activities.

Private Sector

- Exclusive licenses granted to ‘pioneer’ service providers to be closely monitored
- Promotion of clear policy and regulatory guidelines to facilitate risk assessment by existing and potential private service providers

Trade and Investment

- Develop appropriate policy and legislative framework to promote e-commerce
- Development and promotion of foreign investment to assist with financing the capital requirements for ICT infrastructure
- Development of cooperation arrangements with neighbouring countries to share ICT infrastructure similar to the SAS link arrangements.
- Develop systems and incentives to improve sustainability of the trade information databases with the Customs Department
- Developing a reliable national power systems to minimize damage to ICT equipment.

Employment

- Establishment of a controlled system to facilitate recruitment of overseas skills to address the expected acute shortage of ICT skills in the short and medium term
- Launching of a national ICT training programme to supply basic ICT expertise to underpin the national ICT strategy

Education

- Introduction of ICT training at all levels of the education system
- Training and retraining of teachers/tutors in ICT
- Provision of ICT infrastructure and equipment to schools in the rural villages to minimize any “digital divide” between the urban and rural based schools.
- Enhance development and promotion of the NUS delivery of online training courses to local and overseas clients

Health

- Establishment of systems and incentives to sustain the ICT systems set up in the Health Department
Adapting ICT systems to improve primary health service delivery in geographically isolated rural villages

3.3 Conclusion

Whilst there have been significant improvements in the range and quality of ICT infrastructure, the developmental benefits from such improvements require a clear national ICT strategy to coordinate the policy, regulatory, institutional and operational components of ICT and how they will contribute to addressing the developmental goals articulated in the Samoa Development Strategy 2002-2003. The most critical ingredient which Samoa will face in implementing a successful ICT strategy will be its ability to rapidly build up the pool of ICT skills from both overseas recruitment programmes in the short-term and the educational and training programmes in the medium and long-term. The educational and training programmes necessitate giving priority to incorporating ICT into the curriculum at all levels of primary and secondary schools.

4. ENVIRONMENT

4.1 Recent Developments

Samoa relies on its environment for its agriculture, fisheries, forestry, clean water and health. Social and economic development therefore relies heavily on the recognition that such resources must be managed in a sustainable manner.

The first step in preparing a framework for the development of environmental policies aimed at sustainable management of the environment and natural resources was the preparation in 1993 of Samoa’s National Environmental Management Plans (NEMs).

Draft Environment Impact Assessment (EIA) legislation has been prepared. Notwithstanding the delays in passing EIA legislation, all large government projects are now subjected to the provisions of the draft legislation. Projects funded by donors require that such assessments are undertaken.

Government is involved in a number of national as well as regional programmes such as the conservation of marine resources and biodiversity, the development of marine protected areas, coastal infrastructure management funded by the World Bank and community education. There has been enhanced public awareness of environmental and conservation issues as a result of these initiatives. Samoa is a party to several regional and international environmental agreements/conventions.

Biodiversity

Samoa has been in the forefront of biodiversity conservation programmes regionally and internationally. It was the first country in the South Pacific to set up a national park system, nature reserves and conservation areas. Samoa is a party to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), and the various regional agreements on nature conservation. National policies and strategic plans on biodiversity conservation have been developed including the recently approved National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP) which is one of the requirements of the CBD.
Samoa’s biodiversity is significant because of the diversity of its species. Out of a total of 226 islands in the Pacific that were surveyed by Dahl in 1986, the Samoan islands were ranked high in terms of conservation value with Savaii at 23, Aleipata islands at 30, and Upolu at 46. This shows how significant Samoa’s biodiversity is, hence the need to conserve and sustainably use the islands biodiversity. The flora of Samoa is one of the most diverse in the Polynesian group, with about a quarter of the plants endemic to Samoa. Of the birds of Samoa, 23% of the birds species are endemic to Samoa.

Significant declines in the biodiversity of Samoa are evident in the results of surveys being undertaken over the last ten years. This dramatic decline is attributed to a number of factors including the following:

- Unsustainable practices and overexploitation of natural resources have resulted in the decline in available resources. Such activities include the excessive clearance of land for agricultural purposes, settlement, over hunting of pigeons, doves and fruit bats, over fishing, and unsustainable logging activities;

- High Forest clearance with one third of the country’s forest (23,885 ha), cleared between 1977 and 1990. The forest clearance rate in the last five years was recorded at 3 percent per annum, which was rated as one of the highest in the world. It is estimated that at the current rate of clearance, all merchantable forests will be gone in the very near future;

- Frequent occurrence of Natural disasters such as cyclones, destroying most of the country’s natural resources;

- Invasive species has been identified as one of the main threats to Samoa’s biodiversity. The uncontrolled rates at which pests and diseases are spreading in Samoa pose a great danger to the existing flora and fauna especially on the native species.

**Climate Change**

Samoa ratified the United Nations Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) on the 29th November 1994. The ratification of this important UN convention, demonstrates the urgent need to address pertinent issues relating to climate change, which will have major impacts on Samoa.

As part of its obligations under the UN Framework for the Convention on Climate Change, Samoa prepared its first national communications report to the Secretariat. The Communications contained projections and recommendations arising out of specific studies done to address climate change and sea level rise implications, as well as the development of suitable mitigation and adaptation strategies. The studies included:

**Green House Gases (GHG) Inventory**

The greenhouse effect is identified as one of the contributing factors to climate changes, though most people would argue that Samoa’s emissions are insignificant compared to
other bigger countries. Nevertheless, it is important to have a good understanding of the GHG sources and sinks, as well as the magnitude of GHG emissions and removals.

The inventory showed that in 1994, Samoa’s GHG emissions were insignificant according to world standards. Analysis of the 1997 GHG emissions, showed an increasing trend from 1994 to 1997. For example, the net carbon dioxide emissions of 34.09 Gg between 1994 and 1997, indicated a yearly increase of about 8.52 Gg.

Similarly, the non-CO2 GHG also recorded the same upward trend. Methane records a net increase of 0.52 Gg between 1994 and 1997. During the same period, all sources of methane also indicate increased emissions, at an annual rate of 0.13 Gg. Nitrous oxide recorded increased emissions of about 0.23 Gg within the inventory period, thus having an emission rate of 0.06 Gg per annum. Carbon monoxide recorded a slightly higher emission increase of 0/96 Gg within the same period. The resultant rate of emission of carbon monoxide is therefore 0.24 Gg per annum. For the non-methane volatile organic compound, a very small increase of 0.199 Gg was recorded within the inventory period with an annual rate of 0.05 Gg.

In spite of Samoa’s insignificant GHG emissions, it is important to understand the implications of climate change in order to set up appropriate adaptive measures to meet such changes. Efforts must be concentrated in setting up a proper data management system to ensure the reliability and accuracy of the data collected.

Vulnerability and adaptation

About 70% of Samoa’s population and infrastructure are located in the coastal area. Thus are vulnerable to adverse impacts of CC and SLR as evident in the cyclones of the early nineties. Samoa is also very vulnerable to other extreme climatic events such as prolonged drought periods associated with the El Nino/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and La Nina phenomena and coral bleaching stimulated by extremely low tides. The vulnerability and adaptation assessment of Samoa showed that:

- the increasingly frequent and intense cyclones likely to affect Samoa are a major threat to its sustainability;
- the ‘best guess’ scenario indicates that by the year 2100, temperatures will have increased by 2°C; SLR of 49cm, and rainfall increase of 4.1
- further detailed information is needed in order to make better predictions of Vulnerability & Adaptation needs of Samoa;
- 70% of the population and infrastructure is situated in the coastal zone, thus there is a need for adaptation measures to be focused on those areas;
- increased heat stress on organisms and altered water requirements for various species are also associated with CC and SLR. This would severely stress Samoa’s uniquely adapted biodiversity and thus necessitate further adaptation for alien and potentially invasive species;
- enhanced stress due to environmental and socio-economic changes coupled with CC and SLR;
- implementation of adaptation measures and strategies in Samoa should take a ‘no-responses’ approach. The least cost adaptation options are consistent with this approach; and
- there is compelling evidence (qualify) that by global standards Samoa is one of the most vulnerable nations to CC and SLR.
Samoa has already taken positive actions towards addressing climate change and sea level rise issues. By ratifying the UNFCCC, Samoa has agreed to adhere to and comply with the requirements set out under the UNFCCC. The National Communications Report sets the scene by identifying climate change and sea level rise needs of the country as well as options and measures to address these related issues. The completion of the GHG Inventory and the Vulnerability and Adaptation assessment provide the framework for the development of suitable and practical mitigation and adaptation strategies for Samoa. A national climate change policy endorsed by Cabinet, further strengthens the commitment of the Government to fully address climate change issues at the local level. Awareness and educational programmes continue to play a fundamental role in having a good understanding of climate change and its impacts as well as ways to address them. An effective and reliable database must be in place to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the information to assist with sound decision making.

**Persistent Organic Pollutants**

Samoa was one of the original signatories of the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) in May 2001. Samoa’s signing is an indication of its commitment to the control and eventual elimination of the dangerous POPs that pose a threat to the environment.

Waste management has become increasingly significant in Samoa over recent years, and has emerged as a priority concern hence the provisions in Part VIII of the Lands Surveys and Environment Act 1989 and the current National Waste Management Policy. An important aspect of the Waste Management Policy is the development of national actions to address the issues of hazardous chemicals and wastes.

Samoa is and will continue to be exposed to contamination from Persistent Organic Pollutants. It does not produce any of the substances listed as controlled Persistent Organic Pollutants in the Convention, hence relies on imports to supply all of its agricultural, medical, and industrial chemicals.

Specific Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) present in Samoa include DDT in human fat and milk, livestock, fresh water, soil and some crops4. Smaller concentrations of heptachlor found in most of these. POPs are known to be present in Samoa in various forms. In the Apia capital area generally small residues of four others have been found in marine shellfish and sediments, i.e. chlordane, dieldrin, endrin, and PCBs5. Surface sediment samples collected around Apia near the main ship-berth presented unacceptable concentrations of persistent organic contaminants in terms of environmental criteria for p,pDDT and p,pDDD. However confirmation of the quantities present has not been fully determined yet. It is nevertheless noted that according to activities taking place in Samoa, POPs in Samoa come from imported agricultural chemicals, transformer oils contaminated with PCBs, various sites contaminated by these chemicals, and old landfills.

The presence of these persistent organic pollutants in other parts of the country are not known, thus will need more research.

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4 Fryauff, D.J. (1982) Pesticide Use and Regulations in Western Samoa. Commissioned by the Samoan-German Crop Protection Project, Samoa.

In 1994 Samoa reported to UNEP the final importation of about one metric tonne of DDT in mosquito coils. Samoa’s no consent to such importation had been announced to take place about six months previously in 1993 under the joint UNEP/ Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) programme for Prior Informed Consent (PIC) for trade in such hazardous pesticides/chemicals. Further reports indicated that the supplying country as well as the country through which trans shipment occurred, had also issued such no consent. No consent was also announced for chlordane, however a later report indicated that old stock continued to be used to about the end of 1997. A preliminary dioxin and furan inventory of Samoa has been conducted6.

Aside from the Pesticides Regulations 1990, which provides for the regulation and control of imports of pesticides into the country, there is no other legal instrument specifically for POPs. The scope of the Pesticides regulations also covers just pesticides and not other hazardous substances that are obvious types of POPs, such as PCBs for which the Attorney General has recommended a Customs Order which has been drafted.

There is also a significant body of environmental law already in legal effect or in draft form in Samoa for the protection of the marine environment. In particular, there are the Lands and Environment Act 1989, the Health Ordinance 1959, Water Act 1965 for general environmental management and protection, while the Petroleum Act 1984, Ports Authority Bill 1989, and EIA Regulations have been codified to control pollution of Samoa’s external waters. These laws can be used to formulate legal mechanisms to control and manage the importation, use and disposal of POPs in Samoa.

To address POPs related issues Samoa is currently implementing the following:

- Samoa is currently in the process of formulating a National Implementation Plan (NIP) on POPs. The NIP enables Samoa to meet its obligations under the Stockholm Convention and to ensure that its fragile and very limited environment resources, and public health are protected from the hazardous Persistent organic Pollutants.
- There are also other relevant regional initiatives such as the Prior Informed Consent regional project, which also address POPs issues;
- Educational and awareness programmes are vital in raising awareness and understanding on POPs issues and their impacts on humans and the environment;
- Capacity building is one area, which needs to be strengthened in order to build local capacity on practical measures to address POPs issue.

**Waste Management**

Waste management is a key environmental issue in Samoa, given the increasing rate at which solid waste is generated in the country particularly within the Apia urban areas. To address this issue the Government has put in place legislative measures and policies to guide, monitor and control the proper management of waste in the country. In addition to these national initiatives, Samoa has also actively participated in regional and international programmes relating to waste management. It is already a party to the regional Waigani Convention, which bans the importation into the country of hazardous and radioactive wastes, and to control the transboundary movement and management of hazardous wastes within the South Pacific region. Additionally, Samoa is also a party to

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6 Cable, W.J. Preliminary Dioxin…Inventory of Samoa, IV in Cable and Taule’alo, ibid.
the Basel Convention on the control of transboundary movements of hazardous wastes and their Disposal.

Solid waste is generally referred to as discarded solid materials from municipal, industrial and agricultural activities that have been rejected for further use. In the context of Samoa, solid wastes are mainly non-hazardous materials from households and small businesses. It is mainly in the form of biodegradable such as food waste, combustible material such as textiles, paper and plastics, non-combustibles such as metals and glass. It also includes bulky wastes such as old vehicles, gardening litter, construction debris and old appliances.

Solid waste management in Samoa is characterised by:

- Indiscriminate disposal of wastes (solid and liquid)
- Poor municipal disposal mechanisms due to lack of resources and low level of technology
- Lack of awareness and understanding
- Lack of data and information on specific types of waste
- Lack of systematic and integrated waste management systems

A solid waste assessment conducted in Samoa based mainly on the generation rate or total amount of waste generated clearly showed that during the period from 1994 to 1999, there was an increase of 0.47 kg per person per day.

Samoa’s National Report to the World Summit on Sustainable Development (2002), reported past attempts by the Government in trying to establish an integrated sewage system for the Apia urban area. Sewage treatment plants are independently established as part of a commercial operation, and not connected to any centralized system. Only a few commercial institutions have established on site sewage treatment plants, and these include the national hospital, a number of main hotels in town, and a few industrial companies. Others mostly use the common septic tank systems, with disposal at the main landfill. Problems associated with the current sewage system include the possibility of water contamination, coastal and marine pollution from effluent that is washed directly into the sea and waterways.

While most of the data and information available to date is confined mainly to solid waste, little is known of the other wastes, which include industrial, commercial, hospital and chemical wastes. As Samoa continues to develop itself economically, it is inevitable that this will result in an increase in the generation of industrial, chemical and commercial wastes. Thus, the need to ensure that accurate and reliable data and information are collected and analysed to assist with the formulation and implementation of appropriate strategies, programmes and plans to address all relevant issues.

Actions already implemented to combat the issues of waste management problems include the endorsement of the Waste Management Policy by Cabinet in 2001 (WSSD – Samoa National Report: 2002), and the subsequent implementation of the key recommendations presented in this policy document. Capacity building activities, awareness and educational programmes continue to promote waste management issues at all levels of society. Raising the level of awareness as well as building appropriate capacity, are fundamental to the success of any waste management strategy. Although there are on-going efforts towards waste management in Samoa, there are a number of key areas where priorities should be placed. These include, the enforcement of the
relevant provisions of the Lands, Surveys and Environment Act 1989 supported by a well trained and qualified local staff, establishment of a piped sewage reticulation and sewage treatment system for the Apia urban area, proper and appropriate facilities to cater for medical or hospital wastes, appropriate waste management technology, awareness and educational programmes as well as adopting a coordinated multi-sectoral approach in addressing waste management issues in Samoa. Adequate financial resources must be made available to enable Samoa to address identified and any newly emerging waste management issues.

Government of Samoa Strategies for Environment

The Government of Samoa’s Development Strategy 2002-2004 emphasized that greater focus will be placed on the protection of the environment. The main initiatives include the following:

- A new Planning and Urban Management Agency would be established within the Department of Lands, Surveys and Environment which would become the Urban planning and development agency for Samoa covering land use, development and environmental matters
- Conservation areas would be maintained with possible new sites for national parks and reserves to be identified
- Economic valuations of environmental resources will be undertaken with the continuation of environmental awareness programs
- Protection of water catchment areas would be considered as top priority

4.2 Key Issues and Challenges

Governance

- Updating and improving linkages of the National Environment Management Strategy and the national statement of development strategies and public sector investment programmes
- Passing and implementing legislation to improve enforcement of Environment Impact Assessments (EIAs)
- Further rationalisation of environmental policy and regulatory functions of Government to be consolidated under the Lands and Environment Department
- Effective monitoring of Treaties and Conventions, which could be used to support environmental management, and planning.

Trade and Investment

- Expanded use of economic valuations of environmental resources to reinforce strict compliance of large investors to EIA requirements
- Expanded use of tariffs to support waste management initiatives
- Use of financial tax incentives for investments into environmentally friendly technologies
- Support for promotion and development of eco-business enterprises

Agricultural and Fisheries Development

- Enhanced administrative systems for controlled use of pesticides by farmers
• Improving community awareness of the environment and health risks of pesticides
• Strengthening the support systems for village conservations areas
• Tightening enforcement to protect mangrove areas
• Enforcement of policy to contain depletion of merchantable forests
• Promotion of alternative methods of production such as organic farming

4.3 Conclusion

There has been significant progress in the planning and management of environmental resources in Samoa. Further efforts are needed in the development of additional policies under the NEMS framework, and consolidation of regulatory responsibilities and the enhancement of capacities of the Government and NGO institutions responsible for implementing these policies and regulations.

5. DISASTER MANAGEMENT

5.1 Recent Developments

The experience of past cyclones has provided valuable lessons in terms of strengthening the institutional and support framework for disaster preparedness. A number of preventative initiatives against national disasters are in place such as significant upgrading and improvements in the capacity and capability of the Meteorological Office to access critical weather information on a timely basis and disseminate advance warning on any natural disaster such as cyclones, tsunamis and earthquakes. Government has also developed and enforced building code standards for all new buildings to minimise damage to infrastructure from cyclones. A national programme has also been launched to identify the best strategies for the design of coastal infrastructure, roads and bridges to keep potential disaster-related damage and loss of lives to the minimum.

The Prime Minister’s Department is responsible for coordination of national disaster management programmes under the direction of the National Disaster Management Council chaired by the Prime Minister.

The Statement of Development Strategy (SDS) 2002-2004 does not explicitly articulate a strategy for national disaster preparedness. However, the need for enhanced preventative measures are articulated in the strategies related to infrastructure.

5.2 Key Issues and Challenges

Governance

• Preparation of a National Preparedness and Contingency Plan to address the high risk and vulnerable sectors linked to recent economic and financial analysis of national vulnerability issues.
• Providing financial support for the National Disaster Management Council under the budget.
• Strengthening enforcement of standards and practices which have been legislated to enhance resilience of building and infrastructure to natural disasters
• Reactivation of national disaster preparedness awareness programmes
• Strengthening the infrastructure and human resources capacity of the Samoa
Meteorological Service to enhance its capability to continue providing cyclone warnings and other information on other natural disasters

**Education**

- Introduction into curriculum for primary and secondary schools topics on national disaster procedures

**Food Security**

- Establishing a strategy to ensure adequate ready access of overseas reserves for importation of basic food items following a national disaster

### 5.3 Conclusion

Priority needs to be accorded to preparation of national disaster preparedness and contingency plans for all sectors considered vulnerable and high risk. Another priority area is the rationalisation of administrative responsibilities among key Government Departments for implementation of the proposed national disaster-preparedness and contingency plan.

### 6. GENDER

#### 6.1 Recent Developments

Gender strategies and policies to date have predominantly focused on the promotion and protection of women’s rights as well as mainstreaming of gender issues.

Samoa continues to play a leading role amongst the Pacific Island Countries in promoting women’s rights and has ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Women have equity before the law, equal rights for social security, employment and equal pay, and maternity leave, and a full ministry coordinating women’s policies and relevant programmes with a national outreach.

The Ministry of Women Affairs was established in 1991 to coordinate and facilitate collaboration between Government and women organisations to further strengthen the integration of women into mainstream development. Its key role is policy advice and implementation of relevant programs for the development social and well being of women (National Policy on Women).

The various women organisations and the Women in Business Foundation (WIBF) in particular have been instrumental in the development and management of successful business ventures in a wide range of activities especially in the rural communities. Women groups have also been active participants in and contributors to consultative forums with Government in the development of national economic policies and strategies.

The available estimates of the gender balance in terms of the development and poverty indices as well as indicators of education access and achievement indicate that both sexes
fare equally in their standards of living. Recent trends point to an increasing participation of females in the workforce and as heads of households and are also taking up higher administrative and management positions within the public service. The life expectancy gender ratio of 103 and adult literacy gender ratio also at 103 both favour females.

In education, the ratio of primary school enrolment for females is 94 and 75 for secondary school enrolment. Combined with the female literacy rate of 96, the participation of women in education for Samoa is very high. This has filtered towards the increasing participation of women in higher administrative and managerial positions in the workforce.

In health, female life expectancy at birth is recorded at 67 slightly higher than that for men. The health sector programmes focusing on women include nutrition, family planning, increased breastfeeding opportunities in workplaces and more importantly health awareness programs on HIV/AIDS prevention and prevention from increasing lifestyle diseases. The increased incidence of teenage pregnancies is also being addressed by the health sector and the Family Health Association, which is an NGO.

Women’s participation in employment and the economy as a whole indicated in the UNDP Human Development Report 1999 is as follows:

- 47.6% of overall population
- 46% of economically active population
- 19% are in paid employment
- 6% representation in Parliament
- 15% are in senior executive and management positions in government
- 47% of the technical and professional workforce

Women participation in business has also contributed to the economy with the active participation of the non-governmental organisations such as the Women in Business Foundation in the development of women entrepreneurs at the grassroots level. The Small Business Enterprise Centre have also been assisting an increased number of women in the development of business plans as well as providing business advice in starting up a business. Hence the role of women in the development of the economy has been seen through many sectors such as the tourism sector, retailing, catering and hospitality sector, small based tailoring businesses, laundromats, and micro enterprises such as coconut oil expelling and the revival of the fine mats and other Samoan handicrafts. Micro-enterprises could be an opportunity for further development.

Impacts of the changing role of women:

- Women are in more income generating activities to supplement family income in addition to their household responsibilities. Their contribution to the family budget has become vital. Women are searching for every income generating option they can. Often women’s work is done within the ambit of the family systems and so the burden is shared – however often it is not and so the burden becomes intolerable. At the same time, women are not participating in decisions, which affect them. Their dual roles as income earners and mothers sometimes place them at risk with regard to their health.

- Women are the majority of informal traders and rely on self supporting means and informal institutional arrangements thus making them more vulnerable
Women are also vulnerable to other forms of abuse. A sample survey of urban women showed that 44% of women were acceptors of violence especially those women who were economically dependent on their husbands (Mapusaga o Aiga Research).

Women headed households are particularly vulnerable where they only receive some form of support from their families, which may not be sufficient to meet their basic needs. This is reflected in the high percentage of children treated for malnutrition at the National Nutrition Centre coming from female headed households and those mothers in de facto relationships.

The above situations provide evidence that women’s participation is becoming a matter of necessity in these changing times. Furthermore women’s participation generally leads to better decision making because they bring with them a different perspective and at the same time enhance the likelihood of reaching people centred and practical solutions.

The Strategy for Development of Samoa 2002-2004 stresses that a strengthened role of women all sectors is a key factor in promoting economic and social well being in society. Women groups and committee should be encouraged to promote social and economic developments in the communities and the approval of the National Policy for Women and Plan of Action will provide for active participation of women’s groups in community developments.

### 6.2 Key Issues and Challenges

#### Governance

- Rationalisation and coordination of the role of the Ministry of Women Affairs with other Government Agencies and NGOs undertaking community development programmes at the village level.
- Finalisation of an Action Plan to implement the National Policy on Women, when approved
- Enhanced awareness of the CEDAW Convention at the village level

#### Employment

- Promotion and development of small enterprises using the Women in Business model
- Expanded training of women at the village level to acquire basic business skills
- Expanded development of community micro credit schemes centred on women groups.

#### Education

- Encourage more participation of young women in vocational education and trades training programmes
- Provision of a continuing education programs for young mothers especially those who left school at an earlier age
Health

- Increase awareness of women through health education clinics and programs on the lifestyle diseases and other diseases specific to women
- Increase participation of both gender in family planning programs as well as shared responsibilities in the home.

6.3 Conclusion

Gender equity has always been an integral part of national policy development; subsequently efforts have been concentrated on ensuring that gender issues are mainstreamed in the development process. Women community organisations played and will continue to play a pivotal role in the delivery of social services at village level as well as initiate economic activities for their families’ well being. However, more work is needed to address women’s human rights including women’s legal rights; acts of violence against women; women’s access to land; and family law will need to be revisited and addressed.

7. CHILDREN AND YOUTH

7.1 Recent Developments

Addressing the needs of youth has been a priority goal of Government as reflected in the establishment of the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture. A National Youth Policy has been approved and an action plan is to be finalised. Focus on the needs of children has come to the formal attention of policy makers following Samoa’s adoption of the Convention of the Rights of the Child. A National Policy on Children is now being developed.

Almost 41% of the population is under 15 years of age with a third of the population being youth with 54.4% males and 45.6% females. (1991 Census)

Issues identified in the National Youth Policy 1998 included:

- Around 4,000 school leavers per year is a problem given the limited skills of these students; The Samoan economy would not be able to create sufficient jobs for the estimated 4000 annual school leavers nor those already unemployed.
- The Education Department has no official policy on non formal education for the youth hence the school leavers rely heavily on a few youth vocational training institutions to acquire some basic skills thus making school leavers a very vulnerable group;
- Youth unemployment is generally associated with social problems such as theft, substance abuse, overcrowded living conditions and teenage pregnancies;
- Two thirds of youth admissions into hospital are for the complications of pregnancy and childbirth which suggests that reproductive health education is not reaching a significant sector of the female population
- Non-communicable diseases such as diabetes and hypertension are an increasing
Youth are also drinking alcohol at an early age and more Samoan youth are now smoking;
- Samoa’s suicide levels have been consistently high for over a decade with youth as the majority group committing this act;
- Youth crime has also increased from 44% in 1984 to 65% in 1991 with the majority of offenders being male. Police data also showed an increase in the cultivation of drugs especially marijuana. The contributing factors to youth crime are likely to be associated with high drop out rates, fewer job opportunities, urbanisation and under-employment.

The National Youth Policy addresses the key issues associated with the youth population.

The three key strategic areas for youth development include:

(i) **Pathways to adulthood which includes**

- communication and relationship skills
- quality based education in urban and rural areas
- education for those with special needs
- livelihood opportunities
- education in the sustainable use of environment
- continued research and education in the Samoan customs and traditions

(ii) **Personal Issues**

- To encourage youth to take responsibility for their own actions through; Health, education programmes targeted specifically at Youth issues and concerns such as lifestyle diseases, and the effects of alcohol and substance abuse
- Counselling programmes and opportunities, particularly in relation to alcohol and substance abuse and sexual and human relationships
- Education and training

(iii) **Public participation through the provision of forums for youth participation in both customary and modern decision making institutions**

The Government Strategy for the development of Samoa (SDS) 2002-2004 recognises youth as the future of the communities in playing a critical role in the social and economic development of the community and the approval of the National Youth Policy would facilitate the development of youth in Samoa. A number of social problems have emerged over the years, which would need to be dealt with more effectively. The most critical of these have been youth unemployment, crime, drug abuse, teenage pregnancy, family breakdown, suicide and domestic violence. The upgrading of the Polytechnic and support to private vocational training institutions was primarily aimed at equipping school leavers with skills that are marketable in private enterprise. Concurrent with this program, Government has endeavoured to develop a viable scheme, which would keep young Samoans longer in school.

Public education programmes aimed at enhancing public awareness of the importance of prevention and control of HIV/AIDs has included workshops at different levels for
different target groups since 1991 and the production of published material for public dissemination and radio spots. Target groups included schools population, youth groups, sports groups, government departments and church leaders.

The domestic policies aimed at ensuring continued economic growth and a robust private sector to provide productive employment opportunities for young Samoans as well as the priorities being accorded to education and training at all levels from primary to secondary, vocational (including nonformal) and tertiary would ensure that the youth of the nation would have the requisite skills to meet the demands of the growing economy.

The close partnership between Government, NGOs and village communities aimed at addressing social problems especially among youth would need to be further strengthened.

7.2 Key Issues and Challenges

**Governance**

- Improved policy and operational links between the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the proposed National Policy on Children, the National Youth Policy and the Statement of Development Strategy.
- Revision of existing legislative framework to improve support for enforcement of initiatives to protect rights of the children and youth.
- Realignment of institutional arrangements in Government and NGOs for administering the effective policies for children and youth.

**Education**

- Improved links between the Education Department and other Government Departments dealing with children and youth issues
- Improved links of Early Childhood and Special Needs education to the mainstream schools curriculum
- Development of a policy on nonformal education and establishment of non-formal education centres to enhance life skills of school leavers in collaboration with the national training authority.

**Employment**

- Strengthening of apprenticeship schemes targeting youth
- Legislative reforms to strengthen protection of rights of child labour and youth

**Health**

- Improving awareness on the child health programmes among disadvantaged groups

**Trade and Investment**

- Providing business opportunities and economic activities for youth and special needs groups

7.3 Conclusion
Whilst progress has been made in clarifying the problems and issues relating to the children and youth, provision of non-formal life skills training for school leavers would appear to be critical area which need immediate attention. The implementation of key segments of the Convention on the Rights of the Child as well as the recently approved Samoa National Youth Policy (2002), dealing with the rights of children and youth respectively, will also need to be carefully monitored and integrated into national development programmes and at the sub-national levels.

8. SUMMARY OF KEY ISSUES & CHALLENGES

In summary, the Common Country Assessment has presented the United Nations system with a number of key issues and challenges for Samoa, which need to be addressed in a committed and concerted effort under a coherent framework of action in areas where the UN has the comparative advantage and resources.

Governance: There is a need to delve into the situation regarding the communities and social cohesion in the face of change. Answers are needed on the level of coping that is taking place in the villages and new semi-urban settlements where more and more young people are growing up. The impact of monetary demands on income levels for basic services such as primary health care being channelled through the women’s and other such committees, are placing strain on already vulnerable groups of the population pushing them further out of the realm of village and family social nets, due to the non-payment of membership fees.

SOEs: The challenge for the government and development partners is to move ahead swiftly with implementation of reforms already begun. The risk is that the momentum thus far may be lost should there be further delays.

Trade and International Development: The proactive approach taken by the Samoa government to move forward firstly with reforms to develop the private sector are seen as an important prerequisite to developing and opening up Samoa’s trading environment to the realities of the global markets and will place Samoa in a good position to take on the competitive international trading environment as a result of globalization. The key challenge will be the ability of the economy to support and develop export opportunities that can achieve competitiveness particularly in fishing, light manufacturing and tourism.

Agriculture, fisheries and Rural Development: Agriculture will continue to be an important sector of the Samoan economy. Village agriculture will provide food security and support to the agro-based industries such as coconut cream; oil and desiccated coconut, which have been major export products in the past years. The Commercial development of many of the crops traditionally farmed in Samoa, further encouragement of commercial livestock production and support of commercial fisheries will support more processing and added value of products on island for export and will generate employment opportunities in this sector. The ongoing institutional strengthening of both public agencies and private operations in this sector especially in the areas of extension services support, production and quality control and marketing will in the medium term greatly assist in the development of agriculture and agro based industries in Samoa.

Food Security and Nutrition: Agriculture, including forestry and fishing, continue to provide the food and other materials necessary for population survival and well-being.
However, there is some concern about the capacity of agriculture to meet the needs of future generations. The challenges in Samoa come from the population growth, increasing demand for food and the threat of competing use of the same resources of land and water. The underlying structural changes in Samoa’s primary sector are a concern. The variations in income levels, the lack of access to land for subsistence particularly for urban dwellers, the shrinking pool of family labour, are causal to some families’ inability to achieve a balanced diet. The health problems related to nutrition and dietary deficiencies will become more prevalent in Samoa unless the Government and community leaders are fully committed to addressing the root causes of these problems. In addition to public awareness and health education programmes already put in place, additional action may be needed such as banning the importation of food products of low nutritional value or increasing tariffs on these products to discourage their consumption.

- **Poverty Reduction:** Whilst there are no specifically designed poverty alleviation policies, the Samoan Government has been aggressively pursuing major rural development initiatives to improve access to and quality of infrastructure and services in education and health. It will be important for economic growth to continue and for government to develop and implement policies that support growth while at the same time establish a firm basis for assisting the most vulnerable groups. Improving basic education and making it easier for the private sector to operate in a non-distortive economic environment are critical. The creation of employment opportunities is a priority concern. This can only be effectively done by the private sector. In this respect Government will need to continue to create the conditions under which the private sector will thrive on a sustained basis creating jobs and incomes. Specific programmes aimed directly at poverty alleviation should be pursued. Well targeted intervention by the UN agencies to support these programmes will be crucial over the coming years.

- **Employment:** Most of Samoa’s workforce is in the informal sector, involved in rural income generation and semi-subsistence agriculture, with remittances from abroad still the major source of cash income for many. The challenge for government and development is to generate more employment opportunities and to ensure a more gender-balanced distribution of such opportunities.

- **Education:** The present situation marks considerable progress in education and training. The strategic and policy framework supported by both government and overseas assistance in concert with processes to strengthen stakeholder involvement should further strengthen education. The next challenge and most pressing priority is to achieve a sustained improvement in primary school teaching, teaching materials and primary school teachers.

- **Health and Water Sanitation:** The priority concern in the health sector is in improving health care services through strengthening primary and secondary prevention and treatment programmes for specific non-communicable diseases and a range of communicable diseases (for example, STDs, HIV/AIDS, etc). There is also a need to improve efficiency of service delivery at the community level through strengthened planning, management and resource utilization.

- **ICT:** Whilst there have been significant improvements in the range and quality of ICT infrastructure, the developmental benefits from such improvements require a clear national ICT strategy to coordinate the policy, regulatory, institutional and operational components of ICT and how they will contribute to addressing the developmental goals articulated in the Samoa Development Strategy 2002-2003. The most critical
ingredient, which Samoa will face in implementing a successful ICT strategy, will be its ability to rapidly build up the pool of ICT skills from both overseas recruitment programmes in the short-term and the educational and training programmes in the medium and long-term. The educational and training programmes necessitate giving priority to incorporating ICT into the curriculum at all levels of primary and secondary schools.

- **Environment:** There has been significant progress in the planning and management of environmental resources in Samoa. Further efforts are needed in the development of additional policies under the NEMS framework, and consolidation of regulatory responsibilities and the enhancement of capacities of the Government and NGO institutions responsible for implementing these policies and regulations.

- **Disaster Management:** Priority needs to be accorded to preparation of national disaster preparedness and contingency plans for all sectors considered vulnerable and high risk. Another priority area is the rationalisation of administrative responsibilities among key Government Departments for implementation of the proposed national disaster - preparedness and contingency plan.

- **Gender:** Gender equity has always been an integral part of national policy development; subsequently efforts have been concentrated on ensuring that gender issues are mainstreamed in the development process. Women community organisations played and will continue to play a pivotal role in the delivery of social services at village level as well as initiate economic activities for their families’ well being. However, more work is needed to address women’s human rights including women’s legal rights; acts of violence against women; women’s access to land; and family law will need to be revisited and addressed.

- **Children and Youth:** Whilst progress has been made in clarifying the problems and issues relating to the children and youth, provision of non-formal life skills training for school leavers would appear to be critical area which need immediate attention. The implementation of key segments of the Convention on the Rights of the Child as well as the recently approved Samoa National Youth Policy (2002), dealing with the rights of children and youth will also need to be carefully monitored and integrated into national development programmes and at the sub-national levels.
### ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADB</td>
<td>Asian Development Bank</td>
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<td>CCA</td>
<td>Common Country Assessment</td>
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<td>EIA</td>
<td>Environment Impact Assessment</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organisation</td>
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<td>FEMM</td>
<td>Forum Economic Ministers Meeting</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
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<td>LDC</td>
<td>Least Developed Countries</td>
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<td>MDA</td>
<td>Mass Direct Administration</td>
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<td>MDGR</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals Report</td>
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<td>NEMS</td>
<td>National Environment Management Plans</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
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<td>NUS</td>
<td>National University of Samoa</td>
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<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td>PacELF</td>
<td>Pacific Elimination of Filariasis</td>
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<td>ST</td>
<td>Samoan Tala (dollar)</td>
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<td>SDS</td>
<td>Samoa Development Strategy</td>
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<td>SOE</td>
<td>State Owned Enterprises</td>
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<td>SPREP</td>
<td>South Pacific Regional Environment Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUNGO</td>
<td>Samoa Umbrella for NGOs</td>
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<tr>
<td>STI</td>
<td>Sexually transmitted infections</td>
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<td>TOR</td>
<td>Terms of Reference</td>
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<td>UNCT</td>
<td>United Nations Country Team</td>
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<td>UNDAF</td>
<td>United Nations Development Assistance Framework</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programmes</td>
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<td>VAGST</td>
<td>Value Added Goods and Services Tax</td>
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<td>WHA</td>
<td>World Health Agency</td>
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<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organisation</td>
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APPENDIX I

FEMM 8 PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC SECTOR ACCOUNTABILITY 1977

(i) Budgetary processes, including multi-year frameworks, ensure Parliament/Congress is sufficiently informed to understand the longer-term implications of appropriation decisions.

The budget presents all the details of budget performance including the results of audits and other evaluations, and the assessed impact including on the key objectives previously specified for major programs (showing estimates where final figures are not available).

The budget presentation papers include forecasts of the key budget figures for the next two years together with the details of the assumptions on which they are based and the policy objectives they are meant to serve.

Existing commitments should be distinguished from new policies.

Budget data, including revenue, grant and expenditure data should be presented in a way that follows international practice and allows international comparisons.

Budgetary processes, including the full involvement of ministers, need to be directed specifically at the generation of good estimates which are properly aligned with policy and program output intentions.

In keeping the management of budget implementation under review during the course of the year, the government should give the legislature and the public timely reports as the year proceeds, as well as at year’s end, which contain all of the details of actual budget performance which are needed for a full understanding of any impacts of deviations from the original budget policy intentions and estimates (using revised estimates where actual figures and results cannot be obtained).

(ii) The accounts of governments, state-owned enterprises and statutory corporations to be promptly and fully audited, and the audit reports published where they can be read by the general public.

State-owned enterprises should be subject to the full force of the accounting, reporting, disclosure, and other relevant requirements of a modern regulatory framework for corporate governance adjusted to the circumstances of small island countries as appropriate.

Government operations should be subject to audit reports.

(iii) Loan agreements or guarantees entered into by governments to be presented to Parliament/Congress, with sufficient information to enable Parliament/Congress to understand the longer term implications.

The principle should be enshrined in the law.

Presentations to the Parliament/Congress should be timely.

(iv) All government and public sector contracts to be openly advertised,
competitively awarded, administered and publicly reported.

The award of contracts should be reported publicly and immediately.

The principle should be enshrined in the law.

(v) Contravention of financial regulations to be promptly disciplined.

The principal and subordinate laws and instructions governing fiscal and financial management should be comprehensive, up-to-date and workable.

Administration of the legal framework governing fiscal and financial management should be active and vigorous.

Ethical standards of behaviour for public servants should be clear and well publicised.

There should be ready public access to the administrative laws governing access to government benefits, the application of taxes, duties, and charges, etc., which should be as specific as possible and which should limit the exercise of discretion by public servants and other holders of public office to the minimum compatible with good administration.

The exercise of discretion in public administration should be guided by clear, published criteria.

(vi) Public Accounts/Expenditure Committees of Parliament/ Congress to be empowered to require disclosure.

(vii) Auditor General and Ombudsman to be provided with adequate fiscal resources and independent reporting rights to Parliament/Congress.

The principle of statutory independence should be applied to the public auditor and the ombudsman.

The law which provides for the appointment and tenure of the public auditor, and the ombudsman, and which deals with their functions, operations and resourcing, should accord with international best practice in specifying the independent functions they are to perform and fully protecting their performance from being compromised.

The law should specify the right of the two office holders to unimpeded access to the Parliament/ Congress where the office holder has grounds for believing that independence might be coming under threat.

(viii) Central Bank with statutory responsibility for non-partisan monitoring and advice, and regular and independent publication of informative reports.
APPENDIX II

IMF REVISED CODE OF GOOD PRACTICES ON FISCAL TRANSPARENCY

I. CLARITY OF ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

1.1. The government sector should be distinguished from the rest of the public sector and from the rest of the economy, and policy and management roles within the public sector should be clear and publicly disclosed.

1.1.1. The structure and functions of government should be clearly specified.*

1.1.2. The responsibilities of different levels of government, and of the executive branch, the legislative branch, and the judiciary, should be well defined.**

1.1.3. Clear mechanisms for the coordination and management of budgetary and extrabudgetary activities should be established.**

1.1.4. Relations between the government and nongovernment public sector agencies (i.e., the central bank, public financial institutions, and nonfinancial public enterprises) should be based on clear arrangements.

1.1.5. Government involvement in the private sector (e.g., through regulation and equity ownership) should be conducted in an open and public manner, and on the basis of clear rules and procedures that are applied in a nondiscriminatory way.

1.2. There should be a clear legal and administrative framework for fiscal management.

1.2.1. Any commitment or expenditure of public funds should be governed by comprehensive budget laws and openly available administrative rules.*

1.2.2. Taxes, duties, fees, and charges should have an explicit legal basis. Tax laws and regulations should be easily accessible and understandable, and clear criteria should guide any administrative discretion in their application.

1.2.3. Ethical standards of behavior for public servants should be clear and well publicized.

II. PUBLIC AVAILABILITY OF INFORMATION

2.1. The public should be provided with full information on the past, current, and projected fiscal activity of government

2.1.1. The budget documentation, final accounts, and other fiscal reports for the public should cover all budgetary and extra budgetary activities of the central government, and the consolidated fiscal position of the central government should be published.*

2.1.2. Information comparable to that in the annual budget should be provided for the outturns of the two preceding fiscal years, together with forecasts of the main budget aggregates for two years following the budget.

2.1.3. Statements describing the nature and fiscal significance of central government contingent liabilities and tax expenditures, and of quasi-fiscal activities, should be part of the budget documentation.

2.1.4. The central government should publish full information on the level and composition of

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7 Significant differences between the previous and revised versions of the Code are indicated by:
* redrafting of the previous version of the Code
** reorganization of the previous version of the Code
*** modifications to fiscal transparency requirements of the Code.
its debt and financial assets.

2.1.5. Where subnational levels of government are significant, their combined fiscal position and the consolidated fiscal position of the general government should be published.**

2.2. A commitment should be made to the timely publication of fiscal information.

2.2.1. The publication of fiscal information should be a legal obligation of government.

2.2.2. Advance release date calendars for fiscal information should be announced.

III. OPEN BUDGET PREPARATION, EXECUTION, AND REPORTING

3.1. The budget documentation should specify fiscal policy objectives, the macroeconomic framework, the policy basis for the budget, and identifiable major fiscal risks.

3.1.1. A statement of fiscal policy objectives and an assessment of fiscal sustainability should provide the framework for the annual budget.

3.1.2. Any fiscal rules that have been adopted (e.g., a balanced budget requirement or borrowing limits for sub-national levels of government) should be clearly specified.

3.1.3. The annual budget should be prepared and presented within a comprehensive and consistent quantitative macroeconomic framework, and the main assumptions underlying the budget should be provided.

3.1.4. New policies being introduced in the annual budget should be clearly described.

3.1.5. Major fiscal risks should be identified and quantified where possible, including variations in economic assumptions and the uncertain costs of specific expenditure commitments (e.g., financial restructuring).

3.2. Budget information should be presented in a way that facilitates policy analysis and promotes accountability.

3.2.1. Budget data should be reported on a gross basis, distinguishing revenue, expenditure, and financing, with expenditure classified by economic, functional, and administrative category. Data on extrabudgetary activities should be reported on the same basis.

3.2.2. A statement of objectives to be achieved by major budget programs (e.g., improvement in relevant social indicators) should be provided.

3.2.3. The overall balance of the general government should be a standard summary indicator of the government’s fiscal position. It should be supplemented where appropriate by other fiscal indicators for the general government (e.g., the operational balance, the structural balance, or the primary balance).

3.2.4. The public sector balance should be reported when nongovernment public sector agencies undertake significant quasi-fiscal activities.**

3.3. Procedures for the execution and monitoring of approved expenditure and for collecting revenue should be clearly specified.

3.3.1. There should be a comprehensive, integrated accounting system which provides a reliable basis for assessing payment arrears.
3.3.2. Procurement and employment regulations should be standardized and accessible to all interested parties.

3.3.3. Budget execution should be internally audited, and audit procedures should be open to review.

3.3.4. The national tax administration should be legally protected from political direction and should report regularly to the public on its activities.**

3.4. There should be regular fiscal reporting to the legislature and the public.

3.4.1. A mid-year report on budget developments should be presented to the legislature. More frequent (at least quarterly) reports should also be published.*

3.4.2. Final accounts should be presented to the legislature within a year of the end of the fiscal year.

3.4.3. Results achieved relative to the objectives of major budget programs should be presented to the legislature annually.

IV. Assurances of Integrity

4.1. Fiscal data should meet accepted data quality standards.***

4.1.1. Budget data should reflect recent revenue and expenditure trends, underlying macroeconomic developments, and well-defined policy commitments.***

4.1.2. The annual budget and final accounts should indicate the accounting basis (e.g., cash or accrual) and standards used in the compilation and presentation of budget data.**

4.1.3. Specific assurances should be provided as to the quality of fiscal data. In particular, it should be indicated whether data in fiscal reports are internally consistent and have been reconciled with relevant data from other sources.***

4.2. Fiscal information should be subjected to independent scrutiny.

4.2.1. A national audit body or equivalent organization, which is independent of the executive, should provide timely reports for the legislature and public on the financial integrity of government accounts.

4.2.2. Independent experts should be invited to assess fiscal forecasts, the macroeconomic forecasts on which they are based, and all underlying assumptions.*

A national statistics agency should be provided with the institutional independence to verify the quality of fiscal data.*
APPENDIX III: CCA INDICATORS

United Nations CCA Conference Indicators: Conference Goals and Targets

International conferences convened by the United Nations during the decade of the 1990s:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Conference</th>
<th>Year</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>World Conference on Education for All</td>
<td>Jomtien 1990</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>World Summit for Children</td>
<td>New York 1990</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>World Conference on Human Rights</td>
<td>Vienna 1993</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>World Summit for Social Development</td>
<td>Copenhagen 1995</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Fourth World Conference on Women</td>
<td>Beijing 1995</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Second UN Conference on Human Settlements-Habitat</td>
<td>Istanbul 1996</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>World Food Summit</td>
<td>Rome 1996</td>
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Indicators, Conference Goals and Targets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
<th>Conference</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Core Indicator</td>
<td>Reduced poverty levels</td>
<td>Proportion of population in extreme poverty in 1990 reduced by 50% by 2015</td>
<td>World Summit on Social Development, 1995 (WSSD)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Income Poverty

Sub-Indicator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
<th>Conference</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poverty headcount ratio</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Poverty gap ratio</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poorest fifth’s share of national consumption</td>
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Core Indicator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
<th>Conference</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food Security and Nutrition</td>
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Sub-Indicator
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
<th>Conference</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent of children under age 5 suffering from malnutrition</strong></td>
<td>Improved Nutrition</td>
<td>Severe/moderate nutrition among children &lt;5 50% of 1990 level by 2000</td>
<td>WSSD, Fourth World Conference on Women (FWFW), World Summit on Children (WSC), World Food Summit (WFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption (caloric intake in context of food balance sheet)</strong></td>
<td>Increased food security</td>
<td>Reduce number of chronically undernourished by half by 2015</td>
<td>WFS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent of household income spent on food for the poorest quintile</strong></td>
<td>Increased food security</td>
<td>Reduce number of chronic undernourished by half by 2015</td>
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<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Core Indicator</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Health and Mortality</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Percent population with access to primary health care services</td>
<td>Improved Health Care</td>
<td>Universal Accessibility of primary health care</td>
<td>ICPD/WSSD/FWFW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated HIV adult prevalence rate</td>
<td>Reduction in levels of HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Universal access to RH services and information by 2015</td>
<td>ICPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence in pregnant women under 25 who receive antenatal care in capital cities/major urban areas.</td>
<td>Reduction in levels of HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Universal access to RH information by 2015</td>
<td>ICPD</td>
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<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate</td>
<td>Reduced infant mortality</td>
<td>Reduction of MR by 1/3 of 1990 level below 35 per 1000 by 2015</td>
<td>ICPD/WSSD/ WCW/ WSC</td>
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<tr>
<td>Under 5 Mortality rate</td>
<td>Reduced infant mortality</td>
<td>MR at ages &lt;5 reduced 2/3 of 1990 level by 2015</td>
<td>ICPD/WSC</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
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<tr>
<td>Reproductive Health</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Maternal Mortality ratio</td>
<td>Improved maternal health and reduced maternal mortality</td>
<td>Reduction by ½ of 1990 levels by year 2000 and a further ½ by 2015</td>
<td>ICPD/WSSD/FW CW/ WSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel</td>
<td>Improved maternal health and reduced maternal mortality</td>
<td>Reduction by ½ of 1990 levels by year 2000 and a further ½ by 2015</td>
<td>ICPD/WSSD/FW CW/ WSC</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contraceptive prevalence rate</td>
<td>Increased access to family planning</td>
<td>Universal access to safe/reliable contraceptive methods</td>
<td>ICPD</td>
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<tr>
<td>Core Indicator</td>
<td>Conference Goal</td>
<td>Conference Target</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Child Health and Welfare</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Percentage of 1 year old children immunized</td>
<td>Improved child health</td>
<td>Universal immunization against measles</td>
<td>WSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>against measles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of children &lt;age 15 who are</td>
<td>Reduced child labour</td>
<td>Elimination of child labour</td>
<td>WSSD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
<th>Conference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net primary enrolment or attendance ratio</td>
<td>Increased access to basic education</td>
<td>Universal access, and completion of primary education by</td>
<td>EFA/WC/WSC/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>IC PD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult literacy rate</td>
<td>Increased literacy</td>
<td>Adult literacy reduced by ? 1990 level by 2015</td>
<td>EFA/WSSD/WC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate of 15-24 year olds</td>
<td>Increased literacy</td>
<td>Adult literacy reduced by ? 1990 level by 2015</td>
<td>EFA/WSSD/WC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
<th>Conference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education</td>
<td>Gender equality in education</td>
<td>Elimination disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005</td>
<td>ICPD/WSSD/FWCW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female share (%) of paid employment in non-agricultural activities</td>
<td>Gender equality in employment</td>
<td>Elimination discriminatory practices in employment</td>
<td>FWCW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of seats held by in national government, including parliament</td>
<td>Women’s political empowerment</td>
<td>Equitable access to political institutions</td>
<td>FWCW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Indicator</th>
<th>Conference Goal</th>
<th>Conference Target</th>
<th>Conference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment and Sustainable Livelihood</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment to population of working age ratio</td>
<td>Creation of full employment</td>
<td>Universal access to paid employment</td>
<td>WSSD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Indicator</td>
<td>Conference Goal</td>
<td>Conference Target</td>
<td>Conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon Dioxide emissions (per capita).</td>
<td>Improved environment</td>
<td>Clean and health environment and reversal of current trends in loss of environmental resources</td>
<td>UNCED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biodiversity: land area protected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per unit of energy use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arable land per capita</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage change in km² of forest land in past ten years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of population relying on traditional fuels for energy use.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Core Indicator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Conference Goal</strong></td>
<td><strong>Conference Target</strong></td>
<td><strong>Conference</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug Control and Crime Prevention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area under illegal cultivation of coca, opium poppy and cannabis</td>
<td>Improved drug control</td>
<td>Measurable results in reducing cultivation, manufacture, trafficking an abuse of illicit drugs by 2008</td>
<td>UNAD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seizures of illicit drugs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of drug abode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of crimes per 100,000 inhabitants</td>
<td>Improved crime prevention</td>
<td>Eliminate/significantly reduce violence and crime</td>
<td>UNCPCTO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Core Indicator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Conference Goal</strong></td>
<td><strong>Conference Target</strong></td>
<td><strong>Conference</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Legal Commitments for Human Rights</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-Indicator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status of ratification of, reservation to and reporting obligations under international human rights instruments.</td>
<td>Universal ratification of international human rights resources</td>
<td>Acceding to all international human rights interments and avoiding the resort t reservation as far as possible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status to follow up to concluding observations of UN human rights treaty bodies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Common Country Assessment Indicators

A. Conference Indicators

### Core Indicator: Income Poverty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poverty headcount ratio (% of population below US$1 per day)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>82.4% of rural population below the Food Poverty Line</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty headcount ratio (% of population below National poverty line)</td>
<td>Dept. of Statistics Samoa Household Income Survey</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>55.7% of rural population below Basic Needs Poverty Line</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty gap ratio</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Remarks:** No official poverty line has been established in Samoa. The Food Poverty Line and Basic Needs Poverty Line are used to indicate the level of income poverty in Samoa.

### Core Indicator: Food Security and Nutrition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of children under age 5 suffering from malnutrition</td>
<td>UNDP Human Development Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>17% for whole economy</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of household income spent on food by the poorest 20%</td>
<td>Dept. Statistics Samoa</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>90.6% of lowest 20 percent total daily household expenditure live in rural area</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Core Indicator: Health and Mortality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of population with access to primary health care services</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Devpt Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated HIV adult prevalence rate</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Devpt Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Reported HIV/AIDS cases = 15</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence in pregnant women under 25 who receive antenatal care in capital cities/major urban areas</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Devpt Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 5 Mortality rate</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Devpt Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>26 per 1000 for whole of Samoa</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Indicator: Reproductive Health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub Indicator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Source</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ref. Year</strong></td>
<td><strong>Rural</strong></td>
<td><strong>Urban</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal Mortality ratio</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Development Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of births attended by skilled health personnel</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Development Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td></td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contraceptive prevalence rate</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Development Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Indicator: Child Health and Welfare</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub Indicator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Source</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of 1 year old children immunized against measles</td>
<td>UNDP Human Development Report 2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of children &lt;age 15 who are working</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Development Report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Indicator: Education</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub Indicator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Source</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net primary enrolment or attendance ratio</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Development Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of persons starting grade 1 who reach grade 5</td>
<td>UNDP Human Development Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult literacy rate (percent)</td>
<td>1991 Census and 1999 Demographic and Health Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate of 15-24 year olds</td>
<td>UNDP Human Development Report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Indicator: Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub Indicator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Source</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education</td>
<td>UNDP Human Development Report 2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female share (%) of paid employment in non-agricultural Activities</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Development Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of seats held by women in national parliament</td>
<td>Treasury Department</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nb// This is the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio
### Core Indicator: Employment and Sustainable Livelihood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment to population of working age ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal sector employment as % of total employment</td>
<td>1991 Census and 1999 Demographic and Health Survey</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Remarks:** The majority of workforce are engaged in subsistence and are based in rural areas.

### Core Indicator: Housing and Basic Household Amenities and Facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of persons per room, or average floor area.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of population with sustainable access to</td>
<td>UNDP Human Development</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>safe drinking water</td>
<td>safe drinking water Report</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd source – access to safe drinking water</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of population with access to adequate</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Development</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sanitation</td>
<td>Development Report</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Core Indicator: Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carbon Dioxide emissions (Gigagram/year)</td>
<td>GoS First National Communication to UNFCCC</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>20.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biodiversity: land area protected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per unit of energy use Arable land per capita</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ha)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent change in km² of forest land in past ten</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Core Indicator: Drug Control and Crime Prevention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area under illegal cultivation of cocoa, opium</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poppy Cannabis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seizures of illicit drugs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of drug abuse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of crimes per 100,000 inhabitants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Not available
### Core Indicator: International Legal Commitments for Human Rights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status of ratification of reservation to and reporting obligations under</td>
<td></td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>172,092 total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>(official estimate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>human rights Instruments.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status of follow up to concluding observations on UN human rights treaty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bodies.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodicity of free and fair elections</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition in law of the right to freedom of expression, association and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assembly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition in law of the right to seek judicial remedies against state</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agencies/officials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition in law of the prohibition of gross violation of human rights</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affecting the security of the person.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Core Indicator: Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population size</td>
<td>ADB 2000</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>172,092 total population. (official estimate)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Expectancy at birth</td>
<td>UNDP Human Devpt Report 2001</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>68.6 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Core Indicator: International Legal Commitments for Human Rights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Ref. Year</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita (US$)</td>
<td>Treasury Dept.</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>US$1,431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total External debt (US$ as percentage of GNP)</td>
<td>Treasury Dept.</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>US$134m approximately 73 percent of GDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth rate of GDP</td>
<td>Treasury Dept.</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic savings as % of GDP</td>
<td>Treasury Dept.</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub Indicator</td>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Ref. Year</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td>2001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated current growth rate (%)</td>
<td>UNICEF 2000 (ADB 2000)</td>
<td>1990-1998</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population density (persons per km²)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude birth rate per 1,000 population</td>
<td>UNICEF 2000, Various sources (ADB 2000)</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude death rate per 1,000 population</td>
<td>UNICEF 2000, Various sources (ADB 2000)</td>
<td>1998</td>
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<td>Rate of natural increase (%)</td>
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<td>Total fertility rate</td>
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<td>Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)</td>
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<td>Under 5 mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)</td>
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<td>Maternal mortality ratio (per 10,000 live births)</td>
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<td>Proportion under 15 (%)</td>
<td>UNDP Human Devpt Report 2001</td>
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<td>Youth population (15-24)</td>
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<td>Percentage youth</td>
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<td>Median age</td>
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<td>Population aged 65 and over</td>
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UNITED NATIONS DATA BASE ON SAMOA

Common Country Assessment Indicators

D. Non-Core Indicators

Non-Core Indicator: Demographic Indicators
### Non-Core Indicator: Health

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<tr>
<th>Sub Indicator</th>
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<tr>
<td>Contraceptive Prevalence rate (%)</td>
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<td>CPR Modern Methods only (%)</td>
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<td>Percent of births without antenatal check</td>
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<tr>
<td>Percent of births in health facility</td>
<td>UNDP Pacific Human Devpt Report</td>
<td>1999</td>
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<td>Percent of births at home</td>
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<td>Percent of deliveries without assistance</td>
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<td>Medium spacing between births/months</td>
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<td>Doctors per 100,000 population</td>
<td>UNDP Human Devpt Report 2001</td>
<td>1990-99</td>
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<td>Nurses per 100,000 population</td>
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<td>Percent at Government expenditure allocated to health</td>
<td>UNDP Human Devpt Report 2001</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Health expenditure as % of GDP</td>
<td>UNDP Human Devpt Report 2001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Per capita health expenditure (tala)</td>
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### Non-Core Indicator: Education

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<td>Adult literacy rate (15 years and over)</td>
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<td>Percent Population no schooling</td>
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<td>Net primary enrolment rate (%)</td>
<td>UNDP Human Devpt Report 2001</td>
<td>96</td>
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<td>Net secondary enrolment rate (%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female secondary enrolment (%)</td>
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<td>Grade 1-5 retention rate (%)</td>
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## Non-Core Indicator: Labour and Employment

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<td>Wage and salary earners as % of labour force</td>
<td>UNDP 1998 (ADB 2000)</td>
<td>1991</td>
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<td>44.6%</td>
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<td>Subsistence and cash cropping workers as % of Labour force</td>
<td>UNDP 1998 (ADB 2000)</td>
<td>1991</td>
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<td>55.4%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subsistence only workers as % of labour force</td>
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<td>Unemployment rate (%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate (15-24)</td>
<td>UNDP 1998 (ADB 2000)</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>29% for 15-19 years 46% for 20-24 years Percentage of youth neither student/employed</td>
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<td>Labour force participation rate (%)</td>
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<td>Projected Annual Labour force growth</td>
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APPENDIX V:

CCA/UNDAF Workshop
21-23 November 2001, Apia, Samoa

List of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Contact No:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hans De Graaff</td>
<td>UN Development Programme (UNDP)</td>
<td>23-670</td>
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<tr>
<td>Georgina Bonin</td>
<td>“</td>
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<tr>
<td>Easter Galuvao</td>
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<tr>
<td>Salale Salale</td>
<td>“</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tom Twining-Ward</td>
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<tr>
<td>Timothy Ward</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>“</td>
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<tr>
<td>Filifilia Iosefa</td>
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<td>Harumi Kobayashi</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>“</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ane Moananu</td>
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<td>Sarona Stanley</td>
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<td>Galo Apelu</td>
<td>UN Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)</td>
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<td>Skye Campbell</td>
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<td>Francis Mangila</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)</td>
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<td>Stefano Bonezzi</td>
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<td>Paul Tomane</td>
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<td>Tevita Keresoma</td>
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<td>Joe Stanley</td>
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<td>Henry Taiki</td>
<td>World Meteorological Organization (WMO)</td>
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<td>Stephen Terras</td>
<td>World Health Organization (WHO)</td>
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<td>Peggy Fairbairn-Dunlop</td>
<td>UNIFEM, Suva</td>
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<td>Tsutomu Moriya</td>
<td>JICA</td>
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<td>Pisaina Leilua-Lei Sam</td>
<td>SPREP</td>
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<tr>
<td>Manoo Lutena</td>
<td>Young Men Christian Association (YMCA)</td>
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<td>Elisaia Talouli</td>
<td>Dept. of Lands, Survey &amp; Environment</td>
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<td>Sydney Faasau</td>
<td>Ministry of Youth, Sports &amp; Culture</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Raymond Voigt</td>
<td>Samoa Umbrella for NGOs (SUNGO)</td>
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<td>Fata Esera Lafi</td>
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<td>Fiu Mataese Elisara-Laulu</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>Mark Bonin</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>Vaasilifiti Moelagi Jackson</td>
<td>Faasao Savaii Society</td>
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<td>Rev. Fepai Fiu Kolia</td>
<td>National Council of Churches</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Fuimaono Poloma Eteuati</td>
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<td>Valovalo Tusani</td>
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<td>Quandolita Reid</td>
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<td>Philip H. Bell</td>
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<td>Peter Schuster</td>
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<td>Seumanutafa Malaki Iakopo</td>
<td>Dept. of Agriculture, Forests, Fisheries &amp; Meteorology</td>
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<td>Nella Rasmussen</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>Lilian Hytongue</td>
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<td>Melepone Isara</td>
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<td>Luagalau F. Eteuati-Shon</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>Noumea Simi</td>
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