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COMMON COUNTRY ASSESSMENT

TUVALU

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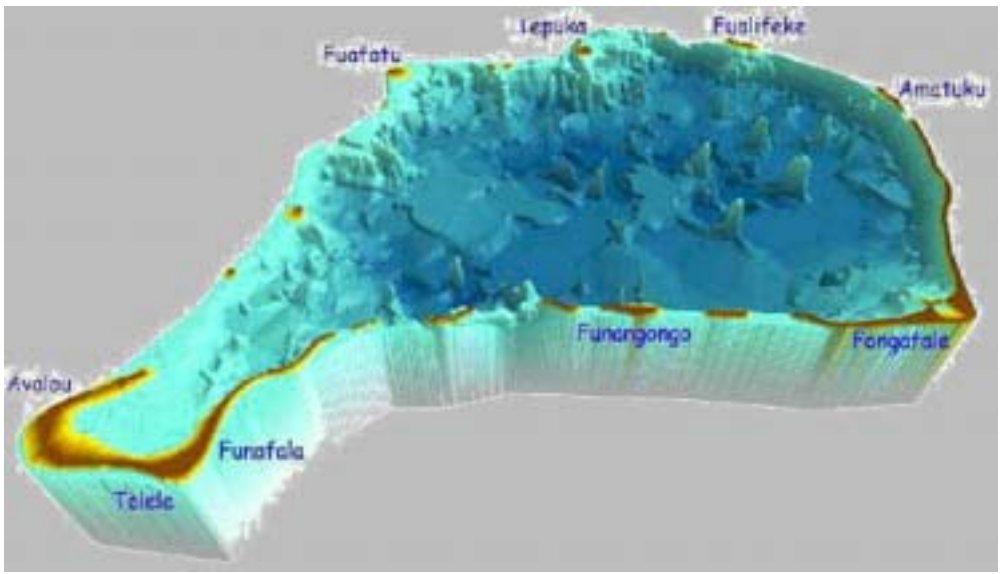
WHO

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Map: Funafuti Atoll, Tuvalu and the Pacific
 (Source: <http://www.travel-guide.com/data/tuv/tuvmap>)



Funafuti Atoll (Lagoon Bathymetry; source is SOPAC)

Note: The small lagoon indicated within the main island of Fongafale was filled in during WWII

Foreword

The United Nations Charter lays down universal principles and norms that are as relevant today as at any time since the UN was established fifty-six years ago. The international community has agreed to mutually reinforcing sets of standards and goals arising out of UN conventions and global conferences. Peace, security, human rights and development are now recognised as interdependent conditions for human progress.¹ Through the proclamation of the Right to Development and other instruments, the human person has been reaffirmed as the central concern of development, with every individual being both a contributor to and beneficiary of this right.²

The United Nations system (UN) has played a leading role in this evolution of development policy and practice. In 1997 the Secretary-General launched a programme for reform with the aim of preparing the UN for the challenges of the 21st century. A number of the reform actions set forth by the Secretary-General address the development work of the UN, a core mission that remains of vital importance. While recognising the major contribution that the UN has made in international development in the past, the Secretary-General proposed measures to enhance the organisation's capacity to implement its development mandate.

The United Nations Development Group (UNDG³) was charged with the elaboration of the UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). The UNDAF is to bring "greater coherence to UN programs of assistance at the country level ... with common objectives and time frames in close consultation with governments."⁴ Following extensive consultations within the UN, the guidelines for the UNDAF and the Common Country Assessment (CCA) have been developed.

This Common Country Assessment for Tuvalu is in part an advocacy document highlighting the key development challenges and opportunities relevant to both national priorities and those international developed through a series of global UN Conferences. This CCA should serve to catalyse discussions on key development issues — within the government and among civil society and other development partners, especially including the UN system.

Key development issues are discussed in the main body of the text. Tuvalu's development indicators and progress in fulfilling commitments made at various international conferences are provided in Annexes 1 and 2, based on data from various sources. However, as in other Pacific Island Countries, preparation of this CCA and detailed analysis of issues were sometimes constrained by the lack of up-to-date and reliable data.

The CCA is an overview of key development issues; it does not analyse any specific issue in depth or suggest strategies for donor assistance. The development of specific strategies falls within the scope of the UNDAF, which is being developed concurrently as part of a single overall exercise.

The overall conclusion from the CCA is that Tuvalu has provided its citizens with near-universal access to basic health services and formal education. Moreover, Tuvalu's achievements for some essential services are comparable with those of many countries with a much higher level of economic development. However, the provision of services to outer islands has been inadequate, income distribution has worsened, creation of opportunities for sustainable cash incomes has been very low, the capacity of the public service is extremely

¹ The *Agenda for Development*: GA resolution A/51/240; Right to Development: GA resolution A/51/99.

² GA resolution A/41/128; GA resolution A/53/155.

³ The Secretary-General established a UN Development Group (UNDG), led by an Executive Committee, chaired by the Administrator of UNDP, and supported by the Development Group Office (DGO), an inter-agency unit staffed with senior personnel from UNDG members. The UNDG Executive Committee comprises UNDP, UNICEF and UNFPA, with others participating according to their interests and mandates.

⁴ Action 10 a) of the Report of the Secretary-General, *Renewing the United Nations: A Programme for Reform*, A/51/950.

limited, health services are struggling to meet demands, the educational system is not providing the quality or skills needed for the bulk of Tuvaluans, and rapid urbanisation is beginning to stress the physical and social fabric of Funafuti, the country's only urbanised atoll. Tuvalu is extremely vulnerable to external economic and environmental shocks and is among those countries expected to suffer the worst impact of global climate change.

This CCA comes at a time when Tuvalu has begun implementing one new macro-level policy framework (improved outer island services and governance) and the formulation of another (national social development policy). Effectively complementing these national efforts will require careful design and implementation of donor assistance, particularly as there has been a donor tendency for some years to overestimate Tuvalu's absorptive capacity without adequately devising effective ways to improve it. Addressing Tuvalu's development issues requires not just good governance, transparent rights and responsibilities of the individual and society, and a focus on practical means for private sector-led development but also clear thinking on assistance approaches suitable for micro states facing complex post-basic human development challenges. Developing these will be a challenge: they cannot be rushed and need to be developed based on high-quality research and defined through discussion, participation, partnership and foresight. There is a role for all stakeholders and a unique one for the UN System. We hope that the CCA will provide a basis to build the required capacities, partnerships and joint programmes and will help stimulate the debate required to move forward.

[Signatures to be added]

Executive Summary

Background and Summary. Tuvalu – with 10,000 people and a land area of only 26 km² spread over 9 atolls– is one of the smallest Pacific island states. Dispersed population, isolation and meagre natural resources severely limit prospects for economic growth and development. Nonetheless, Tuvalu (see key indicators below) has an excellent record of meeting its people’s basic needs since Independence in 1978, with nearly universal access to basic health services and formal education. Life expectancies are on a par with some middle income countries. Despite extreme dependence on one sector (government), the economy has performed satisfactorily. Slow population growth and declining dependency ratios provide opportunities for improvements in quality of services rather than just quantitative expansion. However, the creation of cash income opportunities has been low, the capacity of the public service is extremely limited, health services struggle to meet demands of changing lifestyles, educational services are focused more on knowledge and skills needed for overseas employment than on sustainable livelihoods within Tuvalu, and rapid urbanisation is beginning to stress the physical and social fabric of Funafuti. There is a high degree of vulnerability to external economic and environmental events; Tuvalu is among those countries expected to suffer the greatest impact of climate change, including disappearance in the worst-case scenario. To some extent offsetting these problems, Tuvalu has the advantages of a strong and resilient culture, a reasonably egalitarian society, strong democratic principles, and a record of prudent fiscal management.

Key Development Indicators for Tuvalu

Indicator	Overall	Male	Female
Population (2001; estimated)	10,339	-	-
Urban (1999; estimated)	51 %	-	-
Growth rate (% per year; 1991-2001)	1.35 %	-	-
Life expectancy at birth (2000; est)	66	64	69
Maternal mortality (1992-99; est)	-	-	100-200
Infant mortality (/1000 live births, 2000)	29	-	-
Child mortality rate (0- 5 yrs; 1991)	59	-	-
GDP per capita (Austr \$; 2001)	A\$ 2,286	-	-
GDP/capita growth (%/yr; 1999-2003)	1.2%	-	-
Aid per capita (A\$; 1990-'00)	A\$ 900	-	-
Dependency ratio (mid 2000 est)	69.5	-	-
Access to safe drinking water (%; 1991)	85%	-	-
Access to sanitation (%; 1991)	49%	-	-
Phones (% of population; 1990 & '99)	1.3 5.5	-	-
Adult literacy (census; 1991)	95	95	95
Births attended by trained health worker ('00)	100%	100%	100%
Underweight children (% < 5 yrs; 1990s)	3	-	-
Filariasis microfilaria (%; 1973 & 1999)	0.9 22.3	-	-
Infant immunisation (DPT3 coverage, 2000)	90	-	-
Total fertility rate (1997)	-	-	3.2
Human Develop. Rank among PICs (1998)	8th of 14	-	-
Human Poverty Rank among PICs (1998)	4th of 15	-	-
Gender Development Rank among PICs ('98)	1st of 15	-	-
Gross enrolment early child education (1998)	91%	-	-
Net enrolment primary school (1995-1999)	100%	100%	100%
Members of Parliament (%; 2001)	100%	100%	0%
Labour force (1991?: % of total)	100%	62%	38%
Prof/tech/admin/mgt (1991 census)	100%	61%	39%
Clerical workers (1991 census)	100%	35%	65%

Key Issues. The following key issues affect Tuvalu (and most other PICs) to some extent: inadequate governance; declining educational performance; weakness of the private sector; and an urban elite capturing most benefits of modernisation. Development challenges include effectively addressing relative poverty; environmental degradation; the high costs of outer island development, and limited progress in gender equality.

The Tuvalu Development Situation. Tuvalu’s atolls are among the planet’s harshest environments: flat ribbons of sand, with limited fresh water; supporting a very narrow range of vegetation; with geographic fragmentation making transport and communications, both internal and international, costly and difficult.

National Goals. Tuvalu is categorised as an LDC due to low per capita GDP, limited human resources and high vulnerability to external forces. Tuvalu’s *Vision 2015* has eight broad goals for national development to achieve high living standards within its minimal natural resources:

- a free, spiritually sound, self-confident and respected Tuvaluan society;
- a progressive society with high educational achievement;
- a prosperous democratic society within Tuvalu’s cultural and traditional norms;
- Island communities autonomous in executing their development programmes;
- good governance, sound human development and economic growth;
- increased Tuvaluan responsibility for development with less dependence on foreign aid;

- more equitable distribution of the work and fruits of development among the nine island communities; and
- political systems that incorporate Tuvalu's cultural and traditional norms, encouraging political stability and national unity.

Within these goals are five priority areas for near-term action within the most recent (1995-1998) national development plan: human resources development, public sector reform; private sector development; outer island development; and infrastructure development. Although the broad development goals of the 1995-98 plan remain, it is out of date and needs to be revised. There is currently no clear sense of development direction and very limited planning capacity.

International Development Goals. Tuvalu has entered into numerous international commitments. These include endorsing the goals of the Decade for Education for All; the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development; the Beijing Platform of Action; the World Summit Goals for Children, the Convention on Rights of the Child, the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the Pacific Platform of Action on Women. In 2000, Tuvalu endorsed the *Millennium Declaration* including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), most to be reached by 2015. It seems likely (table at right) that Tuvalu will meet most key MDGs.

The Government and Governance. Democratic values in Tuvalu are strong with free elections held every four years by universal adult suffrage. There are no political parties. Recent frequent changes in government reflect pressures such as the change from an exchange economy to a money economy, an inherited system of government with little regard for Tuvaluan traditions of decision-making, the lack of a clear path to implement Tuvalu's vision for the future, and the need to manage windfall income. Tuvalu does not face serious governance issues. However, a particular concern has been the lack of final audited government accounts since 1995, few annual ministry reports since the mid-1990s, and little auditing of island council or state owned enterprise accounts. Parliament is unable to judge effectively whether funds are being used as allocated without a much-improved information and reporting system.

The Economy. Tuvalu's GDP per capita was about US\$1,200 in 2001. Only 30% of Tuvalu's labour force participates in the formal wage economy, the remaining 70% primarily involved in rural subsistence and livelihood activities. There is high youth unemployment with few new jobs being created. Practical policies are needed to improve opportunities for the growing numbers of young Tuvaluans who will remain in the informal sector. The Tuvalu Trust Fund (TTF), a prudently managed overseas investment fund, has contributed roughly 11% of annual government budgets since 1990. With a capital value of 2.5 times GDP, the TTF provides an important cushion for Tuvalu's volatile income sources (development assistance, revenues from Tuvalu's "dot tv" Internet domain name, licenses for foreign tuna fishing in Tuvalu's EEZ, and remittances from citizens working abroad). Cash income for those living on 'outer islands' is far lower than in Funafuti. Despite a national goal of increased private sector employment, government employees (including state owned enterprises) constituted 69% of formal employment in 2001 compared to 65% ten years earlier.

Public sector reform. The government has taken tentative steps towards the development of Tuvalu's private sector, including the corporatisation of postal services, telecommunications,

The Millennium Goals and Tuvalu			
The status of achieving the goals in Tuvalu, by 2015 unless noted otherwise is summarised below.			
Global Goal	Will be Met in Tuvalu ?		
	Probably	Maybe	Unlikely
Poverty. Halve % of those in poverty	√		
HIV/AIDS. Halt and reverse spread of HIV/AIDS & malaria		√	
Hunger. Halve % of under-weight (under 5 yrs olds) *		√	
Water. Halve % without access to safe drinking water.	√		
Primary Education. Universal completion	√		
Gender. By 2005, equal male/female access to primary & secondary	√ ?		
Maternal Health. Three-fourths drop in mortality ratio	√		
Child Mortality. 2/3 drop in under-5 death rate	√		
Environment. Reverse environmental resource loss		√	

travel services, and the government's media office (the first steps toward a private media in Tuvalu). Tuvalu's small size, clan-based social structure, and communal traditions have little in common with traditional models for private sector economic development. Public sector reform has focused on strengthening middle and senior management capacity to implement the development objectives of the government through (for example) the formulation and implementation of corporate plans and developing the capacity for, and implementation of, appropriate management skills and systems. Thus far, progress has been limited. Although development assistance has typically been 36% of GDP, Tuvalu has a low capacity to effectively absorb this assistance, an issue of long-standing concern to both donors and the government.

Population, Urbanisation and Land Issues. Tuvalu is one of the most urbanised nations of the Pacific. 15% of national population lived in its only urban centre, Funafuti, in 1973 compared to 44% in 2001. Over the last 28 years, Funafuti has grown at an annual average rate of 6% while the rest of the country grew at only 0.5% per year. Some projections suggest that 61% of the national population may live in Funafuti by 2010. Funafuti atoll could soon face rapidly growing problems with water, wastes, sanitation and lagoon pollution). The majority of Funafuti's residents have no land rights on the island. Land use agreements are not standardised, nor are the procedures for recording its use. Leases are often verbal (leaving tenants vulnerable), land disputes are reportedly increasing, there is a sizable community of squatters of outer islanders on Funafuti and there have been pressures to shift the government, or parts of it, to other islands. The dependency ratio is declining, a positive trend but Tuvalu must create more productive jobs in the cash or traditional sectors than it has in the recent past.

Human rights. Tuvalu's government generally respects the human rights of its citizens, and society is largely egalitarian. The Constitution prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, creed, sex, or national origin, and the Government generally respects these prohibitions. Nonetheless, social behaviour, as determined by custom and tradition, is generally considered by Tuvaluans as being as important as the law. Village elders enforce custom and traditions, an arrangement that can lead to some forms of discrimination. In the traditional culture of the outer islands, women occupy a subordinate role, limiting job opportunities, despite the law, which accords them equal rights with men. Local hereditary elders exercise considerable traditional authority – including the seldom-invoked right to inflict corporal punishment for infringing customary rules, a practice that can be at odds with the national law.

Gender. In the 1999 *Pacific Human Development Report*, Tuvalu rated first among 15 Pacific Island countries in UNDP's gender development ratio, a rough measure of gender equality. Education is reasonably gender-balanced through secondary school and 45% of all overseas tertiary scholarships since 1991 have gone to women. Notable numbers of women hold mid- and senior-level civil service posts. Gender equality is proceeding well but slowly in rural Tuvalu.

Outer island development. Services, opportunities and cash incomes on islands away from Funafuti are considerably worse than those of the capital. The proportion of men in Funafuti working in cash employment in 1994 was over double the rate in outer islands; for women, triple. Per capita cash incomes in Funafuti were triple those of the rest of the country. The government's objectives for outer island development have focused on devolution of authority to the *Kaupule* (traditional local government bodies) to combat urbanisation through improved public service delivery to outer islands through a *Falekaupule Trust Fund* (to which the islands, central government and donors contribute), controlled by the islands. Currently, the per capita share of the fund held by Funafuti's people is about double the average of other islands, causing fears that the mechanism may worsen, rather than improve, inequalities. The government is also considering ways to decentralise key infrastructure, developing a regular and reliable freight service to and from the capital, improving cargo-handling facilities, and improving the poor outer island telecommunications.

Health. Tuvalu has been able to provide basic health services to communities in all island groups through government medical services; there are no private doctors. Infant mortality and life expectancy have improved over time and infectious and communicable diseases are largely under control. There are new downward pressures on health, mostly from non-communicable

and lifestyle diseases. Sexually transmitted diseases are increasing, particularly among Tuvalu's overseas workers (especially sailors) who are at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS. 20% of the population are carriers of the filariasis bacterium. Nonetheless, the risks of being afflicted with a noncommunicable disease are higher than for most communicable diseases. Various cardiac and vascular diseases are the main recorded cause of death. A national health review planned for early 2002 may emphasise improved curative services, although preventative health measures are likely to be considerably more cost-effective.

Poverty and Disadvantage. The perception in Tuvalu is that poverty does not exist, as traditional exchanges provide effective social protection against absolute poverty. Those who live on outer islands, members of large families, the disabled, and those without access to land (where they reside), however, tend to be disadvantaged and suffer from 'poverty of opportunity'. Tuvalu's remoteness – and the outer atolls' remoteness from Funafuti – limits the opportunities available in Funafuti and even more, the opportunities in the outer islands.

Education and Human Resource Development. About 95% of Tuvaluans, male and female alike, are literate. Since 1988, Tuvalu's national educational policy has been the Education For Life (EFL) programme, emphasising compulsory, high-quality education for all through the age of 15, strong community and parental participation, and equal access to schools throughout the country. All children have access to schooling and there appears to be broad gender equality in enrolment through secondary school, although with lower female rates of completion. In recent years, more children are in early childhood education and there is a higher percentage of formally qualified teachers. However, there have been indications of declines in literacy and numeracy and very worrying sharp declines in pass rates of an external (Fiji) lower secondary school exam over the past decade. In early 2002, Tuvalu began reviewing progress in its EFL programme, seeking ways to reverse these trends.

The Environment. Funafuti has a serious solid waste management problem. Although considerable progress has been made in the past several years through an innovative aid-funded waste management project, it is due to end soon without institutional or management issues resolved. Funafuti's potable water supply comes from its considerable rainfall but catchment and storage systems have deteriorated leading to frequent shortages. Sanitation in Funafuti may become a more serious issue if population growth through internal migration is not addressed.

Climate change. Regardless of the extent of sea-level rise, global climate change will result in more pronounced weather patterns such as heavier or more frequent droughts, storms, and out-of-season rain. It is difficult to exaggerate the potential harm to Tuvalu if the worst-case scenarios eventuate including possible total loss of land. Even more moderate climate change will have devastating effects on a tiny highly-fragile atoll nation of only 26 km² of land area.

Key Issues for Advocacy and Dialogue. Tuvalu has endorsed the MDGs and a number of international treaties and conventions. Key issues for advocacy and dialogue between the UN and Tuvalu are:

- Fully extending full rights to women; and
- Effective implementation of key international conventions and declarations (including those dealing with political and civil rights, elimination of racial discrimination, and standards and rights at work) and global and regional treaties and conventions dealing with trade, pollution, and sustainable management of ocean resources.

Key Issues for Priority Development Attention. The international development community should assure support that does not overtax the limited implementation, administrative and monitoring capacities of the government but rather augments them. Some assistance should be provided directly through CSOs. Specific areas for priority donor attention, all consistent with Tuvalu's own national development objectives, are:

- **Population.** Practical policies which address the carrying capacity and emerging social issues of Funafuti and the needs of the remote island communities.
- **Sustainable livelihoods.** Policies for formal and informal employment.

- **More equitable development.** Practical advice, human resource development and policies to genuinely improve the gaps between Funafuti and the other islands in terms of access to services and opportunities for employment and income generation.
- **Youth.** Practical options for training and employing the bulk of Tuvalu's youth and protecting youth from life-threatening risky behaviour.
- **Human resource development.** Education and human resource development policies which improve the quality, relevance and practicality of education and training at all levels with more emphasis on the essential infant and pre-school years.
- **Globalisation.** Informed consideration of globalisation, realistic options, and adapting to challenges in a manner more likely to secure its benefits, maintain national sovereignty, and retain flexibility to formulate and implement economic and social policies.
- **Data.** Better understanding, development and use of data and information for effective research, policy development, programme implementation, and analysis and monitoring.
- **Treaties.** Better understanding, and where appropriate ratification and implementation, of treaties and other commitments.
- **Regional action.** Identification and action on key issues that require regional or global action rather than just a national response.
- **Vulnerability.** Better understanding of Tuvalu's vulnerability, both economic and environmental.
- **Sustainable development.** Development policies that are practical, sustainable, more equitable, compatible with local cultural norms and gender sensitive.
- **Environment.** Improved management of the environmental resources of Funafuti, sustainable management of the ocean resources, and improved pollution control and waste management
- **Education.** Improved access to education by all children and a genuine increase in its quality.
- **Health.** Health systems policies that improve a broad range of health indicators.
- **HIV/AIDS.** Effectively addressing the potential spread of HIV/AIDS.
- **Reform.** A public service which is more transparent, consultative, efficient, and accountable and includes CSOs in delivering services to the disadvantaged. A public service that recognises the tensions between traditional and modern approaches and addresses these, particularly regarding social and economic equity.
- **Climate change.** Better understanding of global climate change and its likely national impacts and more effective contribution to international dialogue and negotiations on climate change.
- **CSOs.** CSOs with the improved management skills and accountability (including financial reporting) which justify more direct involvement in service delivery through the UN system and government.

Broad Themes for Priority Development Attention in Tuvalu. Based on the analysis of this CCA and consultation with Tuvalu officials, CSO representatives and donors, the key development issues facing Tuvalu have been grouped into three broad thematic areas to form the basis for preparation of the UNDAF:

Theme 1: Assistance for Reducing Disparities in Services and Opportunities. Assuring a more equitable provision of essential services and opportunities between Funafuti and the rest of Tuvalu, and within the outer island groups:

Theme 2: Governance and Human Rights. Improved participation, accountability, and equity in decision-making:

Theme 3: Addressing Environmental Issues (particularly Funafuti) and Vulnerability. Improving the ability of Tuvalu to deal with economic and environmental vulnerability:

CHAPTER 1 – COMMON PACIFIC REGIONAL CONCERNS

1.1 The Vastness of the Pacific

It is fitting, given Tuvalu's location and culture, to look first at the region which surrounds the country. The Pacific Islands comprise some 12 states and 9 territories stretching from Pitcairn Island in the southeast to the Republic of Palau and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands in the northwest, and from Papua New Guinea in the southwest to the Marshall Islands in the northeast. Tuvalu lies in the middle of the region (see map; page ii) yet Funafuti is 1,100 kilometres from the capitals of its nearest independent neighbours: Suva, Fiji; Tarawa, Kiribati; and Apia, Samoa.

For PICs, land mass is typically 1/3 of 1% of the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ). For Tuvalu the ratio of land to sea is 1:35,000: only 0.003% of the EEZ is land. Although the negative effects of being tiny remote islands in an immense sea can be exaggerated (see Box 1.1), the challenges – and costs – of providing adequate services of all kinds to small widespread populations are enormous, particularly for remote outer islands.

Perhaps the key constraint resulting from the limited land area and dispersed geography of the Pacific Islands is a limited human resource base. Typical of most constraints on the PICs, few economies of scale exist in their human resources. Most PICs have minimal depth in the key skills required to keep their countries functioning. However, for an extremely small atoll nation like Tuvalu if someone goes on leave or for an extended period of training; if one changes jobs due to promotion or transfer (or acquires additional responsibilities), there is often no one at all available to back them up — no one to fully handle their core responsibilities. This situation is exacerbated within remote communities away from national capitals. A key implication of this is that development efforts need to be designed and implemented differently from those for larger countries. Some NGOs have estimated that development efforts in PICs that include both a large human resource component (e.g. 50% of project budget) and that build-in significantly more time (at least 50% more than for larger countries) have significantly more development impact than projects with little or no human resource component.⁵

1.2 The Challenges of Globalisation

Globalisation is the process of integrating the economies of the world through global markets and a global system of production. It also has profound social and cultural impacts through the increasingly global integration of the mass media and the spread of 'western' ideas. Globalisation depends on reducing natural barriers to trade in goods, services and ideas (e.g. fast and reliable transport and open communications) and artificial barriers (e.g. reduced tariffs, quotas, foreign exchange controls). Globalisation has obviously existed for centuries but is currently growing at an historically unprecedented rate. For very small remote countries

Box 1.1 – The Pacific:

Small Islands in the Sea or a Sea of Islands?

Assessments of development issues within the Pacific tend to emphasise problems related to remoteness and isolation, small land areas spread over vast seas, economic vulnerability with highly open economies, environmental vulnerability and limited human resources. These and other problems are quite real for Tuvalu and are discussed within this CCA. However, Hau'ofa (USP, 1993) argues "the universe [of Oceanic peoples] comprised not only land surfaces but the surrounding ocean as far as they could traverse and exploit it. ... Smallness is a state of mind. ... There is a gulf of difference between viewing the Pacific as 'islands in the far sea' and as 'a sea of islands.' Large parts of the Pacific – including Tuvalu – have been integrated through extensive, complex trading and cultural exchange for hundreds of years.

Although land resources are extremely limited, those of the sea are not. The Pacific ocean covers half the world's sea surface. The fisheries resource is extensive and seabed mining has huge potential; managing the former sustainably and developing the latter in an environmentally sound matter are great challenges but also significant opportunities. Today the people of the Pacific circulate widely in increased numbers, are often educated together at the same regional university, and readily use high-tech communications and transport technologies to reduce isolation and collectively address common concerns such as more rational fisheries use, active participation in climate change negotiations and developing more intra-regional trade.

⁵ See, for instance, the annual reports of the USAID-initiated 'Solomon Islands Development by the People at the Village Level' programme managed by the NGO International Human Assistance Programs, 1980-1987.

such as Tuvalu, adjusting to this extraordinary rate of change is a tremendous challenge. Siwatibau⁶ refers to the “impossible trinity” that Pacific Island countries should strive for: i) securing the benefits from globalisation; while ii) maintaining national sovereignty, and iii) retaining the flexibility to formulate and implement their own economic and social policies, three challenges particularly difficult for Tuvalu and other microstates.

A CCA is not appropriate for discussing or analysing the raging debate regarding social, cultural or economic costs and benefits of globalisation for various parties. Nonetheless, the United Nations system does have a genuine ‘comparative advantage’ in assisting the PICs in more informed debate on globalisation, better understanding of its likely impacts, considering realistic options, and adapting to its challenges. How can the PICs:⁷

- protect cultural values such as communal sharing of resources, strong family values and a co-operative approach to economic activity;
- protect traditional land tenure, which often comes under threat with export-based resource investments;
- minimise possible social costs (e.g. increased inequality and relative poverty, takeovers of local industry, lost markets and jobs, lower wages and worsened working conditions);
- deal effectively with erosion of the valuable and under utilised preferential market access to the European Union, Australia and New Zealand;
- protect the coastal environment from further degradation and pollution which can often result from poorly regulated investment;
- implement the 2001 regional *Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement* (PICTA) so that it enhances regional integration, protects women workers, expands trade within the region for all

Box 1.2 – The Information Economy

The digital convergence of information and communication technologies (ICT) has lowered long-standing obstacles to communication delays and distance. Ever cheaper, more rapid, and more varied means of communicating vast amounts of information through the Internet (and other networks) is creating a world in which there is far greater access to information than ever before. The effects will include profound changes in the structure of global markets, organisations and patterns of economic behaviour. Barring global disaster, the onrush of information itself is irreversible. A world economy integrated in ‘real time’ carries with it both advantages and new sources of instability:

- Up to 5% of all service-sector jobs in industrialised countries – 12 million jobs – could readily relocate to those developing countries where education and English language skills are sufficient.
- Call centres and data processing have very good potential in small English-literate developing countries. These are predominantly female occupations, wages and conditions of work vary widely and the work tends not to lead to career upgrading. In the best examples, a new, informal and appealing work culture is developing; in the worst, call centres have become the “sweatshops of the digital era”.
- The quality of life and work for women and men will be exposed as much to the potential for negative outcomes as positive ones.
- Good policies and appropriate institutions will be essential to direct change toward the public good. Passivity will lead to marginalisation, a serious danger for a small, already marginal economy.
- The fast pace of competition requires rapid decisions. As time-to-market becomes increasingly important, the organisation of work needs to adjust so that a high degree of creativity and a more rapid response to product market pressures can occur, yet the PICs tend to reach decisions slowly.
- The reliability, cost and availability of telecommunications generally determine the extent to which the Internet is used but per capita access costs are generally high in the PICs.
- A higher level of integration between some developing country locations and industrialised countries could increase the relative exclusion of locations that are not connected.
- Benefiting from the information economy requires a skilled, educated work force; however, outward migration of the technically skilled can result in a brain drain, depriving the PICs of these valuable skills.

Source: adopted from World Employment Report 2001: Life at Work in the Information Economy (Overview; ILO, 2001)

⁶ Overview of the Impact of Globalisation on the Pacific (workshop lecture notes; Savenaca Siwatibau, 2001).

⁷ Adapted in part from *Impact of Globalisation* (notes for CCA/UNDAF workshop; Garry Wiseman; Apia, Samoa; November 2001).

participating countries (not just the larger, more diverse PICs) and adequately prepares Tuvalu and the other Pacific LDCs for the anticipated more-universal trade liberalisation.⁸

The changes brought about by globalisation will continue to rapidly transform international trade in goods and services in the coming decade, especially through the use of information and communications technology (ICT). As Box 1.2 illustrates, there could be ICT opportunities⁹ for PICs. As discussed in chapter 3, Tuvalu has benefited considerably from its dot.tv Internet domain name but the challenges to develop this resource further are considerable.

Globalisation is about the free flow of ideas, not just the spread of the market economy. These ideas are not limited to the cultural impacts of books, film or the media but also include an increasing commitment by countries worldwide, including the PICs, for concerted action across a wide range of human rights and other concerns. Many of these ideas were articulated during a series of United Nations conferences and World Summits during the 1990s, culminating in various measurable and time-bound goals, which are summarised in the Millennium Declaration Goals. These are discussed in Chapter 2.

The PICs are also parties to a number of international and regional treaties, conventions and declarations. The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the only such global instrument ratified by essentially all PICs. As illustrated in Box 1.3, the small size and limited human resources of the PICs contribute significantly to difficulties in fully appreciating their treaty commitments and in effectively implementing those they do ratify. For example, the PICs consider PICTA – and the related *Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations* (PACER) – as important vehicles for progressively replacing aid with trade and preparing them for globalisation. However, microstates such as Tuvalu simply lack the resources to implement the agreements effectively for their national benefit.

1.3 Vulnerability

There has been extensive documentation of the susceptibility of island states to external economic fluctuations and environmental shocks, even minimal ones.¹⁰ A number of vulnerability indices have been developed which differ in detail and coverage but give broadly similar results. The Commonwealth Secretariat has developed an index that ranks 111

Box 1.3 – Implementing International Treaties: Pressures on, and Constraints for, PICs

Regional agencies report that the PICs often feel under strong pressure to sign and ratify those legal tools or agreements which are of current concern to the global community. These are not necessarily high priorities locally, highly relevant to the island states or even always necessarily in their interests. Recently PICs have been urged to address measures against money laundering and, since late 2001, anti-terrorism and the status of refugees. Most PICs (including Tuvalu) follow the British legal system: treaties do not necessarily automatically enter into force when ratified. Entry into force may require a specific act of Parliament. PICs, particularly those which are LDCs, have miniscule numbers of trained and experienced lawyers in government service, very high rates of turnover, and considerable migration overseas. The ability to understand, effectively advise leaders on, legislate, and eventually implement international agreements is severely constrained. For example, the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea is important to the PICs, and has been ratified by 13 of 16 Forum Island Countries but most PICs have not enacted UNCLOS provisions in law due to other work pressures and priorities.

In general, and in Tuvalu, PIC government legal offices cannot effectively and sustainably implement even those conventions and treaties which are of importance to themselves.

Source: Discussions and correspondence with PIC legal advisers and legal experts, November 2001

⁸ According to UNCTAD, 2001, “Standard analysis of FTAs (free trade agreements) suggests that trade creation effects from a Forum Island Country FTA are likely to be small and that there may be a substantial risk of trade diversion. Loss of tariff revenue is a major concern, which needs to be addressed by restructuring of tax and tariff systems in some cases.”

⁹ In Fiji, for example, a local company has developed up-market soaps, perfumes and other products based on local coconut oil, nicely packaged, which are very successfully marketed internationally, almost exclusively through Internet advertising.

¹⁰ See *Pacific Human Development Report* (UNDP, 1999), *Economic Impact of Natural Disasters in the South Pacific* (UNDP, 1997), *Progress Toward a Global Environmental Vulnerability Index* (SOPAC, 2001), and *Small States: Meeting Challenges in the Global Economy* (Commonwealth Secretariat/World Bank, 2000).

developing countries (34 “small”¹¹ and 77 “large” for which data were available) according to measurable components of exposure and resilience to external shocks. Income growth volatility is the most apparent manifestation of vulnerability. The three most significant determinants of income volatility identified by the Commonwealth are: i) lack of diversification (measured by UNCTAD’s diversification index); ii) export dependence (indicated by share of exports in GDP); and iii) the impact of natural disasters (based on portion of population affected, cumulative frequency and impact over the previous 27 years). These measures are combined into a composite vulnerability index weighted by average GDP as a proxy for resilience (the second component of the Commonwealth index). Among the results are the following:

- Of the 28 most highly vulnerable countries, 26 (92%) are small states and 18 (64%) are island states; and
- The most highly vulnerable category includes six PICs: Fiji, Kiribati, Samoa, the Solomon Islands, Tonga and Vanuatu. (Even smaller PICs such as Tuvalu would no doubt have been included in this category had sufficient data been available to rank them.)

Table 1.1: Estimated Levels of Vulnerability to Natural Hazards in Tuvalu

Cyclones	Coastal Floods	River Floods	Drought	Earthquakes	Landslides	Tsunamis	Volcanoes
Low	High	Not applicable	Medium	Low	Low	High	Not applicable

Source: United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs (UNDHA), Suva, Fiji, 1994

The South Pacific Applied Geoscience Commission (SOPAC) has developed a comprehensive Environmental Vulnerability Index (EVI) with 47 indicators. Provisional results¹² for four PICs suggest that Tuvalu has a highly vulnerable natural ecosystem whereas Fiji, Samoa and possibly Vanuatu are moderately vulnerable. These findings agree with earlier estimates (Table 1.1) summarising Tuvalu’s high degree of vulnerability.

1.4 Global Climate Change

Until recently, many observers dismissed warnings of impending climate change as highly uncertain. It is increasingly evident, however, that climate change is real. Every successive report by the UN’s Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has shown stronger evidence and a higher degree of confidence in its predictions. A recent IPCC synthesis report¹³ concludes, with a “robust level of confidence”, that global warming is already underway and “is likely to increase during the 21st Century at rates unprecedented in the past 10,000 years.” It does not specifically look at PICs but concludes that for small islands in general:

- “Projected future climate change and sea-level rise will affect shifts in species composition and competition. It is estimated that one out of every three (30%) known threatened plants are islands endemics, while 23% of bird species are threatened. Coral reefs, mangroves, and seagrass beds that often rely on stable environmental conditions will be adversely affected by rising air and sea temperatures and sea-level rise (*medium confidence*).
- Declines in coastal ecosystems will negatively impact reef fish and threaten reef fisheries (*medium confidence*).
- Islands with very limited water supplies are highly vulnerable to the impacts of climate change on the water balance (*high confidence*).”

Tuvalu and Kiribati have been predicted¹⁴ to suffer the greatest impact of climate change including disappearance in the worst-case scenario. Although most media attention has focussed on sea level rise, the expected impacts – particularly for atolls – are likely to include

¹¹ “Small” states were defined as those with fewer than 1.5m people, i.e. 150 times the population of Tuvalu!

¹² See *Environmental Vulnerability Index: Development and Provisional Indices for Fiji, Samoa, Tuvalu and Vanuatu* (SOPAC, 2000).

¹³ *Climate Change 2001: Synthesis Report for Policymakers* (IPCC, October 2001).

¹⁴ *Climate Change and Commonwealth Nations* (Australia Institute, October 2001).

reduced agricultural output (due to changing rainfall patterns and increased temperatures), a decline in ground water quantity and quality (sea level rise and possibly drought), substantial negative effects on health (increased diarrhoea, dengue fever and ciguatera or fish poisoning), extensive capital damage (due to storm surges), and lost fish production. The World Bank¹⁵ concludes that:

“Managing change will be particularly critical in the area of climate change, a subject ... of immense and immediate impact on Pacific Island countries. Choosing a development path that decreases the islands’ vulnerability to climate events and maintains the quality of the social and physical environment will not only be central to the future well being of the Pacific Island people, but will also be a key factor in the countries’ ability to attract foreign investment in an increasingly competitive global economy.” (Emphasis added.)

1.5 Managing Marine Resources

The Central West Pacific is the world’s richest tuna fishery, providing a third of the global catch with a landed value of US\$2,000 million annually during the 1990s. However, the PICs captured only 11% of this, the bulk of benefits accruing to distant fishing nations.¹⁶ Furthermore, the PICs have invested US\$200-300 million of public funds in their fisheries with negligible returns, in effect wiping out the money which has been earned through fees imposed on the distant fishing nations. Effectively managing the migratory tuna (and eventually the vast mineral) resources of the Pacific will be a key challenge for the PICs in the coming years. The determination of a sustainable maximum yield, arms length access negotiations with distant fishing nations, accurately monitoring catches, and assuring good economic returns and employment for Pacific Islanders can only be successful if done cooperatively on a regional basis. For very small countries such as Tuvalu, with essentially no land-based resources, more effective use of the sea’s resources¹⁷ is a key to future prosperity.

1.6 Data as a Limitation to Effective Analysis and Monitoring

The accurate assessment of key development issues, the formulation of policies to address them, implementation of policies and programmes, and monitoring results and impacts all require a wide range of timely, accurate and consistent data. The UN family and others have devoted considerable resources to the collection and analysis of data and improving the statistical capacities of PICs and their regional organisations. However, much of the assistance has been *ad hoc*, short term and incomplete. There are pockets of good data for most PICs sufficient for ‘snapshots’ which indicate reasonably well the current development situation at the national level. Often, however, for the smaller PICs for which CCAs are being prepared, much data is national; there are only limited breakdowns of available data by sex, age, income group or geographic location (by island, by province, urban/rural, etc.). Another data issue for the smaller PICs is the lack of consistent and meaningful time-series datasets which allow accurate indications of trends. This is particularly an issue for rare events (e.g. maternal mortality), where reported trends, or even data for a single year, can be inherently misleading.

UNDP¹⁸ notes that in the Pacific, “social statistics are particularly hard to locate and difficult to use because they are often unreliable or outdated. ... It leaves us without critical indicators of development.” Annex 2, for example, indicates reasonably accurately the current progress by Tuvalu in reaching the Millennium and other global development goals. However, without more disaggregation of data and better analysis of reported trends and their relevance to small populations there is some degree of speculation regarding which issues are most serious (and

¹⁵ Adapting to Climate Change (Vol. 4, *Cities, Seas, & Storms: Managing Change in Pacific Island Economies* (WB, 2000).

¹⁶ Summary Report (Vol. 1, *Cities, Seas, & Storms: Managing Change in Pacific Island Economies* (WB, 2000).

¹⁷ In 1998, Tuvalu earned US\$ 6.5m from tuna licenses in its EEZ, under 0.4% of the Pacific landed value.

¹⁸ *Pacific Human Development Report* (UNDP, Suva, 1999; p 6).

require immediate attention) and which trends are genuinely improving.¹⁹ Better data are needed in the Pacific at three levels:

- primary, as in census surveys or health information systems;
- secondary, for example better and more relevant tabulations and compilations; and
- tertiary, that is more and better interpretation and policy analyses.

Box 1.4 argues for an improved regional capacity to assist PICs improve the collection, analysis and use of data at national and sub-national levels.

1.7 Development Assistance to the Pacific

Unlike larger LDCs, those in the Pacific are extremely dependent on donor assistance for developing social and economic policies. Their ability to plan, and implement these plans, depends to an unusual extent on the areas in which bilateral and multilateral donor funding is available both to the countries directly and for interventions through regional organisations and the donors' own regional assistance programmes. There do not appear to be any comprehensive recent analyses of trends in aid flows to the PICs overall (or to individual LDCs such as Tuvalu) in terms of quantity, sectoral concentration, thematic concentration, sources, etc.²⁰

A commonly expressed view within the region is a perceived donor tendency toward new emphases every few years, less continuity in their programming, less willingness to support specific national efforts for a period sufficient to make much real impact, sudden on-again off-again switches to specific areas of assistance, and shorter project cycles. For larger countries, where aid is a small percentage of GDP, the nature of aid flows may not be a serious concern; for the PICs, it can arguably undermine development efforts.

Box 1.4 – PIC Data Limitations as a Constraint to Analysis and Monitoring

In the mid 1990s, the difficulty of monitoring Sustainable Human Development (SHD) was assessed for Fiji (Chung 1995), which has a relatively well trained and staffed statistics office: "Although the institutional capacity for [data collection and] monitoring in Fiji is perhaps as good as anywhere in the South Pacific, official data often are unreliable or inaccurate, have important gaps or uneven coverage, are over-aggregated, and outdated." Official statistics said little about salient SHD issues, there was little continuity in data collection, data were not timely, and data were fragmentary and scattered. In addition, there was only limited analysis of the data that do exist: "Policy requires multiple data-sets (national, community and household) but linking available data-sets is nearly impossible. ... Lousy data give lousy results."

In most other PICs, certainly including Tuvalu, capacity for data collection and analysis is even more limited. In 2000 the Pacific Islands Forum Economic Ministers' Meeting (FEMM) resolved to strengthen the collection of economic statistics in the region. By mid 2001, assessments of statistical needs were underway in several PICS (but not yet Tuvalu) and the ADB was considering a Regional Technical Assistance programme (RETA) in economic statistics. In 2001, the Ministers noted the need for:

- * a coherent reform strategy for statistical operations in the region based on a systematic assessment of country needs;
- * establishing a regional capacity to coordinate and conduct and/or provide technical assistance for national censuses, and large-scale social and economic surveys (as PICs such as Tuvalu are too small to justify, develop or sustain such services);
- * reducing the heavy demands of donor agencies on national statistical offices; and
- * improving the quality and coordination of the variety of regional databases.

The Secretariat of the Pacific Community (SPC) is the regional agency with the mandate for the collection of statistical data and support to PICs but it lacks the resources to address all key PIC needs.

There is abundant information available for this CCA but the lack of timely, complete, consistent, reliable and disaggregated data (by island, gender, age, etc.), and of trends over time, precludes more detailed analysis.

Sources: Papers from FEMM, June 2001; Chung, 1995; and November 2001 discussions

¹⁹ A recent, and possibly important, example: A meeting of climate scientists in New Zealand had access to an unprecedented level of detail on temperature changes in the Pacific from 1950-2000. It concluded that temperatures for many PICs rose by 0.5-1.0 °C since 1950, compared to a global average increase of 0.6 °C for the entire century. (Source: PNGCR, 2001)

²⁰ During the preparation of the CCA, a large numbers of websites and organisations were contacted. Apparently regional and international organisations have not done such an analysis in some years.

1.8 Population Growth, Poverty and Development

In 1996, an East–West Center report²¹ warned that “rapid population growth may be hampering the region’s development efforts. ... Accommodating the additional numbers of people will pose major challenges to their governments and societies.” In 2001, the Asian Development Bank²² warned of growing poverty among Pacific communities, families and individuals. 43% of the population of its PIC members were considered ‘disadvantaged’ in 1998 as estimated by UNDP’s Human Poverty Index. In the ADB’s opinion, there are six key issues that affect all of its Pacific members, in approximately the order listed below:

- “difficulties in providing good governance;
- population growth outpacing economic growth;
- declining educational performance;
- weakness of the private sector;
- breakdown of traditional support systems; and
- urban elite capturing most of the benefits from modernisation.”

The ADB also lists²³ five “key development challenges” for the PICs:

- “disappointing macroeconomic and growth performance over the past decade;
- increasing poverty, particularly in Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu;
- continuing reliance on large government investments ...;
- increasing environmental degradation; and
- little progress in strengthening the role of women in political, economic, and social spheres.”

Population growth, alongside rapid social change, makes it difficult to provide services, can frustrate employment plans, increase pressure to migrate, affect social security, exacerbate domestic violence and generally hamper development efforts. Rapid population growth, youth unemployment, urbanisation, poverty and other pressures are also reflected in the growth in youth gangs and street kids in urban centres throughout the region. The issue of disaffected and unemployed youth is increasingly coming to public and government attention as an issue which must be addressed.

1.9 Some Conclusions

A number of the key national development issues facing the PICs, and the LDCs among them such as Tuvalu, will require cooperative regional or global action involving the countries themselves and the development assistance community. Among these are more effective provision and use of aid, better data and skills for the analysis and monitoring of social and economic development, understanding and effectively implementing those key treaties and international commitments to which the PICs are party, addressing the impacts of climate change, more effectively managing the resources of the vast Pacific, and addressing common key issues such as rapid population growth, increased incidence of HIV/AIDS, increasing poverty, disaffected youth, domestic violence, and limited progress in achieving gender equality.

²¹ *Demographic and Social Change in the Island Nations of the Pacific* (Dennis Ahlburg, EWC, 1996)

²² *Poverty: Is it an Issue in the Pacific?* (ADB, Manila, 2001)

²³ *Pacific Strategy for the New Millennium* (ADB, Manila, 1999)

CHAPTER 2 – INTRODUCTION TO TUVALU AND THE CCA PROCESS

This chapter summarises the current development situation in Tuvalu, the government's policies and goals to address key issues, and an emerging global consensus regarding the international goals of development. The chapter then briefly summarises past UN assistance and describes the selection of CCA themes and the CCA framework to better address both Tuvalu's and international concerns.



Tuvalu sunset (photograph: Charles G Kick III; 2001)

2.1 Tuvalu's Development Situation

Tuvalu was previously known as the Ellice Islands within the British-ruled Gilbert and Ellice Islands Colony. In 1974, the Polynesian Ellice Islands voted for separation from the Micronesians of the Gilbert Islands (now Kiribati). In 1975, the Ellice Islands became the separate British colony of Tuvalu and the country became independent on 1 October 1978. With a population of barely 10,000, Tuvalu occupies a land area of just twenty-six square kilometres (2,600 hectares) on nine atolls in the central Pacific just south of the Equator. These bits of land lightly spice an Exclusive Economic Zone of 900,000 km². The country's dispersion, isolation and meagre natural resources severely limit prospects for economic development.

Table 2.1 provides some basic development indicators. The Tuvalu economy, discussed further in the next chapter, depends primarily on interest earned from investments in an overseas trust fund, licence fees for foreign-owned fishing ships, remittances from Tuvaluans working abroad, and revenue from marketing Tuvalu's Internet domain name (*dot.tv*). In recent years the economy has performed reasonably well. Tuvalu ranks in the middle of the Pacific Island Countries (PICs), and 118th in the world, in terms of UNDP's Human Development Index (HDI). It is 4th among 15 PICs – i.e. well above the regional average – within UNDP's Human Poverty Index. Although classified as a Least Developed Country, Tuvalu has an enviable record of successfully meeting its people's basic needs, with nearly universal access to basic health services and education. Life expectancy is on a par with some middle income countries. Progress toward full gender equality appears to be slow but Tuvalu nonetheless scores best among fifteen PICs in UNDP's Gender Development Index.

Statistics, of course, tell only a part of the story and (as Chapter 1 and the rightmost column of Table 2.1 suggest), some reported data are only estimates or are out-of-date. Most gender indicators, for example, are a decade old and some may thus be misleading. For a very small and highly mobile population, even population growth can vary considerably depending on the choice of starting- and end points. Table 2.1 indicates modest population growth of 1.35% annually from 1991-2001. However, there was considerable out-migration during 2001: average growth calculated from 1991-2000 was 2% per year. Similarly, the ADB estimates annual average per capita actual and/or projected economic growth of only 1.2% from 1999-2003 but 3.6% from 1995-2001. This CCA has tried to use reliable and meaningful data for indicators of Tuvalu's development but data gaps, misleading data and shortcomings are common. Much more reliable indicators should be available from the forthcoming 2002 national census and the forthcoming final 2002 ADB economic report.

Relatively slow population growth and declining dependency ratios enable investment to be directed to quality improvements over quantitative expansion of services. However, Tuvalu's achievements are being eroded by very slow creation of cash income opportunities and widening disparities in access to services and opportunities between the capital – Funafuti –

and the rest of the country. Health services strain to meet the new demands of changing lifestyles (especially regarding diet). Education focuses more on skills required for overseas employment than on knowledge needed to make and earn a livelihood within Tuvalu and quality seems to be declining at secondary school level.

Table 2.1: Some Basic Development Indicators for Tuvalu

Indicator	Overall	Male	Female	Comments
Population (1991 census)	9,043			From <i>Census Report</i> (Tuvalu government, 1991)
(Sept 2001; estimated) ¹	10,339	-	-	But net decrease of 4.3% 31/12/00-31/09/001 due to out migration ²
urban (%; 1991 & 1999)	42 51	-	-	1991 from census; 2001 est. from <i>Country Brief: Tuvalu</i> (UNFPA, 2001)
growth (% / yr; 1991-2001)	1.35%			Calculated from above data; note that 1991-2000 would be 1.97%/year
Mortality				
Life expect. at birth (yrs; 1991; actual)	67	64	70	<i>Census Report</i>
(2000; estimated)	66	64	69	<i>Tuvalu Annual Report for 2000</i> (WHO, 2001) based on MoH data.
Not expected to survive to 40 (%; 1991)	9.8	11.7	7.9	<i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF, 2001); primary source apparently 1991 census.
Maternal mortality (est. 1992-1999) ³	-	-	100-200	Male survival to 40 (the above line) was interpolated.
Infant mortality rate (1991; census)	51	-	-	UNFPA from MoH reported deaths. Others report 0 but see note below.
(2000; estimated)	29	-	-	Per thousand live births.
Child mortality rate (0- 5 yrs; 1991)	59			From <i>Country Profile, Tuvalu</i> (SPC, 2001); primary source is census
Economic:				
GDP per capita (2001)	A\$ 2,286	-	-	From <i>Asian Development Outlook</i> (ADB, April 2002) in Australian \$
GDP/capita growth (%/year; 1995-2001)	3.6%	-	-	Calculated from <i>Asian Development Outlook</i> (ADB, 2002)
GDP/capita growth (%/year; 1999-2003)	1.2%	-	-	Estimates and projections from ADB, 2002 as above.
Aid per capita (A\$; 1990-2000; approx)	A\$ 900			Estimated from recent aid flows of A\$8-10 m per year
Dependency ratio (mid 2000 estimated)	69.5			<i>Country Profile, Tuvalu</i> (SPC, 2001; ratio=(population [(0-14]+[65+])/[15-64])
Services				
Access to safe drinking water (%; 1991)	85%	-	-	<i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF, 2001) but primary source probably 1991 census
Access to sanitation (%; 1991)	49%			As above
Telephones (% of pop. 1990 & 1999)	1.3 5.5			ILO website; updated January 2001
Health				
Adult literacy (1991)	95	95	95	Census report
Births by trained health worker (2000)	100%	100%	100%	UNFPA & UNICEF; primary source Min of Health Statistics Unit
Underweight children (% , 5 yrs; 1990s)	3	-	-	<i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF; 2001)
HIV / AIDS cases (Dec. 2001)	0	0	0	No <i>confirmed</i> cases; source is Ministry of Health
Filariasis (%; 1973 & 1999)	0.9 22.3	-	-	Positive for microfilaria; MoH <i>Annual Reports</i>
Infant immunisation (DPT3, 1998)	94	-	-	MoH In 1998 BCG 100%, measles 96, OPV3 94 HepB 96
(2000)	90	-	-	In 2000 BCG 100%, measles ?, OPV3 95 HepB 85
Total fertility rate (1997)			3.2	<i>Progress Report: Beijing +5</i> (Women's Affairs Dept; Tuvalu gov; 2000)
Women using contraception (%; 1997)			42%	% of those in reproductive age; source as above
Human Development rank (PICs, 1998)	8th of 14	-	-	<i>Pacific Human Development Report</i> (UNDP, 1999). 1 st is best
Human Poverty rank (PICs, 1998)	4th of 15			As above, rank is among the PICs measured
Education				
Early child education (1998)	91%	-	-	<i>Progress Report: Beijing +5</i> (Women's Affairs Dept; Tuvalu gov; 2000)
Primary school enrolment (1995-'99)	100%	100%	100%	Gross enrolment; <i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF, 2001)
				Net; <i>Pacific Island Country Profile</i> (UNICEF, 2001) but recent govt statistics ⁴ appear to suggest lower female enrolment 1991-2001.
Gender				
Members of Parliament (2001)	100%	100%	0%	The 2002 census is expected to show considerable improvement for women in most of these indicators.
Labour force (1991; % of total)	100%	62%	38%	
Prof/tech/admin/mgt (1991; census)	100%	61%	39%	
Clerical workers (1991; census)	100%	35%	65%	
Gender Development Ratio (PICs, 1998)	-	100	107	Tuvalu scored highest of 15 PICs. From <i>Pacific Human Development Report</i> (UNDP, 1999)

Sources other than those identified in rightmost column of the table above: 1) Quarterly *Statistical Report* (Tuvalu gov. Sept 2001);

2) Quarterly *Statistical Report* (Tuvalu gov. March 2001); 3) UNFPA *Support to Tuvalu Under its Programme of Assistance* (UNFPA, 2001);

4) from Central Statistics Division, 2001.

SOPC = *State of Pacific Children* (4th draft; UNICEF, 2001).

Note: For rare events such as maternal mortality, absolute numbers of deaths in any year are too small to provide a meaningful MMR in a small population. A moving average over at least three years is more useful.

2.2 National Goals and Objectives

There has been no explicit statement of Tuvalu's medium term economic strategy since 1995; development decisions tend to be *ad hoc* and poorly co-ordinated. Nonetheless, the *National Development Strategy* of 1995 and *Vision 2015* of 1997 serve as outdated, but still useful,

guides to government intentions.²⁴ The *Vision* provides a broad philosophy for longer-term national development:

- a free Tuvaluan society, firm, spiritually sound, with self-confidence and the respect of other nations;
- a progressive society with high educational achievement;
- a prosperous democratic society within cultural and traditional norms of Tuvalu;
- island communities autonomous in the execution of their development programmes;
- good governance, sound human development and economic growth;
- increased local responsibility for Tuvalu's development as individuals, families, island communities, and as a nation that is less dependent on foreign aid;
- greater sharing of the workload and more equitable distribution of the fruits of development among the nine island communities of Tuvalu; and
- development of political systems that incorporate the cultural and traditional governing norms of Tuvalu, thus encouraging political stability and unity.

Within this long-term philosophy, the 1995-1998 development strategy concentrated on five short-to-medium-term priorities:

- public sector reform;
- human resources development (HRD) based on the 'Education for Life' (EFL) approach;
- private sector development emphasising export-oriented business;
- outer island development (including inter-island shipping and telecommunications); and
- infrastructure development, including human settlements.

Public Sector Reform. Public sector reform has focused on strengthening middle and senior management capacity to implement government objectives through the formulation and implementation of corporate plans and developing the capacity for, and implementation of, appropriate management skills and systems (e.g., staff appraisal). Perhaps more than in other PICs, Tuvalu's limited depth in human resources (HR) has inhibited the effectiveness of programmes whose designs are often based on the experiences and capacities of larger PICs and elsewhere.²⁵ Moreover, Tuvalu's extremely small society suggests that public sector reform responses need to recognise the strengths and weaknesses of family ties as well as the very limited HR base.²⁶

HRD. Since independence, Tuvalu's human resource development focus has been on formal academic education and the capacity to provide basic health services. The main goal of EFL, the main strategy for achieving Tuvalu's HRD objectives, has been to provide compulsory quality education to the age of 15 years emphasising equal access for all Tuvaluans and the encouragement of parental and community participation. The largest recent HRD initiative has involved physical rehabilitation of schools with teacher qualifications a secondary focus. The education system is currently under review.²⁷ Depending on findings, efforts may well shift from rehabilitation to strengthening, including non-academic areas (e.g. formalising adult education, curriculum, and programmes) and pre-school support. Key among health HRD efforts is the training of medical staff in specific fields (surgery, laboratory skills, public health, etc.) and developing mechanism to sustain health human resources, including the retention of trained Tuvaluans.

²⁴ See *Kakeega O Tuvalu (National Development Strategy) 1995-1998* (Government of Tuvalu, August 1995) and *Vision 2015* (Government of Tuvalu, April 1997).

²⁵ Naisoro, Navitalai, *Evaluation of the Tuvalu Public Sector Reform Programme*, UNDP, Suva, October 2001.

²⁶ Dahan, Momi; and A. Gaviria; "Sibling Correlations and Intergenerational Mobility in Latin America", *Economic Development & Cultural Change* (48:3; April 2001), pp 537-554

²⁷ An EFL review was planned as this CCA was being completed and a taskforce was investigating reasons for poor performance in external (Fiji) school exams.

Private Sector Development. Private sector development has been very limited in Tuvalu given its history as a small, administered colony with little of economic value to be developed. Economic growth has been, and continues to be, dominated by the government sector. Within the ‘current’ (i.e. 1995-1998) planning framework, the government has taken tentative steps towards the private sector development including corporatisation of government services (post office, telecommunications, media, etc.). However, Tuvalu’s small size, clan-based social structure, and communal traditions have little in common with traditional models for private sector economic development and growth, which has been modest.

Outer Islands Development. Outer island development has emphasised the devolution of some development decisions and fiscal accountability to the *Kaupule*, traditional local government bodies on each island, which have been revived and updated under modern legislation. Objectives include combating urbanisation through improvements in public service delivery on outer islands. Pressing issues for outer island communities are providing regular and reliable freight service to-and-from the capital, improving cargo handling facilities, considerably upgrading telecommunications and generally decentralising and managing key infrastructure (including electricity) in a manner which outer island residents can afford.

Infrastructure. Infrastructure development has focused on re-building and upgrading roads on Funafuti, repairing Funafuti airport, providing better housing, modernising the Funafuti hospital and improving Funafuti’s electric power supply.

2.3 International Goals of Development

During the past decade, the international community convened a number of high-level conferences on a variety of issues crucial for human development. These have led to a broad consensus on the most critical development issues facing people and the development priorities to be followed in addressing them at national and international levels. These global conferences have focused on strategic development issues, set standards and goals to be achieved and called for resource mobilisation and commitment to action by state parties, the international community and civil society organisations. Tuvalu has entered into various commitments arising from these and other conferences. These include endorsing the goals of the Decade for Education for All; the Programme of Action of the International Conference on

Box 2.1 – Major UN Conferences and Treaties

There have been 14 major international conferences convened by the United Nations during the 1990s and one in 2001:

<i>Conference</i>	<i>Venue</i>
World Summit for Children	New York 1990
World Conference on Education for All	Jomtein 1990
UN Conference on Environment and Development	Rio de Janeiro 1992
International Conference on Nutrition	Rome 1992
World Conference on Human Rights	Vienna 1993
International Conference on Population and Development	Cairo 1994
World Summit for Social Development	Copenhagen 1995
Fourth World Conference on Women	Beijing 1995
Ninth Congress on the Prevention of and Crime Treatment of Offenders	Cairo 1995
Second UN Conference on Human Settlements - Habitat II	Istanbul 1996
World Food Summit	Rome 1996
Ninth Session of the UNCTAD	Madrid 1996
UNGA - 20th Special Session on the World Drug Problem	New York 1998
Intergovernmental Conference on Cultural Policies	Stockholm 1998
UNGASS on HIV/AIDS	New York, 2001

See Annex 2B for indicators of Tuvalu’s progress in meeting the goals of these global conferences.

There are seven major international conventions or other legal instruments in force regarding human rights. These, and action by Tuvalu, are listed below:

<i>Instrument</i>	<i>Tuvalu Action</i>
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights	Signed
International Covenant on, Economic Social & Cultural Rights	None
Convention Against Torture	None
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination	None
Convention on the Rights of the Child	Ratified
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	Ratified
ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work	None (not ILO member)

Source: Details, and additional treaties, provided in Annex 2C

Population and Development; the Beijing Platform of Action; the World Summit Goals for Children, the Convention on Rights of the Child, the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the Pacific Platform of Action on Women. The main global conferences of the 1990s and key global conventions are described in Annex 2B and summarised in Box 2.1.²⁸

In September 2000, over 150 Heads of State and of Government met in New York for a Millennium Summit to negotiate a Millennium Declaration committing the United Nations to achieving ‘a just and lasting peace all over the world’ and rededicating the organisation to ‘respect for the equal rights of all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.’ The resulting Declaration affirms that ‘the equal rights and opportunities of women and men must be assured’; and states that ‘prudence must be shown in the management of all living species and natural resources, in accordance with the precepts of sustainable development.’ It calls on states to ‘promote gender equality and the empowerment of women as effective ways to combat poverty, hunger and disease and to stimulate development that is truly sustainable;’ ‘combat all forms of violence against women and to implement the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women;’ and ‘adopt in all our environmental actions a new ethic of conservation and stewardship.’

Tuvalu endorsed the declaration including a set of ‘Millennium Development Goals’ (MDGs) which include reductions in relative poverty, improvements in basic amenities, universal primary education, gender equality, improved maternal and child health, and environmental sustainability. Annex 2A lists the main MDGs, which have since become a key agenda item of the UN and a driving force of its reform process. The goals are time-based (achievement by 2015), measurable and ambitious. A preliminary estimate of the likelihood of attainment of the main MDGs by Tuvalu, and the state of the national supportive environment, is attached as Annex 2A. Results are summarised in Box 2.2, which shows that Tuvalu has already achieved several of the goals and suggests it is likely to achieve most others. There are a number of other global treaties of particular relevance to the Pacific Islands region including Tuvalu (e.g. the Kyoto Protocol on limiting greenhouse gas emissions; the Convention on the Law of the Sea) and several key regional agreements among members of the Pacific Islands Forum countries. These are mainly related to trade, environmental protection and fisheries management. Their status and Tuvalu’s involvement are summarised in Annex 2D.

Box 2.2 – The Millennium Goals and Tuvalu	
The status of achieving the goals in Tuvalu, by 2015 unless noted otherwise is summarised below. See Annex 2A for more details and an explanation.	
Global Goal	Will be Met in Tuvalu ?
	Probably Maybe Unlikely
Poverty. Halve the percentage of those in poverty *	√ Tuvalu experiences ‘relative’ poverty but little if any ‘extreme’ poverty
HIV/AIDS. Halt and reverse spread of HIV/AIDS & malaria *	√ No confirmed HIV/AIDS cases but HIV is likely. Tuvalu is malaria-free.
Hunger. Halve % of those under-weight (under 5 yrs olds) *	√ Some children are ‘malnourished’ but very few are underweight.
Water. Halve % of those without access to safe drinking water.	√ Urban migration may well stress water and sanitation in Funafuti.
Primary Education. Universal completion	√ Accomplished; unlikely to regress.
Gender. Equal male/female access to primary & secondary school (by 2005)	√ ? Equal access in primary school; higher female dropout rates at secondary school level
Maternal Health. Three-fourths drop in mortality ratio	√ Global goals already reached.
Child Mortality. Two-thirds drop in under-5 death rate	√ Global goals already reached.
Environment. Reverse environmental resource loss	√ Environ. strategy not integrated into national planning & decision-making.

* Tuvalu feels ‘extreme poverty’ should be replaced by ‘relative poverty’, child ‘hunger’ replaced by ‘malnutrition’, and ‘malaria’ dropped but tuberculosis and filariasis perhaps added.

Source: CCA / UNDAF in-country consultative meeting, Funafuti, 22-23 January 2002.

²⁸ There has been one notable global conference since then: The UN General Assembly Special Session (UNGASS) on HIV/AIDS held in New York in June 2001. Among the agreed goals is development and implementation of multisectoral national strategies and financing plans (by 2003), integration of HIV/AIDS policies into mainstream national development policies (by 2003), and reduction of HIV/AIDS among 15-24 year-olds in badly affected countries by 25% (by 2010).

2.4 UN Assistance to Tuvalu

A principal area of overall UN activity in Tuvalu has been health, a main concern of WHO, UNFPA, UNICEF and UNAIDS, but also, in its environmental aspects and development impacts, of UNDP. UNFPA has been active in reproductive health education activities. Other priority areas have been employment and livelihoods / life skills (UNDP and FAO) and the situation of women and children (UNICEF and UNIFEM). Formal education has been the concern of UNESCO but also of UNDP and UNICEF, which also support non-formal and community education. UNESCO supports youth programmes, cultural crafts and skills; educational training and seminars; and the EFL concept. UNICEF plays important roles in promotion of early childhood education, advocacy of child rights, and nutrition. Improving environmental management is a common concern as it relates to health (WHO, UNICEF) and the use of natural resources (UNDP, FAO). All UN agencies have to some extent assisted Tuvalu to understand and implement the plans of action that emerged from the international conventions of the 1990s, in particular commitments to combat poverty and improve the practice of human rights.

Most UN assistance has been directed to and through government ministries, even UNDP's private sector promotion activities. Almost all projects include a capacity-building component, a continual concern as there is a high turnover of trained and experienced civil servants, a constant outflow of qualified professionals, and too few qualified candidates to fill many of the gaps. Few NGOs have been directly involved in implementing assistance programmes, reflecting generally weak CSO/NGO capacity in Tuvalu and perhaps the reluctance of the government to allow a greater role for NGOs. The effectiveness of development assistance in general, particularly Tuvalu's very low capacity to absorb external assistance, has long been a concern of the government and the international community. The design of future UN interventions needs to take these more fully into account.

2.5 Selection of Principle CCA Themes and a Conceptual CCA Framework

The CCA attempts to assess the past socio-economic development performance, current challenges and opportunities to form a foundation for advocacy and dialogue, and to address them within an integrated development framework. For this purpose it is helpful to place the assessment in a broad conceptual framework as proposed below.

Key national development policies since Independence have aimed at creating the necessary environment for providing a decent life and basic services for all. These policies have largely been effective and have been retained by all Tuvalu governments to date. As a result, there has been a general improvement in key development indicators over time. It is apparent from the previous sections of this chapter that Tuvalu's national goals have been consistent with the international goals of development as recently articulated through the Millennium Development Goals and that past UN efforts have been consistent with both these national and global development priorities.

The principal themes of the last development plan or *Kakeega* remain valid as key objectives.²⁹ In this CCA, the guiding principle in the selection of themes – and specific issues under each theme – has been ‘people-centred development’ consistent with national and global goals. Every individual is regarded as both a contributor to and a beneficiary of development. Placing people at the centre necessitates an integrated approach to development with a focus on their rights and freedoms, broadly defined to include freedom from want and deprivation, right to basic services and right to a benign environment in addition to conventional human, civil and political rights. Assuring all such rights and freedoms is synonymous with development – something often overlooked in the rush for economic growth. Economic growth does not always imply economic development and economic development is only one part of

²⁹ CCA interview with Panapasi Nelesone, Secretary to Government, 26 October 2001. Recent budget statements also confirm this conclusion.

development. The rights-based, people-centred approach is thus the common thread running through the series of issues dealt with in the substantive chapters that follow, where the discussion is organised under the themes: society, governance, economy and basic needs, safety nets and the environment. The selection of CCA themes for Tuvalu was based on:

- consultations with the government (October 2001 in Funafuti; December 2001 in Suva and January 2002 in Funafuti), and consideration of government policy documents, on key development issues of concern to Tuvalu;
- discussions (as above) with civil society organisations, development agencies, and others familiar with Tuvalu;
- discussions with UN agencies on those key issues facing Tuvalu³⁰ which are within their mandate and could – or should – be addressed at least in part by the UN system;
- consideration of the major development goals and targets which have emerged from key global conferences and treaties over the past decade, particularly as expressed in the Millennium Summit of 2000;
- consideration of current UN assistance and the extent to which it addresses national development needs;
- attention to cross-cutting issues or themes (gender, environment, equity of access to services, and issues specific to atoll and island developing countries); and
- consideration of regional commitments entered into by Tuvalu through treaties or as articulated by the Pacific Islands Forum or other regional Action Plans endorsed by Tuvalu.³¹

The Common Country Assessment process does not attempt to assess the entire range of development concerns. Rather, it identifies key issues as a basis for advocacy, policy dialogue with the country and (in Tuvalu's case) simultaneous preparation of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). The UNDAF is a planning framework for the development operations of the UN system at the country level (a UN 'business plan' for Tuvalu) and includes common objectives; common strategies for assistance; a common timeframe for design, delivery and follow-up; and a framework for programme resources. Accordingly the CCA focuses mainly on those areas in which the UN might best assist Tuvalu with development. Two broad themes that have evolved from the process are:

- *Society, governance and the economy.* Chapter 3 deals with the ability of Tuvalu's systems of governance and public administration to develop and implement policies which lead to more sustained growth, more equitable distribution of the costs and benefits of development and a more just society in general.
- *Basic needs, safety nets and the environment.* Chapter 4 considers the provision of basic needs and development from a more sectoral perspective.

These above thematic areas are intimately interrelated and could as well be treated as a single overall theme of governance and the equitable distribution of the benefits and costs of development. Cross-cutting issues are considered in both chapters. These include gender and human rights, the challenges of adapting to globalisation, the difficulties posed by inadequate data and the vulnerability of small atoll states. The process of organising and carrying out the CCA is described in Annex 3. In brief, consultations were held with the government in October 2001, a draft CCA document was prepared in January 2002 and discussed with government and CSOs the same month, and this revised version was completed in late April 2002.

³⁰ During a CCA/UNDAF workshop held in Fiji from 12-14 November 2001, UN agencies developed an initial set of possible development issues to be covered for Tuvalu.

³¹ A good example is the *Consolidated Forum Economic Action Plan* (FEMM, 2001), which includes objectives to address economic governance, social impacts of economic and fiscal policies, globalisation, environment, gender, and improved data and statistics. It also includes the Forum's principles of accountability.

Conceptually, the framework for this document is built upon:

- The primacy of people-centred and equitable development;
- the recognition that Tuvalu has decided upon a development path based on closer integration with the regional and global economies, expanded and diversified trade, and a larger role for the private sector and civil society;
- the knowledge that, as a nation of tiny fragile atolls, Tuvalu cannot meet its development objectives without particular, and more effective, attention to protecting, conserving and managing its coasts, lagoons and marine environment;
- the understanding that reversing the widening service gaps between Funafuti and the rest of the country, and the resulting urbanisation of Funafuti, must be addressed if Tuvalu is to progress equitably;
- the appreciation that many of the constraints and opportunities facing Tuvalu can only be effectively addressed through cooperative action at the regional level;
- The need for well designed, pragmatic assistance which does not overwhelm the limited local administrative capacity but augments it (and includes mechanisms for effective monitoring); and
- the understanding that the UN system must work effectively and cooperatively with the wider donor community to address the issues facing Tuvalu.

CHAPTER 3 – SOCIETY, GOVERNANCE AND ECONOMY

3.1 The Constitution, Judiciary and Governance

Tuvalu is a constitutional monarchy with the British sovereign as Head of State, represented by a Governor-General, who must be a Tuvaluan citizen. The unicameral parliamentary system is based on the Westminster model, with free elections and a cabinet directly responsible to the parliament. Citizens aged 18 years and above freely and directly elect twelve members of Parliament whose normal term is four years. A six-person council, the *Kaupule*, is also elected to four-year terms by universal adult suffrage, to administer each of the country's nine atolls and manage revenue from a trust fund, the *Falekaupule Trust Fund* (FTF). A Freedom House Annual Survey³² assesses the degree to which people can participate in the political processes of their country. Few PICs are rated but interpolation from other countries suggests that Tuvalu would score within the top 25%,³³ a relatively good rating.

The Parliament consists of the elected members plus an outside Speaker chosen by its members. Parliament elects the Prime Minister, who selects up to four other MPs to form a Cabinet. There are no political parties. There have been seven Prime Ministers, one serving twice, since 1978 and regular turnover in the membership of Parliament with few members serving more than three terms. Recent volatility in Tuvalu's governments reflects a variety of pressures including the change from an exchange economy to a money economy, a system of government adapted from the former coloniser with little regard for local traditions of decision-making, the lack of a clearly articulated vision for Tuvalu's future, and the management of windfall income. Despite consistency since Independence in Tuvalu's stated development goals, no faction has obtained sufficient consensus to establish a clear sense of direction, consistent policy implementation or real continuity.

Tuvalu's government respects the human rights of its citizens, and society is generally egalitarian. The Constitution prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, creed, sex, or national origin, and the Government generally respects these prohibitions. Nonetheless, social behaviour, as determined by custom and tradition, is commonly considered by Tuvaluans to be as important as the law.³⁴ Village elders uphold custom and traditions, an arrangement that can lead to discrimination. For example, in the traditional outer islands culture, women occupy a subordinate role, with limits on job opportunities, whereas the law accords them equal rights with men. The Constitution forbids torture and degrading punishment and there have been no reported instances of such practices. Hereditary elders exercise considerable traditional authority, including the seldom-invoked right to inflict corporal punishment for infringing customary rules, a practice that can be at odds with national law.

The judicial system consists of the higher courts (the Privy Council in England, the Court of Appeal in Fiji, and the High Court) and the lower courts (the senior and resident magistrates, the island courts, and the land courts). The Chief Justice sits on the High Court once or twice a year. Strengthening the judiciary has been a priority of the government for some years, supported recently by a Regional Rights Resources Team.³⁵ The RRRT has emphasised increased human rights understanding and improved skills of key institutional players (e.g. judges, magistrates, police) and has had strong government support.

The right to a fair public trial is ensured by law and observed in practice. The Constitution provides that an accused person must be informed, in a language s/he understands, of the

³² The survey employs a political rights checklist to rate each country based on eight primary and (when needed) two supplementary questions. <<http://www.worldaudit.org/polrights.htm>>

³³ Tuvalu would rank between PNG which was 38th out of 148 and Australia (9th).

³⁴ This is changing slowly but exponentially. This review found no studies to indicate if the change is superficial (such as use of chainsaws to make customary canoes), or a result of the abandonment of traditional norms in favour of so-called "Western" norms of social behaviour (such as considering cash donations to the community as sufficient as physical participation in the community).

³⁵ The RRRT is UK-funded through UNDP.

nature of the offences with which s/he is charged and be provided time and facilities to prepare a defence. The rights to confront witnesses, present evidence and appeal convictions are provided by law, with procedural safeguards based on English common law. An independent people's lawyer is required by statute with services available to all citizens without charge. Some observers have expressed concern about frequent long delays before trials begin but these delays are generally no longer than in many PICs.

A 32-member police constabulary, the country's sole security force, is responsible to, and effectively controlled by, civilian authority. Prison facilities consist of several holding cells at the back of the Funafuti police station. There have been no serious crimes within the memory of local officials. It is rare for a prisoner to spend as long as a week in a cell; more commonly, a person is jailed overnight due to drunkenness. Although prison conditions (including food and sanitation) are somewhat spartan, complaints seem to be minimal or nonexistent. Since there are no local human rights groups, there is no outside monitoring of prison conditions. Visits by church groups and family members are permitted.

In the increasingly complex future, considerable information (important for adult education and better decision-making in general) will need to be available to the public. In Tuvalu regular dissemination of non-government information is limited. There are no private broadsheets (newspapers, newsletters and the like), radio, Internet chat sites, etc., within or outside Tuvalu for discussing events and trends within Tuvalu or exchanging information. Internet access is not subject to formal restrictions although SOPAC, which has supported ISP development in Tuvalu, does filter "spam."

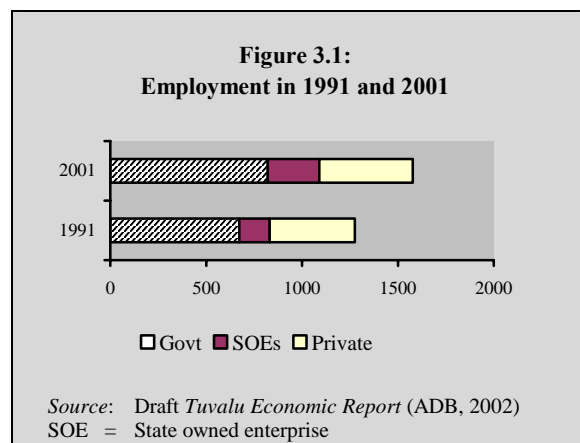
3.2 Employment, Wages and Industrial Relations

There has been no formal employment survey since the 1991 census. Up-to-date information on trends awaits analysis of the forthcoming 2002 census. However, reasonable estimates can be made from National Provident Fund data. About 30% of the 15-54 years age group are engaged in formal employment, the rest mostly involved in rural subsistence and livelihood activities. Cash employment (see Figure 3.1, which excludes 'unestablished' temporary staff)

grew from 1,276 in 1991 to 1,577 in 2001. Despite Tuvalu's goal of increased private sector employment, this has declined from about 35% to 31% of the total during the past decade.

Tuvalu is not a member of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) but workers are free to organise unions and choose their own labour representatives. The 1978 Industrial Relations Code provides for conciliation, arbitration, and settlement procedures in cases of labour disputes. Although there are provisions for collective bargaining, the practice in the private sector is for wages to be set by employers. The law provides for the right to strike, but no strike has ever been recorded. Legal procedures for resolving labour disputes are seldom used; the two sides normally deliberate without confrontation. There is only one trade union operating within Tuvalu, the Tuvalu Overseas Seamen's Union (TOSU) with about 600 members, all of whom work on foreign merchant vessels. TOSU is a member of the International Transportation Workers' Federation. Public sector workers (less than 900 including SOEs) are grouped into associations that do not have the status of unions.

The government establishes a minimum wage that is supposed to be sufficient for a worker and family to maintain a decent standard of living. The calculation includes an assumption that employees have some additional subsistence income, which is increasingly difficult to justify



as population pressures strain food and other resources. The two-weekly minimum wage in the public sector is US\$67.60 (A\$130), about US\$0.85/hour, regardless of sex and age. Generally the private sector adopts government salary scales. Wage rates for unskilled casual labour vary from 40 to 92 US cents per hour with 47¢ being typical.³⁶ Annual salary scales are as follows: higher managerial US\$9,281-9,983, managerial US\$6,506-\$9,015, technical US\$3,890-\$6,834 and clerical US\$1,841-\$4,308. The law provides for an eight-hour workday. Rudimentary health and safety standards require employers to provide an adequate potable water supply, basic sanitary facilities and medical care. Provisions also require protection of female workers. Recognising that the Ministry of Labour, Works, and Communications can provide only minimum enforcement of labour provisions, a proposed new Social Development Policy encourages other agencies to work with Labour in support of Labour's mandate.

3.3 Quality of Government and Public Administration

Common administrative characteristics of microstates, including Tuvalu,³⁷ can be summarised as follows:

- small staffing levels but multiple responsibilities are spread over numerous portfolios, leading to overextended personnel, little or no reserve capacity, difficulty in retaining local specialists, and limited promotion prospects and mobility;
- often there are limited financial resources, resulting in relatively low compensation levels and high rates of turnover;
- training tends to be infrequent and inappropriate, leading to poor management skills, limited problem-solving capacity, low levels of innovation and entrepreneurship, low adaptability to changing conditions, timid decision making, and excessive dependence on routine; and
- working environments are poor (not physical conditions *per se*, but overall environment, including nepotism) with lack of alternative opportunities outside the public sector, fostering low morale and motivation, low job satisfaction, low productivity, and high levels of frustration, absenteeism, and systemic uncertainty.

In Tuvalu, specific issues recently identified by the Tuvalu Trust Fund Advisory Committee (TTFAC) and the Asian Development Bank include the following:³⁸

- basic information management and record keeping are very weak with many incomplete and lost files;
- there have been no final audited government accounts presented to Parliament since 1995 and no annual reports from ministries since about the same time, and some corporate and island accounts have been unaudited since 1993;
- there is no current overall planning and policy framework (the public sector investment programme is just a long list of funding requests from ministries), key policy documents are often unavailable, and there is very limited planning capacity in the key ministries;
- the budget system (which is good in principle) is overly complicated with poor control over spending and lacks an internal audit system;
- state-owned enterprises and corporations (SOEs) are expanding but there has been no recent identification of issues and problems, guidelines for their performance are unclear and there are no formal agreements regarding the use of substantial subsidies (among other governance issues, undermining privatisation efforts); and
- roles and responsibilities of Ministers and ministries are often unclear.

³⁶ Pacific Islands Business Network, <<http://pidp.eastwestcenter.org/pibn/countries/tuvalu.htm>>

³⁷ See reports on public sector reform by Naisoro (October 2001) and Kofe (September 2001).

³⁸ See *First Half-Yearly Report of Tuvalu Trust Fund Advisory Committee* (April 2002) – and earlier TTFAC reports – and the forthcoming *Tuvalu Economic Report* (ADB, 2002, currently in initial draft form).

Transparent planning, policymaking and use of government financial resources are central to good governance. Although legislative debate is open to the public (and broadcast on radio), NGOs are active and there is a strong tradition of participation in decision making through the *maneapa* system, observers conclude that there is poor planning, inadequate financial control, a low quality of overall service delivery by the public sector, poor guidance by (and to) ministers, and very limited success in implementing public sector reform. Nonetheless, a 1998 AusAID study³⁹ concluded that “by any reasonable standard ... Tuvalu does not at present face a significant ‘governance’ problem. Its legislative, institutional and cultural framework is robust, its financial management is prudent, its public service is staffed at senior levels by well-qualified and professional officers, and the political and public service leadership is receptive to proposals for further strengthening public sector institutions, efficiency and accountability.” The ADB (2002), however, considers the absence of audited final government accounts for the past six years to be a fundamental governance issue requiring urgent official action (and external technical assistance); without these accounts, Parliament cannot assess whether the budget has actually been used as approved.

Booth⁴⁰ notes that public sector reform programmes are inherently challenging and resource-intensive, especially in the initial phases, and have a high failure rate globally. For Tuvalu, he argues that the reform programme has been too ambitious and Tuvalu’s capacity to implement it was never adequately considered. Others (Box 3.1) would add that a more effective system of governance for Tuvalu requires a better match between government institutions and the local culture.

Limited public sector capacity at central government level exacerbates the difficulties of providing basic services – education, health, social welfare, power, sanitation, roads, etc – to small, isolated, and widely dispersed outer-island populations, where far better planning and management capabilities are also needed. Effective use of the island councils’ recently established *Falekaupule Trust Fund* might benefit from participatory planning techniques developed in Vanuatu.⁴¹

Box 3.1 – Elements of Good Governance in Microstates

Research conducted during the past decade by Harvard University’s Kennedy School of Government on indigenous governance and economic development might prove useful in the design of more effective systems of governance. This study into development performance of the ‘islands’ of indigenous communities in a ‘sea’ of high level development (Native Americans in North America) found that appropriate systems of governance were crucial to socio-economic development: those nations which “build governing institutions capable of the effective exercise of sovereignty” were “most likely to achieve long-term, self-determined economic prosperity” that would “most effectively shape their own futures, instead of having those futures shaped by others.” For such peoples, attention to the systems that they use to govern their nation “is the only game in town.” The study concluded that effective systems of governance provided:

- stable institutions and policies;
- fair and effective dispute resolution;
- separation of politics from business management;
- a competent bureaucracy, and
- a cultural ‘match’ between governing institutions and the prevailing ideas – often unspoken and informal – within the community about how authority should be organised and exercised.

Good governance efforts in Tuvalu have generally dealt with the first four of these, which closely parallel the principles of good governance adopted by the Pacific Islands Forum Economic Ministers’ Meeting (FEMM). When (and if) they include the fifth element, a better ‘cultural match’ may result in public sector needs that are closer to Tuvalu’s capacities. The Harvard research could also prove useful for private sector economic development. More importantly, looking at all five elements could enable Tuvalu to be more successful (and active) in promoting a better balance between the development of communal services and the development of the private sector. In this regard, Tuvalu is not unlike its neighbours: most PICs have made little progress in developing their private sectors, including the privatisation of commercial activities owned and controlled by government.

Sources: Cornell, Stephen and Joseph P. Kalt; “Sovereignty and Nation-Building”; Udall Center Working Paper 99-3, Tucson; April 1999. Cornell, Stephen and Marta C. Gil-Swedberg; “Sociohistorical Factors in Institutional Efficacy”; *Economic Development & Cultural Change*; (43:2) 1995

³⁹ See *Tuvalu Scoping Study: Reform and Governance* (John Mellor for AusAID; 1998).

⁴⁰ See UNDP & AusAID, *Report on Workshops on Corporate Governance and Statutory Corporations in Tuvalu, June-September 2001* (prepared by Andrew Booth; November 2001).

⁴¹ See, for example Siwatibau, Suliana & Charles Kick (eds.), *A Manual For Trainers in the Pacific on Participatory Rural Appraisal (P.R.A.), An Initial Component for Community-Level Participatory Learning and Action (P.L.A.)*, Foundation for the Peoples of the South Pacific/Vanuatu, Port Vila, 1997.

3.4 Gender and Women in Development

As noted in Table 2.1, most statistics indicating the extent of gender disparities are a decade out of date; the 2002 census is expected to provide a wealth of information indicating progress since 1991. Nonetheless, Tuvalu has shifted towards more equal social, economic and political status between women and men. Tuvalu has ratified the *Convention on All Forms of Discrimination Against Women* (CEDAW), and signed the *Beijing Platform for Action* and the *Pacific Platform for Action*. Women's development efforts are concentrated within a Department of Women. However the Department and government as a whole have limited capacity for gender analysis and 'engendering' key aspects of life (e.g. within education curricula and schools, so that stereotyped roles for boys and girls might give way to more open choices by both). The Tuvalu National Council of Women (TNCW) has a demonstrated capacity in WID, and can be an effective advocate for women's equality, whereas the Department of Women has sufficient resources to attract and retain 'Gender in Development' (GID) expertise and to provide GID inputs into national planning and decision-making.

Women reportedly hold 46% of professional and technical jobs but only 16% of managerial and administrative positions.⁴² In 1994 (see Table 3.1), far fewer women were in wage employment than men, both on Funafuti and in the other islands. Education (discussed in the next chapter) is reasonably gender-balanced through secondary school. From 1991-2001, women received 45% of all overseas training scholarships.⁴³ As noted earlier, women in outer islands are traditionally subordinate; it is likely that full equality throughout the country may not be reached within the next decade. Nevertheless, Tuvalu ranks highest among the fifteen PICs assessed in 1999 in UNDP's Gender Development Ratio.⁴⁴

3.5 The Disadvantaged

Within the PIC region, the disadvantaged typically include children, women, youth (aged 15-24 years), the elderly, and those with physical disabilities. Within Tuvalu, outer island dwellers are disadvantaged due to remoteness from Funafuti and its services. Those who migrate to Funafuti also tend to be disadvantaged, as they usually lack secure access to land. Nearly 80% of Funafuti's population originates from other islands; 40% or more of whom have no secure land access. The extent of relative disadvantage of the outer islands (mostly 1994 data) is clearly illustrated in Table 3.1 in terms of employment, income, and educational attainment. (On the other hand, electric power was restricted mainly to Funafuti a decade ago but is available to all main villages throughout the country today.) As with much other data, reliable up-to-date comparisons should be available after the completion of this year's census.

Table 3.1: Relative Disadvantage of Tuvalu's Outer Islanders

Indicator		Funafuti	Other islands
<i>Population:</i> % of national total	(2001)	44%	56%
<i>Employment:</i> % in wage employment	male	59%	26%
	female	27%	8%
<i>Wages:</i> families earning over 50% of income from wages or salaries		59%	26%
<i>Income:</i> Gross household income	(A\$/week)	\$231	\$68
	Per capita income	(A\$/week)	\$33
<i>Household size:</i> (persons per household)		7.0	5.8
<i>Education level</i> (those aged 15 years & above): *	with university degree	2.9%	0.4-0.7%
	with diploma or certificate	18.6%	5%
	with some secondary school	46.6%	17-26%
<i>Key improvements for better quality of life:</i> (in order of priority from 2001 survey)	*	1 water	1 health
		2 health	1 education
		3 housing	3 water
<i>Implicit share:</i> Falekaupule Trust Fund ⁴⁵			
	(\$/capita; 2001)	\$2,357	\$1,128 ave.

Notes: 1994 except where noted. * varies by island

Sources: Report of 1994 Household Income & Expenditure Study (Govt of Tuvalu, 1998); Social & Economic Wellbeing Survey (Nimmo-Bell/ADB, 2001)

⁴² Kofe, S; *Tuvalu Progress Report Beijing +5*, Dept of Women's Affairs, 2000. The year is not specified.

⁴³ Source is ADB, 2002. According to the Office of the Prime Minister (pers. comm., Jan. 2002), of 86 Tuvaluans then overseas on in-service scholarships, 65 were male and 21 female. "However, a much higher percentage of female applicants receive awards than men. Women who apply tend to get scholarships."

⁴⁴ See *Pacific Human Development Report* (UNDP, 1999). The gender ratio is a compound measure incorporating relative gender performance in the human development and poverty indices. For each country, the male score = 100 by definition. For the 15 PICs, women's scores ranged from 78 to 107, with Tuvalu the highest at 107.

⁴⁵ Estimate from draft *Tuvalu Economic Report* (ADB, 2002)

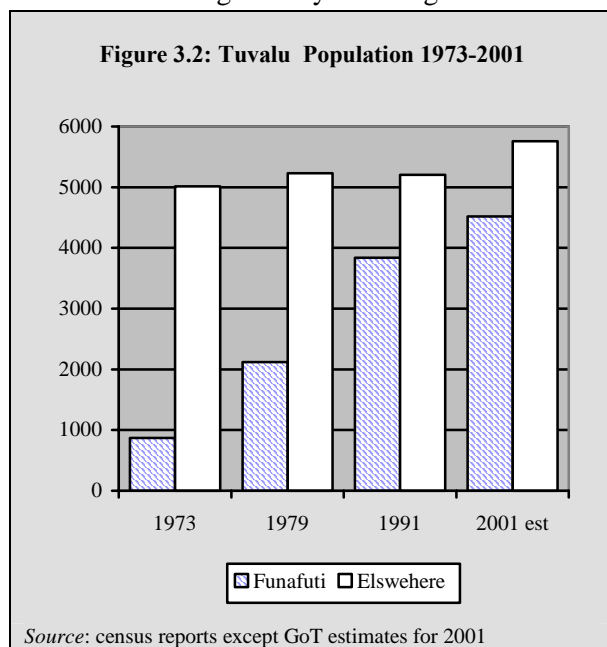
In 2001, a socio-economic survey was conducted of 505 households in Funafuti and all outer island groups, i.e. covering about 35% of all households. In two Funafuti villages (Table 3.1), respondents listed better water supply, health facilities and housing as the top priorities for improving their quality of life. In 13 outer island villages, the responses varied but broadly the priorities were health facilities, education and water supply (with better roads and jetties, agriculture and housing among the top three priorities in several villages).

One of the key objectives of the most recent development plan is a better balance of incomes and living standards in all island groups (and reduced migration to Funafuti) through increased autonomy and the provision of better services, opportunities and infrastructure to the islands. An island development programme – with projects designed and implemented by the island people themselves through a highly consultative process – was established in 1999 with much of the financial support to come through interest earned from the Falekaupule Trust Fund (FTF), which is managed by overseas investment groups. The FTF taps island and other financial resources⁴⁶ and the national government matched each island's contributions for a period until early 2000. The provision of better services to remote islands and a more equitable rural–urban income distribution are laudable goals but there is little evidence of success elsewhere in reducing urban migration through such programmes. Within Tuvalu, the FTF has been criticised because shareholding by island is proportional to each island's investment. On a per capita basis, adjusting outer island populations to account for their people resident on Funafuti, it appears (Table 3.1) that the people of Funafuti receive a much higher FTF share per capita than those of other islands.⁴⁷ *Rather than improve income equality and balance living standards, the Falekaupule Trust Fund may exacerbate current differences unless it is modified or supplemented by other approaches.*

Women were covered briefly in the previous section. There is little information on the extent of disadvantage of Tuvalu's children, the elderly and the disabled. The elderly proportion of Tuvalu's population is expected to increase only slightly over the next two decades suggesting that special provisions for them may be no more (or less) urgent than now. The draft Social Development Policy⁴⁸ discourages the development of mechanisms for the elderly beyond traditional family support. Data on those with disabilities is fragmentary. Although there are no special support services within Tuvalu for the disabled, the Tuvalu Red Cross Society (TRCS) and the Ministry of Health try to assist those with noticeable and severe difficulties. TRCS and the MoH have nascent links with service and support organisations in Fiji for back-up. There has been no systematic assessment of disabilities within Tuvalu but this is a high priority within the new Social Development Policy.

3.6 Population, Urbanisation and Migration

Tuvalu's population has grown from only 5,887 in 1973 to about 10,300 in 2001. As Figure 3.2 shows, Funafuti has increased from under 15% of national population in

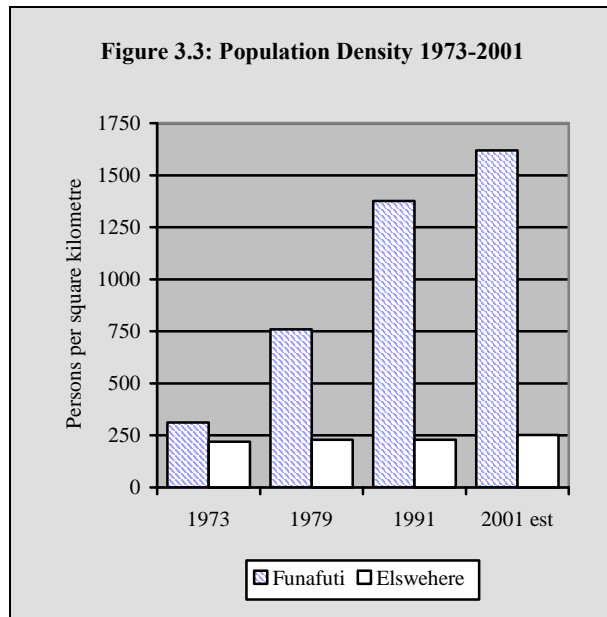


⁴⁶ The value of the fund in late 2001 was nearly \$16 million supported by the Government of Tuvalu (50% of value), ADB (40%) and the islands (10%). Source: *Tuvalu Economic Report* (draft, ADB, April 2002).

⁴⁷ The ADB (draft 2002 economic report) estimates per capita FTF share per island as follows in declining order: Funafuti \$2357, Nukulaelae \$1885, Vaitupu \$1212, Niutao \$1105, Nukufetau \$1090, Nui \$986, Nanumanga \$925 and Nanumea \$695.

⁴⁸ Manuella, Teuleala; *A First Social Development Policy For Tuvalu* (version 7.1, final draft, Ministry of Local Government, Women & Youth, 31 October 2001).

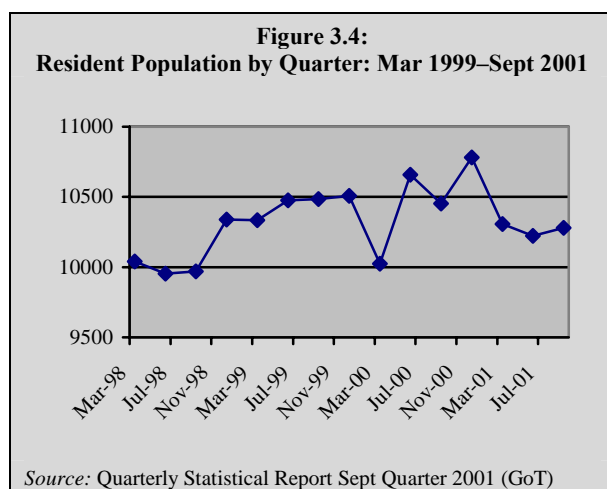
1973 to about 44% today. While Funafuti has grown at an average annual rate of 6.1% during the past 28 years, population in the rest of the country has been relatively static, increasing at less than 0.5% per year. Figures 3.2 and 3.3 illustrate dramatically the main population issue facing Tuvalu: the rapidly increasing dominance of Funafuti with nearly half of the country's population living on barely 10% of all land area. This has led to unresolved development issues including growing social pressures (e.g. the 22% of Funafuti's population who originate in Funafuti own and control all of the atoll's land) and environmental pressures on Funafuti atoll (e.g. poorly planned land use and growing volumes of solid waste). Long-standing disagreements over access to Funafuti land for government (and other) uses have worsened with population pressures, reopening old discussions about possibly shifting the entire capital or some government functions to other islands.



Population density in Funafuti (Figure 3.3) has increased from 312 people per square kilometre in 1979 to 1620 now. For the rest of Tuvalu, density has barely changed from 220/km² to 250/km² over the same period. As noted earlier, although the above trends are clear, claimed population trends can be misleading for a very small country with a highly mobile population unless the time periods are chosen carefully. This is illustrated in Figure 3.4 below, showing a modest upward trend but considerable quarterly variation in Tuvalu's resident population.

Demographic changes over the next 20 years will affect Tuvalu's age mix, gender ratio and population growth rate. Tuvalu's draft Social Development Policy assumes the projections of Scenario 2 of SPC's Tuvalu Population Profile:⁴⁹ continued high (but declining) fertility, increasing life expectancy and decreasing migration to a net rate of zero in 2006. Although these expectations concerning migration may be optimistic (emigrants may not be balanced by returning citizens), the implications are that the primary school age population proportion will decrease slightly until 2006, while the proportion of the secondary school age population will remain steady. The proportion of young people (0-14 years) will decrease by about 5% (from 34% to 29%) while the working age population (aged 15-64) will increase from 61% to 65% of the total and the elderly (those aged 65 and over) will increase by about half a percent.

On the surface, this seems positive: the net result of the projected increase in working age population is a reduction in the dependency ratio to 54.5 by 2006; a ten percentage points decline, i.e. the proportion of those dependent on the incomes or resources of others for support would be lower than today. However, a larger working age population also means increased demand for work, whether in the cash economy or in the mixed traditional-cash economy. If productive employment grows too slowly, the effective rate of



⁴⁹ SPC, *Tuvalu Population Profile*, Noumea, 1998.

dependency would be higher and there would be increasing pressures for employment-related migration. Tuvalu needs to encourage the creation and growth of sustainable livelihoods with workers earning enough to satisfy basic needs and contribute to meeting the needs of others.

3.7 Economic Growth and Stability

National economic data for Tuvalu are summarised in Table 3.2. Tuvalu uses the Australian dollar as its national currency. From 1995-2000, GDP grew at an average annual rate of 8%, considerably less in US dollar terms as the Australian dollar steadily lost value. The ADB estimated 4% growth in 2001 and projects 3% for 2002 and 2003. National accounts are not prepared; this creates widely varying perceptions of Tuvalu's economy, investment needs and capacities among some observers.⁵⁰

Table 3.2: Tuvalu Economic Data, 1995 - 2002

Economic Measure	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001 est	2002 est
GDP at current prices (A\$'000)	15,869	16,998	18,670	22,045	22,706	23,388	24,323	25,053
GDP per capita (A\$)	1,669	1,765	1,903	2,194	2,216	2,260	2,283	2,306
Population (^000)	9.5	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.3	10.5	n/a	n/a
Consumer price index (Nov '83=100)	159.0	159.0	161.5	162.5	173.8	n/a	n/a	n/a
Consumer price inflation (avg.; %)	5.0	0.0	1.4	0.8	1.0	5.3%	1.8%	1.5%
Exports fob (A\$'000)	189	361	373	67a	2,108	1,363	n/a	n/a
Imports fob (A\$'000)	-6,562	-5,999	-8,144	11,408	16,461	23,6130	n/a	n/a
Trade balance (A \$'000)	-6,373	-5,638	-7,770	-11,341	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Current-account balance (A \$'000)	744	447	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Current account balance (% of GDP)	4.7	2.7	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Exchange rate (average; A\$ per US\$)	1.349	1.278	1.347	1.592	1.6	1.7	1.9	n/a

Note: Australian dollars except where noted; 1999 and 2000 trade data are 'direction of trade' and 'total' figures.

Sources: *Key Indicators of Developing Asian & Pacific Countries* (ADB, 2001) for 1995-1998. 1999-2002 and revisions of some earlier data were calculated from *Asian Development Outlook* (ADB, April 2002)

GNP and gross national disposable income have been substantially larger than GDP because of net inflows of income from Tuvaluans working overseas (many as merchant seamen), income from overseas assets and transfers from abroad. Merchandise exports (copra, stamps and handicrafts) are small with the trade deficit covered by net private transfers, license fees for fisheries and telecommunications, revenue from use of its ".tv" Internet domain name and aid.

Tuvalu's natural resources are extremely limited. The copra crop is vulnerable to the weather: cyclones devastate the palm trees about every three years. Income from copra exports in the 1990s was only 10% of the level of the 1980s. Overseas employment of Tuvaluan seafarers contributes about US\$5 million annually to the Tuvalu economy. The manufacturing sector is tiny, consisting mainly of handicraft and garment production. There is little tourism and no mining.

Tuvalu's commercial fisheries catch was worth

Box 3.2 – The Tuvalu Trust Fund

The TTF was established in 1987 to assist the Government of Tuvalu (GoT) achieve more financial autonomy in its recurrent budget, maintain and perhaps improve social infrastructure and services, improve absorptive capacity, enable the GoT to meet maintenance and operating costs of social infrastructure and services, and assist the development of Tuvalu's economy. Contributions have come from the governments of Tuvalu, Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. Two overseas investment companies manage assets; and an advisory committee (TTFAC) advises the TTF board and GoT on fund drawdowns and a range of budgetary, economic and financial matters.

The initial capital fund was A\$26.4 million, growing to a market value of nearly A\$70m in early 2002. The distribution of TTF funds to the GoT for public expenditures is based on a formula that maintains capital value; revenue each year is not automatic. The TTF has contributed an average of \$4m, some 10-12% of the government budget, each year since 1990 peaking at about \$11m. Future returns are expected to drop below historical trends.

Sources: ADB, 2002 & TTFAC reports, 2001 & 2002

⁵⁰ The ADB indicates 1998 GDP as A\$2194 per capita (US\$1378), whereas the UN reported US\$1215. In 2000, a CNN report indicated US\$967 (placing Tuvalu 68th among 191 countries) but ADB estimated US\$1329, 37% higher. The CNN source is <http://www.cnn.com/WORLD/global.rankings/> from late 2001.

only US\$0.1m in 1998 compared to US\$0.7m from subsistence fishing⁵¹ (valued at prevailing market prices), the latter equivalent to about 6.5% of GDP. Other studies have estimated that the fisheries sector contributes 4.9% of Tuvalu's GDP, and accounts for 5.3% of formal employment. The subsistence fishery is much more widespread and involves the participation of virtually all households in the country. Revenue from license fees for foreign ships fishing within Tuvalu's EEZ for tuna have steadily increased from about A\$0.4m in 1990 to \$9.5m in 1999 and 2000, to an all-time high of \$11.8m (50% of recurrent revenue) in 2001. Although fishing licence earnings have been strong for the past four years, the catch and revenue are vulnerable to climatic changes, particularly the El Niño effect, and could well decline in the near future

From 1996 to 1998, revenue from telecommunications licenses averaged over A\$2m per year, declining to A\$0.9m in 1999, A\$0.4m in 2000; and projected to be only \$0.2m by 2003.⁵² Foreign development assistance is significant, recently A\$8-10m per year or over 1/3 of GDP. There are also several unusual sources of government revenue, particularly the Tuvalu Trust Fund or TTF (Box 3.2, the first such development assistance trust fund in the Pacific) and rights to use Tuvalu's top-level Internet domain name, ".tv" described in Box 3.3. Both are very significant but variable revenue sources.

In the past Tuvalu has followed a policy of fiscal restraint, accumulating a series of budget surpluses over most of the last decade. Each year, the GoT invested significant amounts in the TTF and is now its largest contributor in cumulative terms. Government policy is to keep the national budget within a sustainable level, maintaining the real value of the TTF, and using distributed returns for capital expenditures. However, a comfortable financial position during the past several years (with considerable windfall revenue from Dot TV) has led to unsustainable budget levels. Three key revenue items (fisheries licences, TTF and Dot TV) are subject to external influences which can cause significant fluctuations in their performance. There needs to be closer attention to future budgets, ensuring that they are based on realistic and prudent revenue assumptions from these sources.

3.8 Infrastructure

Tuvalu is likely to require considerably improved infrastructure to respond to the challenges social and economic development (and the anticipated effects of global climate change and sea level rise). The maintenance of frequent, reliable and regular air services between Tuvalu, Fiji and Kiribati is a priority. Tuvalu's few roads cater to an increasing number of vehicles designed mainly for other conditions. Shipping service to Tuvalu is only every two to four weeks. Tuvalu has one small freighter and occasional *ad hoc* use of fisheries

Box 3.3 – DotTV

In the early 1980s a top-level Internet domain name code was assigned to each country by the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority. In 1999, the Government of Tuvalu signed a contract with US-based DotTV to market and manage its ".tv" domain name. The GoT received five quarterly payments of US\$1m plus a one-off payment of US\$12.5m after the principal investor, Idealabs Inc. exercised a call option. In late 2000, the GoT arranged with DotTV to forego three quarterly payments in order to acquire US\$3m of preferred stock. In December 2001, Dot TV was purchased by VeriSign, Inc., the domain administrator for ".com". Tuvalu's share was a lump sum payment of about US\$10m. The current contract with VeriSign provides Tuvalu with about US\$2.2m per annum plus 5% of all revenue exceeding US\$20m per year for 15 years, after which ".tv" reverts to Tuvalu. This future income flow assumes that VeriSign can honour the agreement; on a single day recently – 26 April 2001 – the company reportedly lost 46% of its value.

Sources: First Half-yearly Report (TTAC, Apr. 2002); draft Tuvalu Economic Report (ADB, 2002); Slate magazine (27 Apr. 2002)



Upgraded road on Funafuti
(photograph by Charles G. Kick, III, 2001)

⁵¹ FAO, *Fishery Country Profile*, FID/CP/TUV, Rev. 1, Feb. 1998, <<http://www.fao.org/fi/fcp/tuvalu.asp>>.

⁵² Sources are the 2001 *Budget Speech* and April 2002 report of the TTAC.

boats for inter-island travel. Tuvalu's land transportation infrastructure comprises only 28 km of gravel roads (of which 19 km on Funafuti are being tar-sealed) and an unknown, but rapidly growing, number of vehicles that use them.

From 1998-2000, Tuvalu's electricity consumption increased 6% per year. Diesel generating capacity is expanding to meet expected future growth, which is exacerbated, particularly away from Funafuti, by heavy subsidies.⁵³ There is considerable waste in electricity use (e.g. air-conditioning in poorly designed buildings) with opportunities to reduce growth at little cost through improved energy efficiency. Poor experiences with small diesel power, high costs, a low rate of outer-island electrification, a desire to reduce petroleum imports, and ample sunshine led Tuvalu to install solar photovoltaic (PV) systems for rural (outer island) electrification from the mid-1980s. By the mid-1990s, the Tuvalu Solar Electric Cooperative Society (TSECS) had provided reliable PV-based electricity, mainly for lighting, to nearly 50% of all outer island households and eight community meeting centres or *maneabas*. Half of all vaccine refrigerators in outer island dispensaries were solar powered. Despite some technical problems, the high collection rate of fees and a paid-up waiting list for new installations indicated that customers were generally satisfied. Primarily because of poor management, most systems fell into disuse and were eventually replaced with diesel systems. However, there is renewed interest in Tuvalu in PV electrification⁵⁴, which is likely to be financially viable in the outer islands if compared to true costs.

Although the GoT receives considerable revenue from its ".tv" Internet domain name, the development of information technology (IT) infrastructure within

Table 3.3: Information Technology Indicators

Year	Internet Hosts	Internet Users	Estimated PCs	Telephone Lines	Mobile phones	TV	Cable TV subscribers
1990	0	-	-	1.3	0	-	0
1999	0	-	-	5.5	0	-	0

Note: Indicators are % of population; *Source:* ILO⁵⁵ (website updated 23 Jan. 2001)

the country has been slow, as indicated in Table 3.3 (which does not reflect Tuvalu's Internet host "tuvalu.tv" or the hundreds of Tuvaluans who now use the Internet at least twice a month). IT is in its infancy with tuvalu.tv out of service for extended periods during 2001. These lengthy breakdowns result in part from two of Tuvalu's key development constraints: limited technical capacity (in this case, few hardware/software specialists and suppliers) and remoteness (which adds greatly to the time needed for diagnosis, parts and service).

Increased international trade and tourism require reasonable aviation infrastructure; the GoT is considering a second airport on another island.⁵⁶ Although Tuvalu receives perhaps one tourist a day, it could serve several times that number. Funafuti's Vaiaku Lagi Hotel meets the needs of most international tourists adequately. However, as argued in ADB's 1997 Economic Report, 'capturing' tourists requires more than this. Marketing the country as a tourism destination may need, in addition to training in marketing, training in hosting visitors at outer island *maneabas* ... and in linking the management of such outer island venues ... so that tourists might arrange a one or two week tour to Tuvalu that includes several communities.

⁵³ Growth data provided by Tuvalu Electricity Corporation. The current explicit subsidy to TEC is A\$1.2m (TTFAC report of April 2002) but it may be more.

⁵⁴ Source is discussions of the January 2002 CCA/UNDAF workshop held in Funafuti.

⁵⁵ <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/support/publ/wer/tables/tab1_pol.htm#Tuva>

⁵⁶ Still-developing ground-effect technology (using a mix of aviation, marine and automotive technologies to achieve cruising speeds of around 170 kph) could obviate the need to allocate land for another airport and be attractive for tourists. See, for example, <http://www.flightship.net/products/fs8/index.asp>.

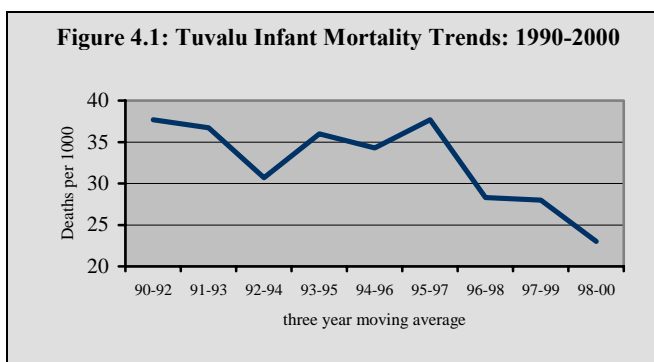
CHAPTER 4 – BASIC NEEDS, SAFETY NETS AND THE ENVIRONMENT

4.1 Health

The goals of the Ministry of Health (MoH) are to prevent, cure and, where possible, eradicate disease through a high-quality health service. Medical care is free for all citizens and there are no private medical practitioners. The government plans to develop a new national health policy in 2002, emphasising improved curative care to reduce the need for overseas treatment in Fiji and elsewhere. Some elements of a user-pays system may be introduced as part of the new policy. The ADB⁵⁷ warns that, despite a heavy demand for curative services in Tuvalu, public and preventative health measures are more cost-effective and Tuvalu would more appropriately focus on lifestyle diseases. As noted elsewhere in this report, reliable up-to-date data tend to be scarce. Although the government has been developing an improved health information system, health statistics are still relatively undeveloped.

At Independence in 1978, Tuvalu hoped to establish high quality health facilities in all outer islands but this was unaffordable so resources were concentrated in a single national facility, the Princess Margaret Hospital (PMH) in Funafuti. Eighteen years later, PMH was in disrepair⁵⁸ but still provided better medical care than that available at Independence. In late 2002, the Japanese government will begin a major renovation of PMH.⁵⁹ Health services on the outer islands remain inadequate: most islands have no permanently posted doctor, medical visits are infrequent and some health clinics need to be upgraded.

Nonetheless, Tuvalu has reduced its infant mortality rate from nearly 44 per 1,000 live births in 1990 to just 13 in 2000.⁶⁰ However, for very small populations, a moving average is more indicative of meaningful trends than data for single years. On this the latter (Figure 4.1), infant mortality has dropped by nearly half over the past decade to levels comparable to many middle-income developing countries.



Tuvalu has already attained at least five of seven ICPD goals for 2005;⁶¹ although maternal mortality is rare and maternal mortality rates have been also declining, they may still exceed the ICPD 'threshold.' For 2000 (WHO estimates from MoH data), the birth rate is 21.8 per 1000 population, total fertility rate 3.1 children born per woman and life expectancy at birth 66.3 years (men 64.1, up from 57 in 1990; women 68.5 from 60). Overall, the people of Tuvalu have a reasonable standard of health compared to other lower-middle income countries.

Acute respiratory infection was the most commonly illness in 2000 among 'notifiable' illnesses, accounting for 50% of all complaints followed by diarrhoea (36%), conjunctivitis (10%) and fish poisoning (1%). As shown in Figure 4.2, respiratory infection cases have dropped from over 5000 in 1993 to under 1900 in 2000, diarrhoea from nearly 2000 cases in 1990 to under 1400, conjunctivitis from 675 to about 400 and fish poisoning from 153-174 cases in the early 1990s to about 35 per year since 1998. Various cardiac and vascular diseases are the main recorded cause of death with the catch-all 'senility'⁶² reported as the second leading cause.

⁵⁷ Draft Tuvalu Economic Report (2002).

⁵⁸ Michael Field, op. cit.

⁵⁹ <<http://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/oda/note/grant.html>>

⁶⁰ Except where noted, health data are from the Ministry of Health in early 2002.

⁶¹ See *UNFPA Country Brief for Tuvalu* (prepared by Laurie Lewis; June 2001). ICPD = International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994).

⁶² Personal communication from WHO <MACADANGDANGH@wpro.who.int>, 20 November 2001.

Although there are low levels of some infectious and communicable diseases, they are under control (Table 4.1). Concerns include new tuberculosis cases in 2000 despite an active TB programme. There were four confirmed cases of typhoid fever at Motufoua High School in 2000-01 due to poor hygiene and sanitation, and possibly new cases in 2002. No cases of filariasis have been reported since 1993 but microfilariae has increased (Fig. 4.3) and may approach 50% on some islands as a result of which mass drug administration began in 2000. Recorded cases of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are low but under-reporting is likely. Although only one case of HIV has been recorded, overseas workers (especially sailors) are at high risk. The control of infectious and communicable diseases can be attributed to an effective primary health care system with basic health care (including essential drugs) available to all Tuvaluans. In 2000, the MoH reports 100% immunisation coverage for BCG, 95% for OPV3, 90% for DTP3 and 85% for Hepatitis B.

Figure 4.2: Main Notifiable Illnesses from 1990-2000

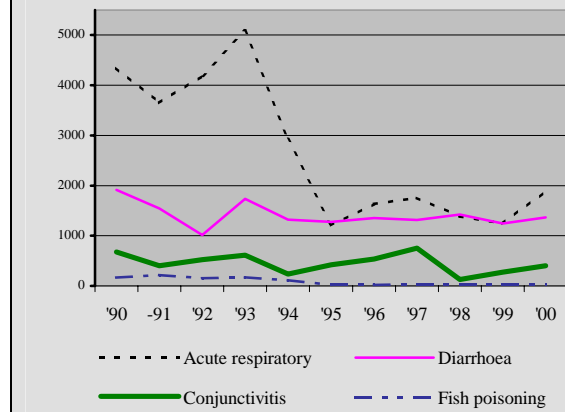
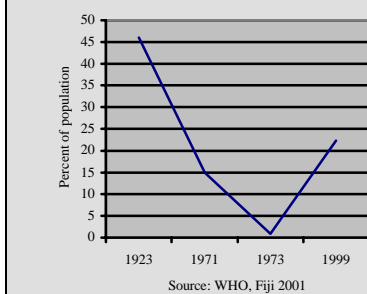


Figure 4.3: Positive Tests for Microfilia



There are downward pressures on Tuvaluan health from non-communicable diseases (NCDs). Although there has been no national survey of the incidence and prevalence of NCDs, medical staff report increasing obesity, cardiovascular disease, asthma and cancer. Diabetes, which limits the body's ability to properly absorb sugars and starches, is increasing on Funafuti.⁶³ As elsewhere in the Pacific, the rising incidence of 'lifestyle' diseases is attributable to excess food consumption; a shift from traditional diets to imported low-fibre food high in refined carbohydrates, fat and salt; greater consumption of alcohol and tobacco; and insufficient physical exercise.

4.2 Food Security and Nutrition

According to the draft Social Development Policy (2001), Tuvalu imports most of its food. Locally grown foods probably remain the major source of nutrients in the outer islands; in Funafuti imported foods probably now dominate due to higher cash incomes, poor soils, difficult land access, and the atoll's burgeoning population. Local food production is believed to be static whereas imports of food items have more than doubled in the past decade and imports of sugar doubled in only four years, 1992-95. Doctors report a correlation between processed sugars consumption and diabetes.

Table 4.1 Trends in Reported illnesses 1995-2000

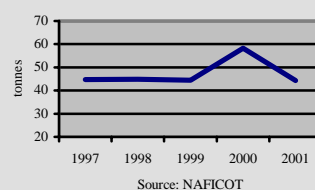
Illness	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Filarial Fever	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hepatitis	0	2	1	6	5	9
Dengue	0	0	0	2	0	0
Gonorrhoea	6	2	1	0	2	2
Syphilis	1	0	0	0	0	0
PTB	9	7	10	9	11	7
TB	13	1	1	1	1	7
Cholera	0	0	0	0	0	0
Meningitis	0	1	0	3	0	0
Chickenpox	60	0	0	0	0	0
Dysentery	11	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Tuvalu MoH, 2002

⁶³ Tuvalu Strategic Country Plan, MoH, Funafuti, 2001 reports that 2000 & 2001 surveys by Australian medical teams found the incidence of diabetes higher on Funafuti in 2001 than in 2000. There is also evidence of diabetes on outer-islands. A 2002-3 national diabetes survey will enable the Ministry to plan responses and provide outer-islands medical staff and communities with information to reduce the occurrence of diabetes.

Tuvalu is not a member of the FAO but the ADB⁶⁴ has estimated fish (Tuvalu's principal source of protein) production at some 0.6 kg per person per day, with over three-quarters of all households engaging in subsistence fishing. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the effort spent fishing is yielding less than in the past but commercial fish production from Funafuti atoll (Figure 4.4) has remained relatively steady in recent years. On balance, Tuvalu's nutrition is probably declining as the quantity of food consumed increases. Effectively addressing this will require improved education for schools and communities on nutrition, on the benefits and operation of small-holder gardens (atoll farming systems) and on food marketing. Such initiatives require little hardware but good design, provision of extension services to households, and development and improved management of infrastructure to facilitate the marketing (including transport) of production that is excess to the producers' household needs.

Figure 4.4:
Funafuti Atoll Fish Production



4.3 Shelter, Water Supply and Sanitation

Shelter. Housing in Tuvalu is generally as good as, or better than, that found elsewhere in the Pacific, although many small Funafuti homes are overcrowded (8 people per household⁶⁵ compared to 5-6 elsewhere) as they host friends and relatives from other islands. Severe damage from Cyclone Bebe in 1972 led to improved construction standards, which remain in place. However, in Funafuti temporary squatter-type housing is increasing, especially near the 'borrow pits'⁶⁶ north of the airport, which collect rubbish and faecal contamination from piggeries. Inadequate housing and crowding suggest higher risk of disease for people living there.



Representative Housing on Funafuti
(photograph by Charles G. Kick, III, 2001)

Water. Generally, all Tuvaluans have access to potable water although it often requires boiling. Ground water from wells is very limited and is brackish and there are no rivers or lakes. Water is usually obtained from roofs by catching rainwater (85% of households have private water tanks). Although rainfall is heavy, averaging 3 metres annually overall and 3.8m in Funafuti,⁶⁷ households often run out of water even during normal weather because of poorly maintained systems and tanks. According to the TTFAC (April 2002), "rain is not collected, stored and distributed in accordance with any coherent strategy. ... In 1995 a comprehensive master plan was prepared by the [public works department] ... and submitted to the Government, but it apparently found no support at political level. ... The issue of water supply on Funafuti will have to be given a high profile and dealt with comprehensively if real improvements are to be made. The position appears to be somewhat better on other islands, but there too the situation needs assessment and planning for improvement. A single planning and management structure, accountable to the Government and Parliament, is needed" The

⁶⁴ ADB, *Tuvalu 1997 Economic Report*, Pacific Study Series, ADB, Manila, 1998

⁶⁵ A 'census pre-test' sample for Funafuti in Nov. 2001 indicated 4518 people in 581 households or 7.8/hh. See *Census Pre-test Results of Populations and Households for Funafuti* (Central Statistics Division, 7 Jan 2002)

⁶⁶ Soil and fill material was 'borrowed' from the northern and southern ends of Fongafale Island in Funafuti during WW2 to fill the lagoon at Vaiaku to build a long enough runway. See the bathymetric map on page ii.

⁶⁷ Rainfall is also fairly well distributed throughout the year. In the relatively 'dry' year of 2001 with 2.73 m of rain, monthly rainfall was never less than 157 mm or more than 315 mm. (pers com, Niko Iona, Tuvalu Meteorological Service, 21 January 2002)

committee recommended an updated master plan for fresh water collection, storage and distribution, including allocation of executive responsibility and the financial and other resources to implement it.

Wastes. In 1998, the South Pacific Regional Environment Programme (SPREP) surveyed Tuvalu for sites containing unwanted Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs), hazardous organic chemicals which remain in the environment for a long time, accumulate in living tissue, and can cause serious health problems. Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) from old power transformers, for example, can cause cancers. Table 4.2 summarises findings. Four POP-contaminated sites were found on Funafuti the power station, PWD depot, agriculture department and hospital. It is not known how much of this has been removed or treated or whether additional POPs resulted from recent road upgrading. There is no legislation to ban imports of hazardous wastes or control their disposal. Medical and other hazardous wastes are burned in the open.

Table 4.2: POPs in Funafuti, 1998

Item	Quantity
Agricultural chemicals	Nil
Oil with possible PCBs	8000 l
Waste bitumen (litres)	60,000 l
Waste oil (litres)	Over 1500 l
Contaminated sites	4

Source: SPREP, 2000

Note: Quantities shown are conservative



Rubbish tip on Funafuti alongside borrow pit
(Photograph courtesy Charles G. Kick, III; 2001)

Household and small business waste production has become a significant problem in Funafuti. Solid wastes are collected from about half of Funafuti households, with much waste simply dumped at various sites with no controlled landfilling. An innovative and comprehensive three-year AusAID-funded waste management project⁶⁸ at the GoT's Environment Unit has educated the public on waste issues, established a dedicated landfill, begun composting vegetable waste, and plans to control piggery and medical wastes. However, it is approaching completion with no firm agreement on future institutional responsibility for waste management on Funafuti.

Most households in Funafuti, and increasing numbers of households in outer islands employ improved privies rather than the beach as in the past. The impact of these on the water quality of lagoons is unknown, although anecdotal reports describe the waters near the hospital as being unsafe. Many of the improved privies are water-sealed, limiting their effectiveness in times of drought. It is not known what other designs might be appropriate in Tuvalu, e.g., a dry ventilated improved privy which has been suggested.⁶⁹

Urbanisation. Tuvalu is one of the most urbanised nations of the Pacific⁷⁰ and Funafuti was reportedly the world's most rapidly urbanising area between 1950 and 2000 with some estimates suggesting 51% urbanisation already and projections of 61% by 2010.⁷¹ If accurate, Funafuti would have a population of around 9,000 within eight years. Funafuti is not overcrowded in global terms, but within Tuvalu's current and historical traditions, it is. Key amongst these traditions (as throughout the Pacific) is land. A fourth or so of Funafuti's land

⁶⁸ See *Report of Tuvalu Waste Management Project Mid Term Review* (draft, July 2001)

⁶⁹ Personal communication, Homasi to Kick, 29 October 2001.

⁷⁰ World Bank, *Regional Economic Report 2000*, Washington, 2000; Chapter 2
<[http://Inweb18.worldbank.org/eap/eap.nsf/Attachments/Volume+1+Chapter+2/\\$File/Chapter+2.pdf](http://Inweb18.worldbank.org/eap/eap.nsf/Attachments/Volume+1+Chapter+2/$File/Chapter+2.pdf)>

⁷¹ Lewis, Laurie, *Country Brief: Tuvalu*, a working paper prepared for UNFPA, June 2001 and United Nations/DESA, *World Urbanization Prospects: the 1999 Revision*, New York, 2001.
<<http://www.un.org/esa/population/pubsarchive/urbanization/urbanization.pdf>>

area is protected (such as in conservation areas) and not available for habitation. All land is owned communally by families who were settled on Funafuti when it was colonised, although some land has been alienated (e.g., to government).⁷² Land use agreements are not standardised, nor are procedures for recording agreements. Leases are often verbal, leaving tenants vulnerable to removal. Nonetheless, assuming that current land grievances are resolved, Funafuti appears to have sufficient land for its current population. Although Funafuti's growth has been dramatic, numbers are still small relative to available techniques for water supply management, waste management, urban gardening,⁷³ building construction, etc. That is not to say that technological responses to Tuvalu's urbanisation will be easy or sufficient, but that they exist and can be effective, particularly if future growth is quickly addressed and reduced. It is socio-cultural, political, and administrative systems that will determine how effectively Tuvalu responds. Efforts to help Funafuti improve its urban environment will require community education, participatory planning and community participation in implementation and management.

4.4 Human Resource Development (HRD)

Although most HRD plans and initiatives in Tuvalu focus on formal education, there is increasing awareness of the need to more effectively plan for other forms of education such as university extension and trades training, early childhood education (ECE), non-formal community training and adult education. The draft Social Development Policy recognises the need to include constructive skills, primarily traditional crafts and arts. It considers increased parental involvement in education – particularly ECE and primary levels – as vital for bringing out the best in students. The key reason for parental involvement, however, is that parents represent the main employers in Tuvalu's economy: the self-employed, the subsistence farmers-fishers and those who work for occasional cash income. Parents and grandparents are often sources of traditional knowledge, which is essential for the preservation of Tuvaluan culture. Given parents' importance in the economy and tradition, it is important that they understand the need for the *value* of education to be improved.

In Tuvalu, parents and communities often assume that the (highly subsidised) schooling costs that they meet are the full costs. Parents may believe that the return they receive (their children's improved earning potential) on the money they spend is very good. At the personal level they are correct but society as a whole (which meets the subsidies) incurs two key negative effects: i) parents and students expect high returns and strongly oppose much-needed increases in school fees; and ii) parents do not seek cost-effective ways to teach their children, for both traditional knowledge and skills and academic subjects.

In 1988 Tuvalu adopted the Education For Life (EFL) programme⁷⁴ with a goal of compulsory high-quality and relevant education for all children up to 15 years old, strong community and parental participation and equal access to schooling throughout Tuvalu. EFL is one of the five priorities of the last national development plan, the *Kakeega o Tuvaulu*, and remains Tuvalu's formal HRD approach. Goals include:

- expansion of early childhood education including family and community interventions, especially for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children;
- universal access to and completion of primary education;
- improvement in learning achievement;
- reduction of the adult illiteracy rate with an emphasis on improving female literacy;

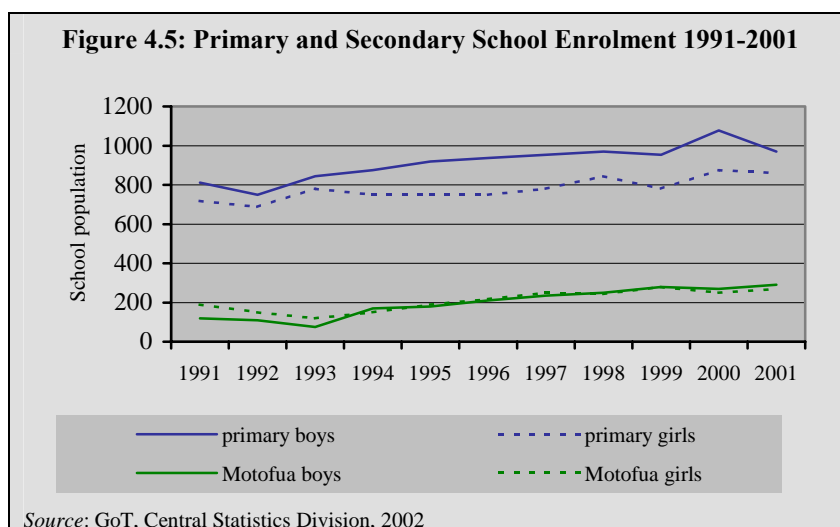
⁷² Vesikula, Tomasi; *Tuvalu Land Valuation: Report on Problems Relating to Rent Reassessments*, ESCAP/POC Technical Report TU-61, Port Vila, May 1990 and Kamikamica, J; *Home Ownership Scheme*, ESCAP/POC Technical Report TU-69, Port Vila, May 1990.

⁷³ J.T. Lyle, *Regenerative Design for Sustainable Development*, John Wiley and Sons, 1993. Quoted in *The Millennium Whole Earth Catalog*, Harper San Francisco, 1995, 1996.

⁷⁴ See *EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report, Tuvalu* (S Paape, UNESCO, Apia, 2000)

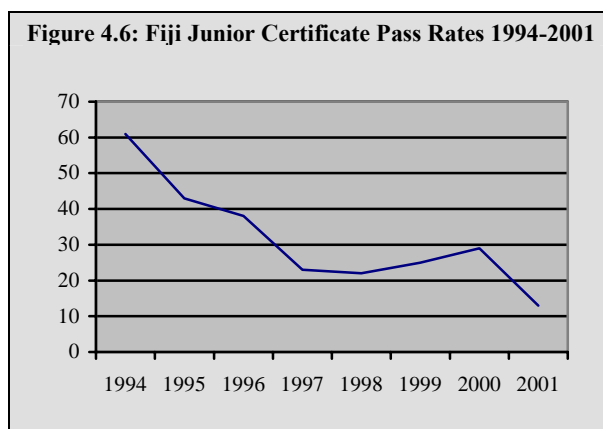
- wider provision of basic education and training in essential skills for youth and adults in terms of behavioural changes in relation to health, employment and productivity; and
- greater access for individuals and families to information that will encourage better living and sound and sustainable development.

Table 2.1 (on page 9) suggests nearly universal adult literacy and 100% primary school enrolment but these may be optimistic. Studies carried out in the 1990s⁷⁵ indicate that literacy in Tuvalu may have declined due to a lower quality of education in the early to mid-1990s. In addition, Figure 4.5, if accurate, suggests that female primary school enrolment may have been 10-



15% below male enrolment throughout the past decade (upper two lines) although male/female enrolment in Tuvalu's only secondary school has generally been balanced (lower two lines). No recent data were available on educational attendance or attainment overall or by sex.

All children have access to primary school in Tuvalu and attendance is in principle compulsory. Irrespective of school results, all students continue their education to Form 4 (i.e. year 8 of schooling). Tuvalu's only secondary school, Motufoua, offers an academic programme for Forms 3-6. After Form 4, students sit an external Fiji examination and those who pass receive the Fiji Junior Certificate. From 1994 to 2001 (Figure 4.6), the pass rate dropped steadily from 61% to 13%, a matter of serious concern to all Tuvaluans. The education authorities are assessing the reasons for the trend and ways to reverse it. Considering deteriorating exam results, concerns that basic literacy and numeracy are declining, weak school management and apparent low morale of teachers, a review of the EFL programme – in essence the overall Tuvalu education approach – was scheduled for early 2002.



It is increasingly recognised that early childhood education is extremely important for a child's social and educational development. There has recently been a growing emphasis on preschool education in Tuvalu (Table 4.3) with increasing enrolments, better student-teacher ratios and a higher percentage of qualified teachers.⁷⁶

Table 4.3: Recent Tuvalu Preschool Trends

Indicator	1998	2001
Students	571	663
Teachers	37	47
Student teacher ratio	15.4	14.1
Trained teachers	5%	17%

⁷⁵ Literacy studies reported in *Tuvalu 1997 Economic Report*, ADB, 1998, p. 104.

⁷⁶ 'Qualified' means Pacific Preschool Teacher's Certificate from the University of the South Pacific. Source is draft *Review of Tuvalu Early Childhood Education Programme* (UNICEF, Dec. 2001)

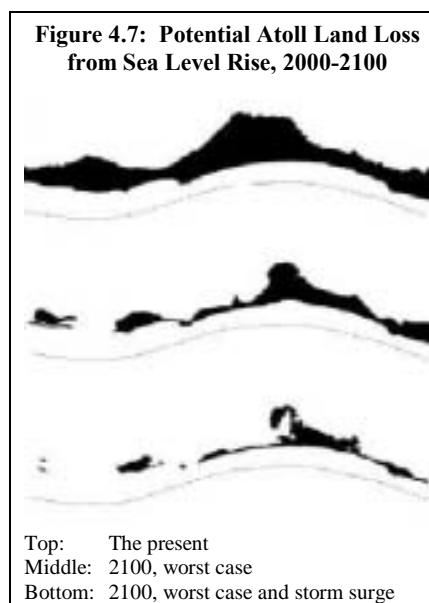
At the post-secondary school level, Tuvalu is served by the Tuvalu Maritime Training Institute (TMTI), which has trained over 1,000 merchant seamen over the past 22 years, and an extension centre of the University of the South Pacific (USP), which offers a variety of degree, diploma, certificate and vocational courses. In 2000, about 270 part-time USP students were enrolled of whom nearly half were pursuing degree courses.

In addition to local studies at TMIT and the USP centre, over 100 Tuvaluans per year were awarded overseas scholarships between 1999 and 2001, up sharply from about 40 per year from 1991-1998. Males accounted for 55% of scholarships. During the past decade, the government met about half of overseas scholarship costs with the rest shared by a number of donors. Tuvalu spends a large portion (20-30%) of its education budget on tertiary education including scholarships. As with education generally, there appears to be little direct involvement in scholarship decisions by employers other than government. More importantly, there is little data or analysis of the effectiveness of Tuvalu's investments in tertiary education, for the nation or for individuals and their families.

4.5 The Environment

Chapter 1 introduced several environmental issues of regional concern, noting that Tuvalu is extremely vulnerable to natural disasters and is among those countries expected to suffer the worst impacts of anticipated human-induced disaster — global climate change — including disappearance in the worst scenarios. It was also noted that the marine environment, particularly the tuna stock, is Tuvalu's most valuable renewable natural resource and must be carefully protected. Waste management, potable water supply and sanitation have been covered in section 4.3 above. Other key environmental issues identified by ESCAP & ADB include⁷⁷ water degradation and coastal erosion. The causes of these problems are said to include climate change, ground water salinisation, deficiencies in urban and rural planning and infrastructure, and use of designs inappropriate for an atoll environment. Within each ministry, there is some awareness of inappropriate approaches to environmental matters. However, no single body is responsible for overall environmental protection and management. Attempts have been made at coordination through the Office of the Prime Minister and the National Planning Coordinating Committee with limited results. It will be impossible, however, to effectively integrate environmental policy and management into overall national development planning and decision-making while national planning itself remains ad hoc.

Climate Change. There is considerable attention in the regional media to Tuvalu's vulnerability to global-warming induced sea-level rise⁷⁸ Although Australian tidal measurements in Funafuti indicate no noticeable change in sea level since 1993, critiques of the measuring system have prompted planning for a second station.⁷⁹ Data gathered by New Zealand's National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research show a general change in the South Pacific climate from the mid-1970s with Tuvalu becoming drier and sunnier.⁸⁰ More severe weather including heavier more-frequent storms will stress infrastructure, with roads, housing, electricity,



⁷⁷ See *State of Environment Report for Asia and the Pacific* (UN Economic & Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific / Asian Development Bank, Bangkok & Manila, 2000)

⁷⁸ Che, Eun Jung Cahill; "Tuvalu: First Casualty Of Climate Change", *The Japan Times*, 26 August 2001, <<http://www.climateark.org/articles/2001/3rd/tuficasu.htm>>

⁷⁹ Radio Australia, "New sea level monitoring station for Tuvalu" ABC Radio Australia News, 3/12/01 21:17:06, <http://goasiapacific.com/news/GoAsiaPacificBNP_431488.htm>

⁸⁰ SPREP, *Pacific Islands Environment Outlook*, Apia, 1999.

water, etc., becoming more vulnerable — and hence more expensive to build and maintain. Even though the actual future impacts of sea level rise remain inconclusive, Tuvalu should develop contingency plans for response, as possible effects are devastating. Figure 4.7 shows an atoll near Tuvalu⁸¹ today (top), the worse case impact of sea-level rise in 2100 (middle, with 67-100% of roads destroyed), and worst-case with a severe storm surge (bottom, with most land submerged). The effects by 2050, though not as severe, would also be devastating.

Biodiversity, coasts and the marine environment. For all of Tuvalu’s islands, biodiversity protection traditionally included coastal forests, e.g., mangroves, which protect the land from erosion and provide a habitat for fish. In 1998, Tuvalu reportedly had eight animal species⁸² under threat (a seemingly small number but significant for a small atoll country). No other animal or plant species were known to be threatened or extinct and none were legally protected through conservation areas. A terrestrial and lagoon conservation area has since been established in south western Funafuti, with some enforcement. However, heavy fishing is believed to take place within areas set aside for fish protection and rejuvenation and SPREP financial support to administer the area reportedly ends in early 2002. Neither SOPAC nor Tuvalu’s environment office has studied satellite images of Tuvalu (available over the past 20-30 years) to determine the extent of erosion in various islands and atoll groups. Tuvalu’s fragile reef structures have been stressed very little by traditional uses but warmer sea waters are now threatening corals and urbanisation, with its concentrated sewerage, increased and often toxic wastes, and heavier-faster traffic, are likely to destroy some of Tuvalu’s reefs. The challenges are to keep damage to a minimum and develop techniques for aiding the recovery of stressed areas.

As noted in chapter 1, The Central West Pacific is the world’s richest tuna fishery, providing a third of the global catch. In recent years, Tuvalu has approached the estimated (by SPC) sustainable limit of 45,000 to 50,000 tonnes per year although distant water fishing vessels are suspected to under-report catches, thus potentially stressing the tuna stock and reducing license revenue received by Tuvalu.

4.6 Poverty, Safety Nets and Special Protection Measures

There is little available data on the extent of poverty in Tuvalu, the consensus within the country being that it exists in relative rather than absolute terms. ADB’s 2001 Poverty Indicator Statistics summary for Tuvalu found no data for any of its seven poverty measures.⁸³ A sizable portion of Tuvalu’s population presumably falls below the global poverty indicator of US\$1/day, as GDP per capita is under US\$4/day. The 1994 Household Income and Expenditure Survey⁸⁴ indicated an average outer island cash income at that time of only US\$1.30/capita/day. However, (Section 3.7 of this report) disposable income in Tuvalu is much higher than GDP and surveys carried out in 1994 and 2001 did not identify serious poverty as concerns. Poverty includes ‘poverty of opportunity’. Tuvalu’s remoteness – overall and the outer atolls’ remoteness from Funafuti – limits the opportunities available in Funafuti and even more so, the opportunities in the outer islands. Tuvaluans consider this when they say, as in the 2001 Social Development Policy workshops, that relative poverty is the main kind of poverty in Tuvalu, and that it mostly affects those on outer islands, the elderly who have been abandoned by relatives who have migrated overseas, and those who have little or no land tenure rights in Funafuti. The draft Social Development Policy stipulates that any pension scheme for the elderly must be based on traditional exchanges, with the government only

⁸¹ The atoll illustrated is Bikenibeu, Tarawa, Kiribati and is illustrative of similar impacts in Tuvalu. From “Adapting to Climate Change”, vol. 4, *Cities, Seas & Storms* (Pacific Economic Report, World Bank, 2000).

⁸² ECOSOC, “Biodiversity Resources in Small Island Developing States”, Addendum to *Report of the Secretary-General on Progress in the Implementation of the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States*, Commission on Sustainable Development--Sixth Session, E/CN.17/1998/7/Add.5, <<http://www.un.org/documents/ecosoc/cn17/1998/ecn171998-7add5.htm>>

⁸³ *Poverty: Is it an Issue in the Pacific?* (ADB, Manila, March 2001; page 64).

⁸⁴ See Table 3.1. A\$12 per capita per week in 1994 would have been about US\$9 or US\$1.30 per day.

contributing when those exchanges are insufficient for basic needs. The policy included plans to define poverty in Tuvalu's context through a study planned for 2002.

Safety nets include the Tuvalu Provident Fund, to which all paid employees (mostly government employees) contribute, and traditional exchanges within families and communities. The draft Social Development Policy calls for identifying and strengthening these systems so that the requirement for additional government budget support is kept to a minimum. Discussions regarding the development of a pension scheme for the elderly and for persons with disabilities have reached consensus on this approach. With an element of competition with the Provident Fund, a Fiji-based bank (Colonial) provides life insurance, investment, and savings programmes⁸⁵ in Tuvalu, providing competition for Tuvalu's own services.

⁸⁵ <<http://www.colonial.com.fj/regional/tuvalu/index.htm>>

CHAPTER 5 — CONCLUSIONS

The purposes of the Common Country Assessment are to: i) review and analyse the national development situation of Tuvalu taking into account both national perspectives and goals and those of the United Nations system globally; ii) identify key issues as a basis for advocacy and policy dialogue between the UN agencies and Tuvalu; and iii) identify areas for priority attention in development assistance. Broad conclusions that flow from the assessment are summarised below.

5.1 The National Development Situation

Tuvalu is an extremely small, isolated atoll nation categorised as an LDCs due to relatively low income, weak human resources, and extreme economic vulnerability. Nonetheless, Tuvalu has provided nearly universal basic health service and all citizens have access to formal education. The economy is highly dependent on government services, has generally been prudently managed (particularly a trust fund invested overseas), democratic principles are robust and society is stable. The most recent national development plan (1995-1998) emphasises public sector reform and the development of human resources, the private sector, the outer islands and infrastructure, all of which remain priorities. Tuvalu faces the following challenges:

- Uneven development. Development has been uneven between Funafuti – with its concentration of opportunities and services (health, education, communications, transport, social amenities, etc.) – and the rest of the country. Per capita incomes in the capital are probably triple those of other islands. An innovative trust fund aims to improve service delivery to outer islands and reduce migration to the capital but could exacerbate differences, as the per capita share held by Funafuti is far higher than for other islands.
- Human rights. Although the government generally respects citizens' rights, social behaviour – as determined by custom and tradition – is generally considered by Tuvaluans to be as important as the law. Enforcement of traditions by village elders, particularly in outer islands, can lead to discrimination. For example, women are subordinate and have limited job opportunities despite equal legal rights with men.
- Human resource development. Education policy emphasises compulsory, quality education for all through age 15, strong community and parental participation, and equal access to schools throughout the country. However, the educational system does little to prepare the majority – who work in the traditional economy – for productive work. Although 95% of Tuvaluans are reportedly literate, there are indications of declines in literacy and numeracy. There have been sharp declines in pass rates of a key external secondary school examination over the past decade. In early 2002, Tuvalu began reviewing its educational policies, seeking ways to reverse these trends.*
- Gender. Tuvalu ranks first among 15 Pacific Island countries in UNDP's gender development ratio, a rough measure of gender equality. Access to education is universal through secondary school and 45% of overseas tertiary scholarships since 1991 have gone to women. However, primary school enrolment of girls appears to be lower than boys throughout the past decade. Women hold 46% of professional and technical jobs but only 16% of managerial and administrative positions.
- Health. Despite good basic health services, there are downward pressures from non-communicable and lifestyle diseases. Sexually transmitted diseases are increasing, particularly among overseas workers who are at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS. A national health review planned for early 2002 may emphasise improved curative services, although preventative health measures are likely to be considerably more cost-effective.

* Evaluation of the effectiveness of national investments in education is important and it is also important that parents be involved in assessing education's effectiveness, including its costs. Social mobility increases with mean years of schooling and with per capita income but there is relatively low correlation with public expenditures on education. Tuvalu's high investments in tertiary education are important to develop needed skills but must be done with careful thought: There are high possibilities both of creating local elites and of increasing migration overseas.

- Poverty and disadvantage. Little if any extreme poverty exists in Tuvalu. However, those who live on outer islands, members of large families, the disabled, and those without access to land tend to be disadvantaged and suffer from ‘poverty of opportunity’.
- Development planning and implementation. The outdated development plan requires updating. There is no clear sense of national direction and very limited planning capacity in key ministries. Development assistance is typically 36% of GDP but Tuvalu has low capacity to effectively absorb it, an issue of concern to both donors and the government.
- Slow public sector reform and privatisation. Overall service delivery by the public sector is low in quality, the roles and responsibilities of Ministers and ministries are often unclear, and success in implementing public sector reform has been very limited. Despite a formal goal of increased private sector employment, government employees (including state owned enterprises, or SOEs) constituted 69% of formal employment in 2001 compared to 65% ten years earlier.
- Governance. Tuvalu does not face serious governance issues. However, a particular concern has been the lack of final audited government accounts since 1995, few annual ministry reports since the mid-1990s, and little auditing of island council or SOE accounts. Parliament is unable to judge effectively whether funds are being used as allocated without a much-improved information and reporting system. There is little non-government information available to the public on development issues to allow more informed debate.
- Data. Key data required for analysis and decision-making are fragmentary and frequently contradictory. There is limited disaggregation by gender or island and few useful time series to allow study of trends. Both better data and better analysis are needed.
- Population concentration and environmental degradation. In 1973, 15% of the national population lived in Tuvalu’s only urban centre, Funafuti compared to 44% in 2001. In the last 28 years, Funafuti has grown 6% per year while population in the rest of the country has been almost static. Funafuti atoll could soon face problems with water, solid wastes, sanitation and lagoon pollution. Unless migration to Funafuti is addressed, Funafuti could experience growing serious social pressures and the difficulties of providing adequate services to other islands will increase.
- Climate change. Tuvalu is among those countries expected to suffer the greatest impact of climate change, including disappearance in the worst-case scenario.

5.2 Key Issues for Advocacy and Dialogue

Tuvalu has endorsed the MDGs and a number of international treaties and conventions including the Convention on Rights of the Child and the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. Key issues for advocacy and dialogue between the UN and Tuvalu are:

- Fully extending rights to women; and
- Effective implementation of key international conventions and declarations (including those dealing with political and civil rights, elimination of racial discrimination, and standards and rights at work) and global and regional treaties and conventions dealing with trade, pollution, and sustainable management of ocean resources.

5.3 Issues for Priority Development Attention

Considering the expressed needs of Tuvalu and the mandates of the United Nations, priority areas for future development assistance are likely to remain health, education, employment creation and livelihoods, reducing disadvantage, and assisting Tuvalu address the observance of human rights for all. Improved transport and communications, internally and internationally, require considerable external assistance. Tuvalu requires support in its reporting procedure on the follow-up to the various UN conventions and conferences, reviewing the legal context for the recognition of human rights, and more attention to gender issues.

The international development community should provide support in a form, with sufficient continuity, and for a sufficient duration, to genuinely assist Tuvalu to shift progressively

toward a more sustainable and equitable development path. This requires assistance efforts that are designed so they do not overtax the very limited implementation, administrative and monitoring capacities of the government but rather augment them. Where appropriate, some assistance should be directly through CSOs/NGOs, not solely the public service. Specific areas for priority donor attention, not prioritised, include the following:

- **Population and migration.** Practical policies which address the carrying capacity and emerging social issues of Funafuti and the needs of the remote island communities.
- **Sustainable livelihoods.** Practical policies for formal and informal employment.
- **More equitable development.** Practical advice, human resource development and policies to genuinely improve the gaps between Funafuti and the other islands in terms of access to services and opportunities for employment and income generation.
- **Youth.** Practical options for training and employing the bulk of Tuvalu's youth and protecting youth from life-threatening risky behaviour.
- **Human resource development.** Education and human resource development policies which improve the quality, relevance and practicality of education and training at all levels with more emphasis on the essential infant and pre-school years.
- **Formal education.** Improved access to education by all children and a genuine increase in its quality.
- **Health.** Health systems policies that improve a broad range of health indicators in a cost-effective manner.
- **HIV/AIDS.** Effectively addressing the potential spread of HIV/AIDS.
- **Reform.** A public service which is more transparent, consultative, efficient, and accountable and includes CSOs in delivering services to the disadvantaged. A public service that recognises the tensions between traditional and modern approaches and addresses these, particularly regarding social and economic equity.
- **Globalisation.** Informed consideration of globalisation, realistic options, and adapting to challenges in a manner more likely to secure its benefits, maintain national sovereignty, and retain flexibility to formulate and implement economic and social policies.
- **Data.** Better understanding, development and use of data and information for effective research, policy development, programme implementation, and analysis and monitoring.
- **Treaties.** Better understanding, and where appropriate ratification and implementation, of treaties and other commitments.
- **Regional action.** Identification and action on key issues that require regional or global action rather than just a national response.
- **Vulnerability.** Better understanding of Tuvalu's vulnerability, both economic and environmental.
- **Sustainable development.** Development policies that encourage investment, are practical, sustainable, more equitable, compatible with local cultural norms and gender sensitive.
- **Environment.** Improved management of the environmental resources of Funafuti, sustainable management of the ocean resources, and improved pollution control and waste management
- **Climate change.** Better understanding of global climate change and its likely national impacts and more effective contribution to international dialogue and negotiations on climate change.
- **CSOs.** CSOs with the improved management skills and accountability (including financial reporting) which justify more direct involvement in service delivery through the UN system and government.

There are other, related issues which are important to Tuvalu but also the Pacific Island countries more generally. The international development community could help Tuvalu and the PICs address the following:

- **Economic reform and equity.** Without careful thought, the recent emphasis within PICs on public sector reform, commercialisation / privatisation and economic growth through trade could be at the expense of the poor, worsen inequities and aggravate environmental degradation. Tuvalu and other PICs may need assistance to study and adapt practical 'best practices' elsewhere which combine economic growth with equity, real poverty reduction and environmental protection.
- **Reversing brain drain.** Many of the human resource development, education and sustainable livelihood policies which are necessary to compete better globally, and should improve the quality of life in Tuvalu and other PICs, also produce people with skills in demand elsewhere. It is desirable for Tuvalu and the PICs to develop cooperative regional strategies to retain skilled people and encourage professionals who have emigrated to return to the region.

5.4 A Summary of Broad Themes for Priority Development Attention in Tuvalu

Based on the analysis carried out during the CCA process, the key development issues identified in this CCA, and finally the deliberations of Tuvalu government officials, CSO/NGO representatives and in-country donor representatives during the consultative meeting held in Funafuti in January 2002, the key development issues facing Tuvalu have been grouped into the following three broad thematic areas which form the basis for preparation of the UN Development Assistance Framework for Tuvalu:

Theme 1: Assistance for Reducing Disparities in Services and Opportunities. Assuring a more equitable provision of essential services and opportunities between Funafuti and the rest of Tuvalu, and within the outer island groups:

- Higher quality, more equitable and sustainable access to essential services (health, education, food and nutrition, social security, basic water and sanitation facilities, and employment opportunities) between Funafuti and the rest of Tuvalu and among the outer islands.
- A higher quality of basic services for the disadvantaged and vulnerable, particularly women, children, and the disabled.
- Improved mechanisms and structures for effective decentralisation.
- Improved statistical and data management tools for planning, analysis, policy development, implementation and monitoring.

Theme 2: Governance and Human Rights. Improved participation, accountability, and equity in decision-making:

- Improved transparency, equality and accountability within decision-making.
- Wider dialogue and participation in decision-making (by geographical location within Tuvalu, by gender, by government / CSO affiliation, etc.).
- Ratification and more effective implementation by Tuvalu of key conventions and conferences, the Millennium Development Goals and national reporting on progress (e.g. the ratifying the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*, and implementing the *Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women*).
- Improved statistical and data management tools for monitoring and measuring progress in achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

Theme 3: Addressing Environmental Issues (particularly Funafuti) and Vulnerability. Improving the ability of Tuvalu to deal with economic and environmental vulnerability:

- Improved capacity to address population growth in Funafuti and its underlying causes.
- Improved understanding of globalisation and economic reform.
- Improved capacity for land-use planning and waste management.
- Improved capacity for sustainable management of Tuvalu's natural resources (particularly climate change, biodiversity, marine resources and energy).

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Common Country Assessment for Tuvalu

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(Annexes revised 24 April 2002)

ANNEX 1: MAIN INDICATORS OF DEVELOPMENT

Annex 1A: Summary of Key Indicators of Development for Tuvalu

This page attempts to summarise key development indicators for Tuvalu. Much more reliable information will come from the 2002 Census. There is a lack of reliable up-to-date gender-related information.

Indicator	Overall	Male	Female	Comments and Sources
Population:				
Population (1991 census)	9,043			<i>Census Report</i> (Tuvalu government, 1991)
Population (Sept 2001; estimated) ¹	10,339	-	-	Net decrease of 4.3% from 31 Dec 2000 due to out migration ²
Urban population (%; 1991 & 1999)	42 51	-	-	1991 from census; 2001 est. from <i>Country Brief: Tuvalu</i> (UNFPA, 2001)
Population growth (% per year; 1991-2001)	1.35%	-	-	Calculated from above data; note that 1991-2000 would be 1.97%/year
Mortality:				
Life expectancy at birth (years; 1991; census)	67	64	70	
(2000; estimate)	66	64	69	<i>Tuvalu Annual Report for 2000</i> (WHO, 2001) based on MoH data
Not expected to survive until age 40 (%; 1991?)	9.8	11.7	7.9	<i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF, 2001); primary source 1991 census? Male interpolated
Maternal mortality (estimate 1992-1999) ³	-	-	100-200	UNFPA from MoH reported deaths. Others report 0 but see note below.
Infant mortality rate (/1000 live births, census '91)	51	-	-	
(2000)	29	-	-	from <i>Country Profile, Tuvalu</i> (SPC, 2001); primary source is MoH.
Child mortality rate (0- 5 yrs old; 1991)	59			Census 1991
Economic:				
GDP per capita (Australian\$; 2001; ADB estimate)	\$2,286	-	-	From <i>Asian Development Outlook</i> (ADB, April 2002)
GDP/capita growth (%/year; 1995-2001; ADB est.)	3.6%	-	-	Calculated from <i>Asian Development Outlook</i> (2002)
GDP/capita growth (%/year; 1999-2003; ADB est.)	1.2%	-	-	As above.
Aid per capita (A\$; 1990-2000; approximate)	A\$ 900			Estimated from recent aid flows of A\$8-10 m per year
Dependency ratio (mid 2000 estimate)	69.5			<i>Country Profile, Tuvalu</i> (SPC, 2001; ratio is (population {[0-14]+[65+]})/[15-64])
Services:				
Access to safe drinking water (%; 1991?)	85%	-	-	<i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF, 2001) but primary source probably 1991 census
Access to sanitation (%; 1991?)	49%	-	-	As above
Phone lines (% of population; 1990 & 1999)	1.3 5.5	-	-	ILO website; updated January 2001
Health:				
Adult literacy (census; 1991)	95	95	95	
Births attended by trained health worker (2000)	100%	100%	100%	UNFPA & UNICEF reports; primary source is Min of Health Statistics Unit
Underweight children (% under 5 years; 1990s)	3	-	-	<i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF; 20010)
HIV / AIDS cases (December 2001)	0	0	0	No confirmed cases; source is Ministry of Health
Filaria positive for microfilaria (%; 1973 & 1999)	0.9 22.3	-	-	Ministry of Health (MoH) <i>Annual Reports</i>
Infant immunisation (DPT3 coverage, 1998)	94	-	-	<i>MoH Annual Reports</i> . In 1998 BCG 100%, measles 96, OPV3 94 HepB 96
(2000)	90	-	-	In 2000 BCG 100%, measles ?, OPV3 95 HepB 85
Development Ranking in the region				
Human Development Rank among PICs (1998)	8th of 14	-	-	<i>Pacific Human Development Report</i> (UNDP, 1999). 1 st is best
Human Poverty Rank among PICs (1998)	4 th of 15	-	-	As above. 1 st is best
Education				
Gross enrolment early childhood education (1998)	91%	-	-	<i>SOPC</i> (UNICEF, 2001)
Net enrolment in Primary school (1995-1999)	100%	100%	100%	<i>Pacific Island Country Profile</i> (UNICEF, 2001)
Gender: (Total: % male: % female)				
Members of Parliament (2001)	12	100%	0%	
Government scholarships (2001) ⁴	69	74%	26%	
Labour force (1991? year unspecified; % of total)	100%	62%	38%	<i>Progress Report: Beijing +5</i> (Women's Affairs Dept; Tuvalu gov; May 2000)
Prof./tech./admin./management (1991; census)	413 total	61%	39%	The 2002 census is expected to show considerable improvement for women.
Clerical workers (1991; census)	234 total	35%	65%	
Total fertility rate (1997)			3.2	<i>Progress Report: Beijing +5</i> (Women's Affairs Dept; Tuvalu gov; May 2000)
Women of reprod. age using contraception (1997)			41%	Source as above

Sources other than those identified in rightmost column of the table above: 1) Quarterly *Statistical Report* (Tuvalu gov. Sept 2001);

2) Quarterly *Statistical Report* (Tuvalu gov. March 2001); 3) UNFPA *Support to Tuvalu Under its Programme of Assistance* (UNFPA, 2001);

4) Ministry of Education, 2002. *SOPC* = *State of Pacific Children* (4th draft; UNICEF, 2001).

Note: For rare events such as maternal mortality, absolute numbers of deaths in any year are too small to provide a meaningful MMR in a small population. A moving average over at least three years is more useful.

Annex 1B: Miscellaneous Data and Information on Development for Tuvalu

A good deal of the data available for Tuvalu from published or Internet sources contains inconsistencies. Part 2 of this Annex provides the data as published or downloaded but does not attempt to reconcile inconsistencies. While providing useful information, this section also illustrates the need for more reliable and consistent data sources and time series for Tuvalu. (Note that all other annexes were prepared before Annex 1A which had access to additional data.)

1. Socio-Economic Indicators

The source for Section A is the Secretariat of the Pacific Community (SPC), data that is regularly updated and has wide official recognition. The bases for much of SPC's statistics are national census reports. Tuvalu has not had a Census since 1991 (but plans one during 2002) so SPC data can be inadequate for detailed analysis or decision-making.

Demographic Characteristics (1991 unless noted)

Crude birth rate (CBR) per 1000	Crude death rate (CDR) per 1000	Natural increase (= CBR - CDR)	TFR	Life expectancy at birth Men	Women	IMR (1996-98)
21.4	7.8	13.6	3.4	64.1	70	29

NOTES: TFR = Total fertility rate (number of children per woman); IMR = Infant mortality rate per 1,000.

Age Distribution, Sex And Age-Dependency Ratios (Mid-2000 Estimates)

Total population	Population in age group (%)			Sex ratio (males to 100 females)	Age-dependency ratio See note below
	0-14	15-64	65+		
9,900	34	59	7	95	69.49

Note: [(population 0—14) + (population 65+)] * 100

Social Characteristics (1991)

Marital status (15 years and over)						Percentage of population of school age (5 to 19)		
Married		Widowed		Div./Sep.		Not attending	Primary	Secondary
Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female			
62.9	59.8	2.1	11.4	1.8	4.1	27%	61%	13%

Resident population only

Economically Active Population (Residents Aged 15+) and Urban Distribution, 1991

Population employed in cash economy (%)			Urban population (Main centre)
Male	Female	Total	
37	18	42	42%

Percentage Distribution of GDP by Sector: 1993-1998

Year	Agriculture & fisheries	Mining	Manu- facturing	Wholesale & retail trade	Transport & communication	Utilities	Construct- ion	Finance	Community & social services	Other
1993	24%	1%	3%	18%	2%	3%	9%	13%	7%	24%
1994	23%	1%	3%	18%	7%	3%	7%	10%	7%	19%
1995	24%	1%	4%	19%	6%	4%	6%	12%	17%	8%
1996	19%	3%	3%	17%	8%	4%	13%	11%	—	23%
1997	19%	3%	4%	15%	9%	3%	13%	11%	—	23%
1998	17%	3%	4%	14%	7%	3%	14%	11%	—	27%

NB Some totals may not add up to 100% due to the Imputed Bank Charges

Employment Patterns (% of Population Employed in Cash Economy), 1991

Sector	Percent
Total agriculture and fisheries/forestry	68
Traditional	66
Commercial	2
Non-agricultural employment	32
Mining	0
Manufacturing	1
Electricity	0
Construction	4
Commerce	4
Transport	1
Finance	0
Services	21
Others	0

Mid-Year Population Estimates 1985, 1990, 1993 - 2000 and Projections for 2010

1980	1985	1990	1991a	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2010
7,500	8,200	9,000	9,043	9,132	9,221	9,312	9,403	10,740	10,900	11,000	9,807	9,910	10,573

a = Census figure. In 1999 the assumptions about future fertility trends used to make projections were changed to coincide with UN assumptions. This may lead to inconsistencies between estimates before 1999 and from 1999 onwards.

Total Government Expenditure (in thousands of Australian Dollars)

Expenditure	1994 SPC	1995 SPC	1996 SPC	1997 Actual	1998 Actual	1999 Actual	2000 Actual	2001 Est.
Current	\$10,821	\$10,468	\$8,203	—	\$11,330	\$14,421	\$13,936	\$20,630
Capital	\$3,229	\$9,365	—	—	\$3,855	\$2,959	\$8,228	\$12,485
Total	\$14,050	\$19,833	\$8,203	\$9,562	\$15,185	\$17,380	\$22,164	\$33,115

Note: Some totals may not add up due to rounding; 1997-2001 data from approved 2001 budget estimates

2. Education Indicators

Indicator	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1998
Gross enrolment in early childhood education				86.3			90.5
% of children entering Class 1 who have had early education				100			100
Apparent gross intake rate (Total)				105.7			100
Female				104.2			100
Male				107.4			100
Net intake rate (Total)				105.7			100
Female				104.2			100
Male				107.4			100
Gross primary enrolment ratio (Total)				85.9			99.8
Female				100			100
Male				85.9			99.6
Net enrolment ratio (Total)							99.8
Female							100
Male							99.6
Current expenditure on primary education as % GDP	1.6	1.8		2.6	2.5	2.1	
Current expenditure on education as % GDP per capita	12.0						
Public expenditure on primary ed. as % total public education.	33.8	42.5		30.4	27.6	39.7	
Public expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure	18.0						16.0
% of primary school teachers trained to teach							71
Pupil-teacher ratio				24			21
Survival rate to grade 5 (Total)				94.0			
Female				93.5			
Male				94.3			
Coefficient of efficiency (Total)				87.8			
Female				85.9			
Male				89.8			
Adult literacy rate	95						
Literacy Gender Parity	1.0						

Sources: National EFA Report, Government of Tuvalu Budget Estimates, 1998; UNDP, 1999

3. Indicators of Children's Status

Item	Indicators
Total Population (thousands)	11
Population under 5 (thousands)	1
Population under 18 (thousands)	5
Annual no. of births (thousands)	0
Mortality (per 1,000 live births)	
Infant mortality rate	40
Under 5 mortality rate	56
Annual no. of under 5 deaths (thousands)	0
Immunization (% fully immunized 1-year-olds):	
<i>BCG</i>	100
<i>DPT3</i>	84
<i>Polio3</i>	83
<i>Measles</i>	94
% of routine EPI vaccines financed by government	70
Water and Sanitation (% of population with access):	
Safe water - Urban & Rural	100
Sanitation - Urban & Rural	100
Nutrition:	
Infants with low birth weight (%):	3%
Total Fertility Rate	3%*
Adult Literacy Rate	
<i>Male</i>	98
<i>Female</i>	98
Primary School Enrolment Ratio (Gross)	
<i>Male</i>	100
<i>Female</i>	100
Secondary School Enrolment Ratio (Gross)	
<i>Male</i>	-
<i>Female</i>	-

Source: <http://www.unicef.org/statis/Country_1Page179.htm> updated 26 December 2000
except data marked with an asterisk is from Tuvalu Discussion Papers (ADB, March 2001)

4. Environmental Indicators

If an indicator listed under Funafuti is the same for another island, it is repeated. The many gaps in data are indicative of Tuvalu's data limitations in the environment and other areas. The source of this section is <<http://www.unep.ch/islands/ILB.htm#1497>>, the UN System-Wide Earthwatch Web Site, updated: 02/03/1998.

Funafuti

Lat: 8.50° S *Long :* 179.20° E (measured at the geographic centre of the island)

Area: 2.8 sq. km *Altitude:* ? m (mostly below 3 m)

Depth to nearest land: 4000 m

Nearest island: 80 km *group:* 400 km

Nearest continent: Australia *Distance:* 2800 km *Isolation Index:*⁸⁶ 82

ISLAND TYPE: atoll **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0

CLIMATE: tropical

CATASTROPHIC THREATS:

cyclones (1891, 1958, 1972)

Threat Indicator:⁸⁷ 1

ECOSYSTEMS:

Number of Ecosystems⁸⁸ - **Terrestrial:** 2 **Marine:** 3 (Coconuts, atoll scrub; small mangrove swamp inside main islet; windward and leeward atoll reefs and lagoon)

SPECIES	Total	Endemic	Threatened (EVRI)
NUMBERS:			
Plants	55	0	0
Butterflies	0	0	0
Land snails	0	0	0
Reptiles / Amphibians	0	0	0
Land birds	0	0	0
Mammals	0	0	0

HUMAN OCCUPATION:

Inhabited, capital of Tuvalu

Population: 2810 (1988) **Density:** 1004 persons/sq. km

Growth Rate: 1.7%/yr Increasing slowly

Major Human Activities: government, fishing, subsistence agriculture

Habitat: town **Urban Pop:** 0 **Urban Indicator:** 0

Accessibility: port, airport

Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2

Gross Domestic Product: \$ 690 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:**⁸⁹ 0

DATA RELIABILITY:⁹⁰ partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1

HUMAN IMPACT INDEX⁹¹ **HI:** 32

CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX

CI-Terrestrial:⁹² 1 Low

CI-Marine:⁹³ 3 Low

Nanumanga

Lat: 6.29° S *Long :* 176.32° E

Area: 3.1 sq. km *Altitude:* ? m

Shoreline: 7.2 km (scale 1:150000) **Coastal Index:**⁹⁴ 2.3226

Nearest island: 50 km

Isolation Index: 80

ISLAND TYPE: low coral island **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0

CATASTROPHIC THREATS: cyclones

Threat Indicator: 1

ECOSYSTEMS:

Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 2 **Marine:** 1

Mangroves; fringing reefs

HUMAN OCCUPATION:

Inhabited, 1 village

Population: 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km

Major Human Activities: coconuts

Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2

Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0

HUMAN IMPACT INDEX **HI:** 2

CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX

CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low

CI-Marine: 2 Low

Nanumea

Lat: 5.68° S *Long :* 176.15° E

Area: 2.7 sq. km *Altitude:* ? m

Shoreline: 14.6 km (scale 1:150000) **Coastal Index:** 5.4074

Nearest island: 60 km *group:* 400 km

Isolation Index: 81

ISLAND TYPE: atoll **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0

CATASTROPHIC THREATS:

cyclones

Threat Indicator: 1

ECOSYSTEMS:

Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 1 **Marine:** 3

Windward and leeward atoll reefs and lagoon

HUMAN OCCUPATION: Inhabited, 2 villages

Population: 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km

Major Human Activities: coconuts, subsistence agriculture, subsistence fishing

Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2

Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0

DATA RELIABILITY: partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1

HUMAN IMPACT INDEX **HI:** 2

CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX

CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low

CI-Marine: 3 Low

Niulakita

Lat: 10.50° S *Long :* 179.33° E

Area: 0.4 sq. km *Altitude:* ? m

Depth to nearest land: 3000 m

Nearest island: 150 km *group:* 400 km

Isolation Index: 85

ISLAND TYPE: low coral island **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0

CATASTROPHIC THREATS:

cyclones

Threat Indicator: 1

ECOSYSTEMS:

Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 1 **Marine:** 2

Windward and leeward atoll reefs and lagoon

HUMAN OCCUPATION:

Inhabited, small village

Population: 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km

Major Human Activities: coconuts, subsistence fishing, subsistence agriculture

Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2

Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0

DATA RELIABILITY: partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1

HUMAN IMPACT INDEX **HI:** 2

CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX

CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low

CI-Marine: 2 Low

Niutao

Lat: 6.11° S *Long :* 177.30° E

Area: 2.8 sq. km *Altitude:* ? m

⁸⁶ Indicator of island isolation based on sum of the square roots of the distances to nearest island, nearest group and nearest continent.

⁸⁷ Numeric vulnerability indicator based on the number of threats.

⁸⁸ Count of the number of terrestrial ecosystem or biome types present (using the standard classification).

⁸⁹ Numeric indicator for human pressure on resources, based on percentage of the economically active population in agriculture, forestry, mining, fishing.

⁹⁰ Numeric indicator based on reliability of available data: 0 = no reliable data; 1 = poor data (both partial and out of date); 2 = data recent but partial, or good but out of date; 3 = good recent data (within the last 10 years)

⁹¹ Human Impact (HI) Indicator calculated according to following formula: $HI = (density/50) * ((growrate+1.5)/2) + HT + EP + URB + (tourism/humanpop) + INV + ((devland+degraded)/10)$

⁹² Terrestrial Conservation Importance (CI-T) Indicator calculated using the formula: $CI-T = 2 (ERT/10+SRT) + (forest/10) + IENDT + GENDT + percent\ endemism + (plant_evri/5) + (bird_evri/5) + SpFeT + VU + NP$. Less than 6 is low; 6-13 moderate; 14-19 high; 20-34 is high; greater than 35 outstanding.

⁹³ Marine Conservation Importance (CI-M) Indicator calculated using the formula: $CI-M = 2(ERM/3+SRM) + (IENDM*3) + (GENDM*3) + SpFeM + VU + NP$. < 5 is low; 5-14 moderate; 15 & >high.

⁹⁴ Coastal Index calculated from shoreline divided by land area.

Shoreline: 6.9 km (scale 1:150000) **Coastal Index:** 2.4643
Nearest island: 100 km **group:** 400 km
Isolation Index: 83
ISLAND TYPE: low coral island **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0
CLIMATE: tropical
CATASTROPHIC THREATS: cyclones
Threat Indicator: 1
ECOSYSTEMS:
Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 2 **Marine:** 1
 Dense coconuts; fringing reef
HUMAN OCCUPATION:
 Inhabited, highest density in Tuvalu
Population: 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km
Major Human Activities: coconuts
Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2
Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0
DATA RELIABILITY: partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1
HUMAN IMPACT INDEX HI: 2
CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX
CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low
CI-Marine: 2 Low

Nui

Lat: 7.19° S **Long :** 177.12° E
Area: 1.0 sq. km **Altitude:** ? m
Shoreline: 5.3 km (scale 1:150000) **Coastal Index:** 5.3000
Nearest island: 120 km **group:** 400 km
Isolation Index: 84
ISLAND TYPE: atoll **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0
CLIMATE: tropical
CATASTROPHIC THREATS:
 Cyclones
Threat Indicator: 1
ECOSYSTEMS:
Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 2 **Marine:** 3
 Fringing reef
HUMAN OCCUPATION:
 Inhabited, one village
Population: 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km
Major Human Activities: coconuts, subsistence agriculture, subsistence fishing
Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2
Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0
DATA RELIABILITY: partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1
HUMAN IMPACT INDEX HI: 2
CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX
CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low
CI-Marine: 3 Low

Nukufetau

Lat: 8.00° S **Long :** 178.50° E
Area: 2.8 sq. km **Altitude:** ? m
Nearest island: 50 km **group:** 400 km
Isolation Index: 80
ISLAND TYPE: atoll **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0
CLIMATE: tropical
CATASTROPHIC THREATS:
 Cyclones
Threat Indicator: 1
ECOSYSTEMS:
Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 1 **Marine:** 3
 Windward and leeward atoll reefs and lagoon
HUMAN OCCUPATION:
 Inhabited, 1 village
Population: 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km

Major Human Activities: coconuts, subsistence fishing, subsistence agriculture
Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2
Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0
DATA RELIABILITY: partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1
HUMAN IMPACT INDEX HI: 2
CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX
CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low
CI-Marine: 3 Low

Nukulaelae

Lat: 9.33° S **Long :** 179.83° E
Area: 1.8 sq. km **Altitude:** ? m
Depth to nearest land: 3000 m
Nearest island: 120 km **group:** 400 km
Isolation Index: 84
ISLAND TYPE: atoll **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0
CLIMATE: tropical
CATASTROPHIC THREATS:
 Cyclones
Threat Indicator: 1
ECOSYSTEMS:
Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 1 **Marine:** 3
 Windward and leeward atoll reefs and lagoon
HUMAN OCCUPATION:
 Inhabited, 1 village; **Population:** 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km
Major Human Activities: coconuts, subsistence fishing, subsistence agriculture
Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2
Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0
DATA RELIABILITY: partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1
HUMAN IMPACT INDEX HI: 2
CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX
CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low
CI-Marine: 3 Low

Vaitupu

Lat: 7.48° S **Long :** 178.83° E
Area: 5.6 sq. km **Altitude:** ? m
Shoreline: 19.4 km (scale 1:150000) **Coastal Index:** 3.4643
Nearest island: 50 km **group:** 400 km
Isolation Index: 80
ISLAND TYPE: low coral island **Natural Protection Indicator:** 0
CLIMATE: tropical
CATASTROPHIC THREATS:
 cyclones
Threat Indicator: 1
ECOSYSTEMS:
Number of Ecosystems - Terrestrial: 2 **Marine:** 2
 Some mangrove and swamps; lagoons; broad fringing reefs
HUMAN OCCUPATION:
 Inhabited, cultivated
Population: 0 **Density:** 0.0 persons/sq. km
Major Human Activities: coconuts, subsistence cultivation, overfishing
Percent population in agr/mining/fishing: 50% **Human Threat Indicator:** 2
Gross Domestic Product: \$ 190 per capita **Economic Pressure Indicator:** 0
DATA RELIABILITY: partial **Data Rel. Indicator:** 1
HUMAN IMPACT INDEX HI: 2
CONSERVATION IMPORTANCE INDEX
CI-Terrestrial: 1 Low
CI-Marine: 2 Low

ANNEX 2: TUVALU AND THE GLOBAL AGENDA: PROGRESS IN MEETING COMMON CHALLENGES

Annex 2A: The Millennium Declaration Goals for 2015: Summary of Status at A Glance

The Millennium Declaration is a balance sheet of international human development goals which was adopted by the United Nations in 2000 for achievement by 2015 (except where noted). The table below summarises Tuvalu's achievements in these areas and prospects from a 1990 baseline.

Global Goals	Global Achievements	Will Target or Goal be Met in Tuvalu ?				State of the Supportive Environment			
		Probably	Potentially	Unlikely	No data	Strong	Fair	Weak-but Improving	Weak
Extreme Poverty. * Halve the proportion of people living in extreme poverty (or below the national poverty line).	From 1990-98, proportion of people living on under US\$1/day (1993 PPP) in developing countries reduced from 29% to 24%.	√					√		
HIV/AIDS. * Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS & malaria	In a few countries HIV/AIDS prevalence is showing signs of decline.		√				√		
Hunger. * Halve the proportion of under-weight among under 5 year olds.	Number of undernourished people in developing world fell by 40 million between 1990-92 and 1996-98.		√				√		
Basic Amenities. Halve the proportion of people without access to safe drinking water.	Around 80% developing world people have access to improved water sources.	√				√			
Universal Primary Education. Achieve universal completion of primary education.	By 1997 70+ countries had primary net enrolment ratios over 80%. In 29 of 46 countries with data, 80% enrolled reach grade 5.	√				√			
Gender Equality. Achieve equal access for boys and girls to primary and secondary schooling (<i>by 2005, not 2015</i>)	By 1997 the female enrolment ratio in developing countries reached 89% of male ratio (primary level) and 82% (secondary level).	√ ?				√			
Maternal Health. Reduce maternal mortality ratios by three-quarters.	Only 32 countries have achieved a reported maternal mortality ratio of less than 20 per 100,000 live births.	√				√			
Child Mortality. Reduce under-five mortality rates by two-thirds.	Under-five mortality was reduced from 93 per 1,000 live births to 80 in 1990-99.	√				√			
Environmental Sustainability. Reverse the loss of environmental resources.	Countries with sustainable development strategies rose from under 25 (1990) to over 50 (1997).		√				√		

Notes:

- 1) Annex 2A has been adapted from 'Status at A Glance', Annex 3 of Reporting on the Millennium Goals at the Country Level (UNDP, October 2001)
- 2) * During a January 2002 national consultative workshop held in Tuvalu on the CCA/UNDAF process, participants felt that 'extreme poverty' should be replaced by 'relative poverty'; 'malaria' should be deleted from the HIV/AIDS / malaria indicator but perhaps add TB, filariasis, heart disease and hepatitis B as health indicators; 'hunger' for under 5 yr olds should be replaced with 'malnutrition' and 'underweight' with 'malnourished' and some quality indicator should be included under universal primary education.

Annex 2B: Int'l Conference Goals & Indicators to Assess Performance in Meeting Them⁹⁵**International Conferences Convened by the UN During the 1990s:**

1	World Conference on Education for All	Jomtein 1990
2	World Summit for Children	New York 1990
3	UN Conference on Environment and Development	Rio de Janeiro 1992
4	International Conference on Nutrition	Rome 1992
5	World Conference on Human Rights	Vienna 1993
6	Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States	Barbados 1994
7	International Conference on Population and Development	Cairo 1994
8	World Summit for Social Development (WSSD)	Copenhagen 1995
9	Fourth World Conference on Women	Beijing 1995
10	Ninth Congress on the Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders	Cairo 1995
11	Second UN Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II)	Istanbul 1996
12	World Food Summit	Rome 1996
13	Ninth Session of the UNCTAD (UNCTAD IX)	Madrid 1996
14	UNGA - 20th Special Session on the World Drug Problem	New York 1998
15	Intergovernmental Conference on Cultural Policies	Stockholm 1998

A set of Core Goals and Indicators:

A concept of 'People-centred Development' based on the collective findings of the above conferences is emerging. There are many common development goals and objectives articulated at these conferences. Therefore, it is useful to consider them as a group and identify those that typify the core values of the emerging concept. The following list has been prepared with this purpose in mind. Selected indicators that could be used to measure country performance in relation to each goal/objective are also suggested. Corresponding data for Tuvalu are shown in Column 3.

Goal	Indicators	Tuvalu in 1990's
1. Economic well being:		
1.1 The proportion of people living in extreme poverty should be reduced by at least one half by 2015	a) Incidence of poverty: Population below \$1 PPP per day b) Poverty Gap Ratio (Incidence times depth of poverty) c) Inequality: Poorest fifth's share of national consumption	Unknown; possibly sizable fraction below \$1 PPP but little or no extreme poverty. Unknown; possibly small Unknown; possibly not large
2. Social Development:		
2.1 There should be universal primary education in all countries by 2015	d) Net enrolment in primary education e) Children not reaching Grade 5 in primary school f) Literacy rate, 15 to 20-yr-olds	Approximately 99% for both sexes Less than 5% for both sexes Above 90% for both sexes
2.2 Progress towards gender equality & empowerment of women demonstrated by eliminating gender disparity in primary & secondary education by 2005.	g) Ratio of girls to boys in primary & secondary education h) Ratio of literate females to males 15 to 24 year olds	Within global targets. Females more literate than males (according to ADB)
2.3 Death rate for infants and children under the age of five years should be reduced in each developing country by two thirds of the 1990 level by 2015.	i) Infant mortality rate j) Under five mortality rate k) Child malnutrition: Percentage of underweight children under 5 years	23.3/1,000 (2000 estimate) Unknown; possibly very low but at risk of increase

⁹⁵ Annexes 2B and 2C have been adapted in part from the Sri Lanka CCA format (May 2000).

Goal	Indicators	Tuvalu in 1990's
2. Social Development (continued):		
2.4 The rate of maternal mortality should be reduced by three fourths between 1990 & 2015.	l) Maternal mortality rate m) Births attended by skilled health personnel	Unknown; possibly near zero Unknown; probably most.
2.5 Access should be available through the primary health care system to reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate ages, including safe and reliable family planning methods, as soon as possible and no later than 2015.	n) Contraceptive prevalence rate o) HIV prevalence rate in 15-24 year-old pregnant women	TFR of 3.11 children/woman (2000 estimate) Not known. Possibility exists however, as many young Tuvaluan men work as sailors on international ships.
3. Environmental Sustainability and Regeneration:		
3.1 There should be a current national strategy for sustainable development in the process of implementation in every country by 2005, so as to ensure that the current trends in the loss of environmental resources including forests, fisheries, fresh water, climate, soils, biodiversity, stratospheric ozone are effectively reversed at both global and national levels by 2015.	p) Countries with national sustainable development strategies q) Intensity of fresh-water use r) Land area protected s) GDP per unit of energy use t) Carbon dioxide emissions	Strategy developed with SPREP assistance. Implementation is slow and spotty, but progressing. Fresh water is relatively scarce, and there is a long tradition of intensive use of fresh water in Tuvalu compared with "high island" countries. Measures of use are not assessed however. 40 sq. km. of Funafuti atoll in conservation area. \$5.17/kWh in 1998. Excludes non-electric energy sources due to data limitations. Unknown; negligible
4. Social Integration:		
4.1 Nations should commit themselves to foster societies that are stable, safe and just, and are based on the promotion and protection of all human rights as well as non-discrimination, tolerance, respect for diversity, equality of opportunity, solidarity and participation of all people.	u) Periodicity of free and fair elections v) Changes in government through an electoral process w) Voter participation in elections x) Recognition in law of the right to freedom of expression, association and assembly y) Effective legislative framework, law enforcement, prosecutions, legal profession in conformity with international standards	Elections are held, as required by Section 118 of the Constitution, every four years or less. All changes in government have been through peaceful and free elections widely seen as fair, whether the change was through a general election or a vote of confidence. Only one woman has been an MP; none currently. Data collected during elections is not collated or compiled centrally. Widely accepted anecdotal data show a high rate of voter participation. Recognised in Part II of the Constitution and in practice. Generally in accord with international standards, and better in many ways. However, gender equality needs to be improved
5. Overall Development (General Indicators):		
	z) GNP per capita aa) Adult literacy rate ab) Total fertility rate ac) Population with access to safe water	US\$1,378 (1998) Estimated at 95% 3.11 births/woman 100%

Sources of data for Tuvalu:

- 1 Tuvalu Economic Report (ADB, 1997)
- 2 Human Development Report (UNDP 2001)

Annex 2C: Tuvalu's Status Regarding International Conventions and Declarations

UN treaty body currently operating:	Monitors the implementation of:
Human Rights Committee (HRC)	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESR)	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
Committee Against Torture (CAT)	Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CETRD)	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC)	Convention on the Rights of the Child
Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women

Details of the above (and other) instruments and the status of action to implement them are summarised below:

Name of Instrument	Content Highlights and Goals to Achieve	Status of Ratification-Signature	Remarks
1. International Covenant on Civil & Political Rights. [A: 1966, F: 1976]	Rights to Self Determination (people freely determine their political status and freely choose their economic, social and cultural development), Equality of rights of men and women, Right to life, Equality before the law, Freedom from torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment, slavery, compulsory labour, arbitrary arrest and detention. Right to a fair trial if accused plus several other human rights. (States which are party to the Covenant promote, protect, observe and take all other steps to this end.)	Signed by Tuvalu	First report not yet submitted
a) First Optional Protocol	Enables the Human Rights Committee set up under the Covenant (HRC) to receive and consider communications from individuals in countries which are party to the Covenant who claim HR violations after all domestic remedies of HR have been exhausted		
b) Second Optional Protocol (1989)	Abolition of the death penalty. No one within the jurisdiction of a State party to the Protocol may be executed. HRC is competent to receive and consider communications from individuals unless the State party opted out of this concession at the time of ratification		
2. International Covenant on Economic, Social & Cultural Rights [A: 1966, F: 1976]	Rights to Self Determination (people freely determine their political status and their economic, social and cultural development), Equal rights of men and women. Without discrimination on any ground whatsoever enjoying the following rights among others. Right to work , just and favourable conditions of work, fair wages, decent living conditions, healthy working conditions, rest, leisure and social security. Right to form and join trade unions , to freely pursue economic, social and cultural development. States which are party to the Covenant promote, protect, observe and take all other steps to this end	Not signed or ratified by Tuvalu	No action by any Pacific Island Country (PIC) except Solomon islands
3. Convention on the Prevention & Punishment of the Crime of Genocide [1948]		Not signed or ratified by Tuvalu	
4. Convention Relating to Status of Refugees [1961]		Not signed or ratified by Tuvalu	No action by any PIC
5. International Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination [1965]		Not signed or ratified by Tuvalu	

Name of Instrument	Content Highlights and Goals to Achieve	Status of Ratification-Signature	Remarks
6 Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women [1979]	<i>Tuvalu Beijing +5 Progress Report</i> prepared May 2000	CEDAW ratified July 1999	
7 Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment [1984]		Not signed or ratified by Tuvalu	
8 Convention on the Rights of the Child [1989]	A National Advisory Committee for Children (NACC) has been established and is active	CRC ratified July 1995	First report prepared in draft
9 ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (Declaration comprises the eight Conventions listed below)	All members of the ILO even if they have not ratified the conventions in question, have an obligation to respect, promote and to realise in good faith and in accordance with the constitution, the principles concerning fundamental rights which are the subject of those conventions, namely: a) Freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining b) Elimination of all forms of compulsory labour c) Effective abolition of child labour d) Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation Convention 87 (1948) Freedom of Association & Right to Organise Convention 98 (1949) Right to Organise & Collective Bargaining Convention 29 (1930) Protection against Forced Labour Convention 105 (1957) Abolition of Forced Labour Convention 100 (1951) Equal Remuneration for Men & Women for Equal Work Convention 111 (1958) Discrimination: Employment & Occupation Convention 138 (1973) Minimum Age for Work Convention 182 (1999) Prohibiting the Worst Forms of Child Labour	Tuvalu is not a member of the ILO and has thus not signed the ILO Declaration or its eight conventions.	
10 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families [1990]	Rights and freedoms including freedom to migrate for work, Freedom from forced labour, torture, practice of any religion, unlawful arrest and/or detention Right to equality before the law as citizens of the receiving country, Right against arbitrary expulsion, Right to equal pay, conditions of work, social security as citizens of receiving State, Right to transfer funds. (States which are party to the Covenant promote, protect, observe and take all other steps to this end.)	Not signed or ratified by Tuvalu	Convention is not in force

Annex 2D: Tuvalu's Status Regarding Key Regional Conventions and Treaties

There are a number of agreements among members of the Pacific Islands Forum (16 countries plus Australia and New Zealand) and several restricted to the 14 Forum Island Countries. The status of key agreements is summarised below. The Convention on the Law of the Sea (CLOS), the Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the Kyoto Protocol on greenhouse gases are not, of course, regional agreements but these are of particular interest to the island countries.

Note that most FICs (including Tuvalu) follow the British legal system: treaties do not necessarily enter into force when ratified; entry into force often requires a specific law passed by the Parliament:

“Ratification is the act of depositing an instrument of ratification certifying that the State making such a deposit is bound by the Agreement. In The British legal system, agreements are not self-executing and need to be incorporated by an Act of Parliament to have the force of law. Principles of customary international law, however, could apply as has been the case in Britain from which most of the FIC take their precedence.” (from Dec. 2001 e-mail message from Dr. Transform Aqorau, Legal Counsel, South Pacific Forum Fisheries Agency)

Convention or Treaty	Status Overall	Tuvalu Status
1) Trade & Economic Cooperation		
South Pacific Agreement on Regional Trade and Economic Cooperation (SPARTECA; 1980)	Entry into force: 01 January 1981 ¹	Signed 14 July 1980; ratified 4 May 1981; in force 3 June 1981
Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement (PICTA; 2001)	Not in force; Signed by 9 of 14 FICs and ratified by three ¹	Signed 18 August 2001; not ratified
Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations (PACER; 2001)	Not in force; Signed by 13 of 16 Forum members and ratified by four ¹	Signed 18 August 2001; not ratified
2) Environment & Resource Management		
South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone Treaty (Treaty of Rarotonga; 1985)	Entry into force: 11 December 1986; Signed, ratified & in force in 11 of 14 FICS and 13 of 16 Forum members ¹	Signed 6 August 1985; ratified 16 January 1986; in force 11 December 1986
Convention for Protection of Natural Resources ³ a) Protocol on dumping b) Protocol on pollution emergencies	Entry into force: 22 August 1990 Entry into force: 22 August 1990 Entry into force: 22 August 1998	Convention and protocols signed 4 August 1997; not ratified
Waigani Convention on Hazardous and Radioactive Wastes (1995)	Not in force; Signed by 14 Forum members and ratified by ten ¹	Ratified 21 September 2001
United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) ⁴ Agreement for the implementation of the provisions of the Convention relating to the conservation and management of straddling fish stocks and highly migratory fish stocks	Entry into force: 16 November 1994; Ratified by 13 of 16 Forum members Entry into force: 11 December 2001	No action ? Only the Solomon islands(?) is Party to the agreement
Convention for the Conservation and Management of Highly Migratory Fish Stocks in the Western and Central Pacific Ocean (WCPT, 2000)	Not yet ratified ² Signed by 15 of 16 FFA members	All PICs except Kiribati are signatories.
United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC, 1992)	Entry into force: 21 March 1994	Tuvalu (and all PICs but Palau & Tonga) has ratified.
Kyoto Protocol on Limiting Greenhouse Gas Emissions (1997)	Not in force; ratified by most Forum Island Members	Ratified

Notes and sources:

- 1 Information from Forum Secretariat as of 28 November 2001.
- 2 Requires ratification by three signatories north of 20° N and seven south of 20° S.
- 3 SPREP Convention & protocols signed and ratified by most Forum members plus France, UK and USA.
- 4 Information from Law of Sea website <www.un.org/Depts/los> as of 12 November 2001.
- 5 “The difference between the UN Fish Stocks Agreement and the WCPT Convention is that the former is an instrument of global application whereas the latter is regional. Further the latter is based on the former in terms of its jurisdictional scope.”

ANNEX 3: THE PROCESS OF PREPARATION OF THE TUVALU CCA

The CCA/UNDAF process began in October 2001 with discussions in Funafuti* with government officials,[±] members of civil society organisations and others. In November, the Fiji-based UN Country Team[•] agreed on several indicative key national development issues and cross-cutting themes for further consideration and analysis. A Tuvalu CCA/UNDAF Working Group, consisting of UN agency representatives based in Fiji, oversaw the production of an initial draft CCA, which was circulated to Tuvalu officials and the UN agencies for comment about 10 December.

From November 2001 through January 2002, the Working Group met frequently, the draft was reviewed, and inputs were invited and received from non-resident UN agencies, bilateral donors, multilateral agencies, regional CSOs, regional organisations and others. In December 2001, the UN Resident Coordinator chaired a meeting in Suva, Fiji to discuss the CCA/UNDAF process, progress, timing and related issues with several Tuvaluan government officials and a CSO representative.

In late January 2002, a two-day in-country CCA/UNDAF consultative meeting[◦] was held in Tuvalu involving a well-balanced mix of government officials, CSOs, in-country donors, UN agencies and others. The meeting reviewed a revised draft CCA and discussed: i) the key development themes and issues facing Tuvalu; ii), the Millennium Development Goals and their relevance – and the relevance of global MDG indicators – to Tuvalu; iii) activities of UN agencies and donors in Tuvalu; iv) a timetable for completing the CCA and UNDAF reports; v) means of improving UN in-country collaboration; and vi) possible broad areas for collaboration among UN agencies.

Based on the workshop, and further information collected in Tuvalu, the CCA was revised concurrently with the development of the UNDAF from February through mid April 2002. Both the 'final draft' CCA and UNDAF were completed during April.

* Interviews were carried out specifically for the CCA from 24 October - 1 November 2001. Additional inputs were obtained during earlier discussions regarding a draft Social Development Policy between 11 and 24 October.

± The main officials interviewed were: Tine Leuelu, Secretary for Foreign Affairs; Nielu Mesake, Actg. Energy Planner, MNRE; Ese Apinelu, Attorney General; Maseiga Peleti, Curriculum Officer, Education Department; Panapasi Nelesone, Secretary to Government; Seve Paeniu, Director, Economic Planning and Research; Dr Steven Homasi, Ministry of Health/Public Health; Misalaima Nelesone, Secretary for Health; Kelesoma Saloa, Deputy Team Leader/Waste Management, MNRE; and Metia Lotoala, Secretary for Commerce, Tourism and Trade.

• UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, UIFEM and WHO all serve Tuvalu from Fiji, UNESCO and FAO from Samoa, and the UN regional commission ESCAP from Vanuatu. Tuvalu is not a member of ILO.

◦ See *Report of the CCA/UNDAF In-Country Consultative Meeting Held with Government, NGO & Donor Partners at the Vaiaku Lagi Hotel, Funafuti: 22-23 January 2002* (UNDP, Suva, March 2002). The meeting was attended by 54 people (government 22, CSOs/NGOs 23, donors 2 and UN 7 representing UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and WHO).

ANNEX 4: ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACP	African, Caribbean, Pacific (developing countries affiliated with the EU)	IMF	International Monetary Fund
ADB	Asian Development Bank	IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome	LDC	Least Developed Country
AUD or A\$	Australian Dollar	NAFICOT	National Fishing Company of Tuvalu
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development	NGO(s)	Non-Governmental Organisation(s)
BELS	Basic Education for Life Skills	NZ	New Zealand
BPA	Beijing Platform for Action	NZODA	New Zealand Overseas Development Assistance
CCA	Common Country Assessment	PCRC	Pacific Concerns Resource Centre (Suva, Fiji)
CEDAW	Convention for the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women	PIC(s)	Pacific Island Country(-ies)
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency	PIDP	Pacific Islands Development Program (Honolulu, Hawai'i)
ComSec	Commonwealth Secretariat	PSRP	Public Sector Reform Programme
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child; Committee on the Rights of the Child	SOPAC	South Pacific Applied Geosciences Commission (Suva, Fiji)
CROP	Council of Regional Organisations of the Pacific	SPC	Secretariat for the Pacific Community (Noumea, New Caledonia)
CRP	Comprehensive Reform Programme	SPREP	South Pacific Regional Environment Program (Apia, Samoa)
CSO	Civil Society Organisation	STDs	Sexually Transmitted Diseases
ECREA	Ecumenical Centre for Research, Education and Advocacy	TANGO	Tuvalu Association of NGOs
EFL	Education for Life	TLDN	Top-Level Domain Name
EPOC	ESCAP Pacific Operations Centre (Port Vila, Vanuatu)	TMTI	Tuvalu Maritime Training Institute
ESCAP	Economic & Social Commission for Asia & the Pacific (UN)	TRCS	Tuvalu Red Cross Society
EU	European Union	TOSU	Tuvalu Overseas Seamen's Union
EWC	East-West Center (University of Hawai'i; host of PIDP)	TTF	Tuvalu Trust Fund
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation (UN)	TTFAC	Tuvalu Trust Fund Advisory Committee
FCCC	Framework Convention on Climate Change (UN)	UN	United Nations
FFA	Forum Fisheries Agency (Honiara, Solomon Islands)	UNCTAD	UN Commission on Trade and Development
ForSec	Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (Suva, Fiji)	UNDAF	UN Development Assistance Framework
FSPI	Foundation for the Peoples of the South Pacific	UNDESA	UN Department for Economic and Social Affairs
FTF	Falekaupule Trust Fund	UNDG	UN Development Group
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	UNDP	UN Development Programme
GEF	Global Environment Facility (UNDP, UNEP, WB)	UNESCO	UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
GoT	Government of Tuvalu	UNFPA	UN Population Fund
HDI	Human Development Index	UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
HDR	Human Development Report (UNDP)	UNIFEM	UN Development Fund for Women
HIV	Human Immune Virus	USP	University of the South Pacific
HPI	Human Poverty Index	WB	World Bank
HRD	Human Resource Development	WDR	World Development Report (WB)
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development (1994, Cairo)	WHO	World Health Organisation (UN)
ICPD-PoA	ICPD - Programme of Action	WTO	World Trade Organisation

ANNEX 5: KEY REFERENCES AND SOURCES

Annex 5A: Country Specific Materials on Tuvalu

1. Persons Interviewed (in person and/or in writing) in October-November 2001

Name	Position
Panapasi Nelesone	Secretary to Government
Tine Leuelu	Secretary for Foreign Affairs
Ese Apinelu	Attorney General
Misalaima Nelesone	Secretary for Health
Metia Lotoala	Secretary for Commerce, Tourism and Trade
Elisala Pita	Secretary for Natural Resources, Energy & Environment (MNRE)
Lina Petaia	Secretary for Local Government, Women and Youth (MLGWY)
Paani Laupepa	Assistant Secretary, Natural Resources, Energy & Environment
??	Government Statistician
Seve Paeniu	Director of Economic Research & Planning
Anthony V. Hughes, OBE	TTFAC member (UK)
Brian Bell	TTFAC member (NZ)
Garry Wiseman	TTFAC member (Australia)
Dr Steven Homasi	Director of Public Health
Nielu Mesake	Acting Energy Planner, MNRE
Mataia	Environment Officer, MNRE
Kelesoma Saloa	Deputy Team Leader, Waste Mgm't. Project, MNRE
Teuleala Manuella	Community Affairs Officer
Stephen J. Boland	Rural Development Advisor (ADB), MLGWY
??	Acting Director of Education
Maseiga Peleti	Curriculum Officer, Education Department

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Annex 5C: Internet Sources

Most of the information in this report came from the UN agencies based in the Pacific (Suva, Port Vila and Apia) and Tuvalu. However, quite a lot of information is now available for downloading from the Internet as the following list shows. Note that this listing contains items generic for several of the countries for which CCAs were prepared under the direction of the UN Country Team in Fiji, but not all. Tuvalu, for instance, is not a member of World Bank or International Monetary Fund.

Organisation:	Internet address:	Information downloaded:
Amnesty International	www.amnesty.org	Human rights
Asian Development Bank	www.adb.org	Economic development; environment
Australian National University	coombs.anu.edu.au/WWW/L-PacificStudies	Trade, globalisation and Pacific Islands
Basel Action Network (BAN)	www.ban.org	Toxic wastes; waste trade
Conservation International (CI)	www.conservation.org	Biodiversity
Food and Agriculture Organisation	www.fao.org	Forestry; fisheries
Friends of the Earth International	www.foei.org	Trade and environment
Greenpeace International	www.greenpeace.org	Toxic wastes, esp. POPs
Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)	www.ipcc.ch	Climate change
International Labour Organisation	www.ilo.org	Labour; employment data
Secretariat of the Pacific Community	www.spc.int	Various statistics
South Pacific Regional Environment Programme (SPREP)	www.sprep.org.ws	Environmental data; waste management
UNCTAD	www.unctad.org/en/docs	Global trade issues; data on LDCs
UNDP	www.undp.org/dpa/publications	Human Development Index, Misc. environmental indicators
UNIFEM	www.unifem.undp.org	Gender issues
UNESCO	www.unesco.org/whc	World Heritage convention
UNFPA	www.unfpa.org	Population data
UN High Commissioner for Human Rights	www.unhchr.ch	Human rights
United Nations Secretariat	www.un.org	Population forecasts from UNDESA
World Bank	www.worldbank.org	Economic and environmental data
World Health Organisation	www.who.int	Health statistics
World Trade Organisation	www.wto.org	Trade statistics