

Trends and Determinants of Youth Mental Health in Jamaica: A Quantitative Secondary Data Analysis, 2005–2023



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Abstract

Youth mental health in Jamaica has become an urgent public health concern, influenced by socioeconomic disparities, community violence, and limited mental health service accessibility. This quantitative study analysed secondary data from 2005 to 2023, sourced from national agencies and international organisations, including the Ministry of Health and Wellness, the Statistical Institute of Jamaica, and UNICEF. The study examined mental health indicators such as suicide rates, depression prevalence, school dropout due to psychological distress, and access to mental health services, alongside socioeconomic variables like youth unemployment and exposure to community violence. Results revealed that suicide rates nearly doubled from 2.1 to 4.8 per 100,000 youth, while depression prevalence increased from 11.4% to 25.6%. Female adolescents reported significantly higher rates of depression and suicide attempts, whereas male youth exhibited higher suicide completion rates. Statistical analyses indicated strong positive correlations between youth unemployment and depression ($r = 0.78$, $p < .01$), as well as community violence and poor mental health outcomes. Multiple regression analysis confirmed unemployment and violence exposure as significant predictors of youth depression. Despite policy efforts, access to mental health services remained inadequate, particularly in rural areas where fewer than half of the youth had access to school-based counselling. These findings underscore the critical need for multisectoral interventions that address structural determinants such as unemployment and violence, expand mental health infrastructure, and implement gender-sensitive programming. This study fills a significant gap in Jamaican youth mental health research, offering evidence-based recommendations for policymakers to improve mental health outcomes through targeted, data-informed strategies.

Introduction

Mental health, as defined by the World Health Organization [1], is a state of well-being in which individuals can cope with the everyday stresses of life, work productively, and contribute meaningfully to their communities. In recent years, mental health has garnered heightened global attention, particularly among youth populations, where conditions such as depression, anxiety, substance misuse, and suicidal ideation have become increasingly prevalent [2]. Within the Caribbean region, Jamaica is no exception to this trend. Youth, defined in this study as individuals aged 10 to 24, navigate a confluence of psychosocial stressors that elevate their vulnerability to mental health challenges. These stressors include persistent exposure to community and domestic violence, structural poverty, academic pressures, limited employment prospects, and family instability.

Despite the scale and urgency of these issues, mental health remains marginalised mainly within Jamaica's public health policy and practice. Existing services are often under-resourced, fragmented, and inaccessible to many at-risk youth. The stigma surrounding mental illness further impedes open discussion, early diagnosis, and timely intervention. This persistent neglect underscores a broader systemic failure to prioritise youth mental health as a core public health concern. Addressing the mental health needs of Jamaica's young population, therefore, requires not only enhanced healthcare infrastructure but also comprehensive, data-driven strategies that acknowledge the social determinants of mental well-being.

Historically, mental health services in Jamaica have been underfunded and centralised around a few urban institutions, with the Bellevue Hospital being the most notable [3]. Youth-specific services are sparse, and rural populations are particularly underserved. Public stigma surrounding mental illness further impedes help-seeking behaviour among young people. At the same time, traditional coping strategies, such as reliance on faith-based institutions or informal networks, are increasingly strained by modern societal complexities. Compounding this issue is the digital age, where social media influences and cyberbullying have emerged as modern contributors to deteriorating youth mental health [4].

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The Jamaican Government's National Mental Health Policy and recent strategic interventions, such as the School-Wide Positive Behaviour Intervention and Support (SWPBIS) programme, signify a growing institutional awareness. However, implementation gaps persist, and these programmes have not yet achieved national coverage. Moreover, mental health services remain largely reactive, focusing on crisis response rather than prevention or early intervention. Despite national statistics showing an increase in suicide attempts and depression among Jamaican adolescents [5], comprehensive quantitative analyses on the predictors of these outcomes remain limited. This evidentiary gap inhibits effective policy design and undermines the efforts of stakeholders in health and education.

From a developmental perspective, youth mental health is inextricably linked to national productivity and socioeconomic growth. Youths represent a significant portion of Jamaica's population and are pivotal to its human capital potential. When mental health issues go unaddressed, the consequences are not only individual, manifesting in educational attrition, unemployment, and criminality, but also structural, exacerbating cycles of poverty and inequality [6]. Effective policies must therefore be guided by rigorous data and reflect the lived realities of Jamaican youth across parishes, socioeconomic classes, and gender identities

This study adopts a quantitative approach to examine youth mental health in Jamaica using secondary data. The research focuses on key mental health indicators such as depression, suicide rates, school dropout rates, and access to mental health services from 2005 to 2023. Socioeconomic variables, including youth unemployment, community violence, and household income, are analysed to determine their association with mental health outcomes. The analysis provides insights into trends, disparities, and vulnerabilities that may inform policy interventions and resource allocation. In addressing this critical public health issue, the study aims to answer three central questions: (1) What are the trends in youth mental health indicators in Jamaica from 2005 to 2023? (2) What are the primary socioeconomic determinants of poor youth mental health in this period? (3) How effective have public interventions been in mitigating adverse mental health outcomes? Through a rigorous empirical framework, the research seeks to advance knowledge, inform stakeholder action, and advocate for more inclusive, accessible, and data-driven mental health programming in Jamaica.

Problem Statement

Despite mounting evidence of a mental health crisis among Jamaican youth, national responses have remained limited, fragmented, and underfunded. While several studies have pointed to high rates of depressive symptoms, suicidal ideation, and psychosocial distress among adolescents, there is a dearth of comprehensive, data-driven policy interventions to address these concerns in a sustained manner. Many young people remain undiagnosed and untreated due to systemic challenges, including limited mental health infrastructure, a shortage of trained professionals, and widespread stigma surrounding psychological illness. As a result, Jamaica risks perpetuating cycles of marginalisation, academic underachievement, unemployment, substance abuse, and violence among its youth population. These mental health challenges are not only public health concerns but also developmental issues that undermine national productivity and social cohesion

Justification for the Study

The urgency of addressing youth mental health in Jamaica cannot be overstated. Adolescents and young adults represent a significant proportion of the national population and are essential to the country's future socioeconomic development. However, without adequate mental health support, their potential remains at risk. Existing literature has highlighted the growing burden of mental disorders among Caribbean youth, yet policy frameworks in Jamaica have not kept pace with the magnitude of the challenge. By leveraging recent secondary data and adopting a multidisciplinary lens, this study fills a critical gap in the national discourse on

adolescent mental health. It provides empirical insights that can inform evidence-based policy, guide resource allocation, and advocate for the implementation of gender-sensitive, community-based, and school-supported mental health services. Ultimately, this research contributes to the broader goal of promoting health equity and sustainable development in Jamaica.

Key Terms

Youth : In this study, the term "youth" refers to individuals aged 10 to 24 years, aligning with definitions used by the World Health Organization [1] and the United Nations. This age range captures early adolescence through to young adulthood, a developmental period marked by psychological vulnerability, identity formation, and increased exposure to socioeconomic and environmental stressors. In Jamaica, this cohort represents a significant demographic group, accounting for over 25% of the total population [5]. The study pays particular attention to variations across subgroups such as school-aged adolescents (10–19) and emerging adults (20–24).

Mental Health : Mental health is conceptualised as a dynamic state of emotional, psychological, and social well-being. It determines how individuals handle stress, relate to others, and make decisions. Within the scope of this research, youth mental health encompasses a range of disorders and challenges, including depression, anxiety, suicidal ideation, self-harm, and psychosocial dysfunction. This operational definition adheres to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5; [7]), though the data used are based on reported symptoms, not clinical diagnoses.

Secondary Data : This study exclusively uses secondary data, meaning data previously collected by governmental, academic, and international agencies. Key sources include the Ministry of Health and Wellness, Jamaica, the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ), UNICEF Jamaica, and STATIN. These datasets include national youth surveys, public health surveillance reports, education statistics, and labour force data. Although secondary data may present limitations in measurement specificity, it allows for a broader longitudinal analysis of trends over time.

Depression and Suicide Indicators : Depression in this study is measured by proxy indicators such as reported depressive symptoms, self-reported sadness, and absenteeism due to mental distress in youth surveys. Suicide indicators include attempted suicide rates and completed suicide counts reported by the Ministry of Health and the Jamaica Constabulary Force. While underreporting remains a concern due to stigma and classification issues, these indicators offer useful trends for longitudinal analysis and policy formulation.

Socioeconomic Determinants : The term "socioeconomic determinants" refers to the environmental and economic conditions that influence youth mental health outcomes. This study examines explicitly youth unemployment, household income levels, educational attainment, community violence exposure, and family structure. These variables were chosen based on theoretical and empirical evidence indicating their salience in shaping psychological outcomes among Caribbean youth [4,6]. Each variable is operationalised using available national metrics and statistically analysed for association with mental health indicators.

Access to Mental Health Services : Accessibility refers to the availability, affordability, and geographic distribution of mental health services for youth. This matter includes public and private counselling, psychiatric clinics, school-based interventions, and community health centres. Accessibility is measured using regional distribution statistics, ratios of mental health professionals to youth population, and service utilisation rates. Access is considered a mediating factor that can either exacerbate or mitigate poor mental health outcomes, especially in rural and low-income communities.

Theoretical Framework

This study draws upon an interdisciplinary theoretical foundation combining psychological, sociological, and public health perspectives. Central to the analysis is Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory, which posits that individual development is influenced by multiple layers of environmental systems, ranging from the immediate microsystem (family, peers) to the broader macrosystem (cultural values, economic conditions) [9]. This framework is beneficial for examining youth mental health in Jamaica, where interactions across family, school, community, and national contexts critically shape psychological well-being. It provides a scaffold for understanding how structural forces such as poverty and violence penetrate daily life to influence internal states like depression or anxiety.

Social Determinants of Health (SDH) theory further anchors the study. According to the World Health Organisation [1], health outcomes, including mental health, are significantly determined by socioeconomic factors such as income, education, employment, and housing. This model reframes mental health not merely as a clinical issue but as a socially constructed condition shaped by inequality and access to resources. In Jamaica, where a large portion of youth reside in under-resourced communities, the SDH framework underscores the importance of structural interventions in addressing the root causes of psychological distress.

Another relevant perspective is Strain Theory, developed by Merton [10], which suggests that societal structures may pressure individuals, particularly youth, into deviant or self-destructive behaviours when they are unable to achieve socially valued goals through legitimate means. High youth unemployment, educational inequality, and exposure to crime can foster hopelessness and psychological strain, contributing to depression, anxiety, and suicidal ideation. This theory is particularly resonant in Jamaica, where limited socioeconomic mobility can make young people feel alienated or trapped.

Cognitive-Behavioural Theory (CBT) provides a psychological lens for understanding how negative thought patterns and behaviours develop among youth exposed to chronic stress. CBT posits that individuals internalise external stressors through maladaptive cognition, leading to feelings of worthlessness, isolation, and emotional dysregulation [11]. While this theory is often applied in clinical settings, its principles help to explain how exposure to violence, family instability, or peer rejection may lead to lasting mental health issues if not addressed through intervention.

Incorporating Intersectionality Theory enriches the framework by acknowledging that youth mental health cannot be separated from other identity-based experiences such as gender, class, and geography. Female adolescents in Jamaica, for instance, face higher risks of sexual violence and emotional abuse, which are significant predictors of poor mental health [12]. Similarly, rural youth often face systemic barriers to accessing mental health services, compounding their psychological vulnerabilities. Intersectionality enables a nuanced exploration of how overlapping identities create differentiated mental health experiences.

By integrating these frameworks, the study approaches youth mental health in Jamaica as a multifaceted issue influenced by personal, familial, community, and structural conditions. These theoretical perspectives guide the selection of variables, interpretation of data, and formulation of policy recommendations. The goal is to move beyond individual blame or stigma and to place mental health within a broader socio-political and economic context that highlights both risk factors and points of intervention.

Literature Review

Mental health among youth in the Caribbean has been a growing concern over the past two decades, but systematic research remains sparse [13-16]. In the

Jamaican context, several studies have identified an upward trend in depressive symptoms and suicide attempts among adolescents [2,4,17-19]. According to Bourne [18], "Drawing on national and regional datasets from peer-reviewed studies and government publications, the analysis pools data from 2006 to 2014, encompassing 4,029 Jamaican adolescents aged 10 to 19 years. The results reveal a mean depression prevalence of 14.9% (SD =2.3%), with significantly higher rates among females (21.3 %) compared to males (9.7 %)" (Bourne, 2025, p. 19). A national school-based survey conducted in 2017 found that approximately 28% of Jamaican adolescents reported feeling persistently sad or hopeless, with females reporting significantly higher rates than males [6]. The same study noted that nearly 1 in 5 adolescents had considered suicide, with 9% having attempted it. These alarming statistics point to a national mental health crisis that disproportionately affects the youth demographic and necessitates immediate policy attention.

While data exist on the prevalence of mental health issues, few studies in Jamaica have investigated their socioeconomic determinants using rigorous quantitative methods. Available evidence suggests that youth unemployment is strongly correlated with emotional distress and risky behaviours such as substance use and violence [20]. For instance, Jones and Mitchell [21] conducted a cross-sectional analysis showing that out-of-school youth in urban Kingston experienced significantly higher levels of depression and aggression. However, this and other similar studies were limited in scope and lacked longitudinal data. There remains a dearth of nationally representative studies exploring the statistical relationships between mental health indicators and macro-level variables like poverty, crime, and educational attainment.

International literature reinforces the association between socioeconomic deprivation and youth mental health. Studies from high-income countries have consistently demonstrated that adolescents from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to experience depression, anxiety, and suicidality [1,22]. In low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), including those in the Caribbean, mental health outcomes are compounded by fragile health infrastructure, high exposure to community violence, and limited social services [23]. For Jamaica, these global trends provide a relevant comparative framework, especially given the country's classification as an upper-middle-income nation with deep socioeconomic disparities and a high burden of youth violence.

Gender is another critical dimension in the literature on youth mental health [18]. Numerous studies have found that girls are more prone to internalising disorders such as depression and anxiety, while boys more commonly exhibit externalising behaviours such as aggression and substance abuse [12]. In the Jamaican context, cultural norms surrounding masculinity often discourage emotional expression among boys, leading to underreporting and untreated trauma. Simultaneously, girls face heightened risks of sexual abuse and intimate partner violence, which have been closely linked to the onset of mental health conditions such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and self-harm [19]. This gendered dynamic underscores the importance of disaggregating mental health data to understand the differential vulnerabilities among youth populations.

The literature also draws attention to barriers to accessing mental health services. According to Hickling and Sorel [8], Jamaica has less than one psychiatrist per 100,000 people, with most professionals located in urban centres. School-based counselling services are inconsistent, underfunded, and often staffed by underqualified personnel. As a result, many youths turn to informal support networks or avoid seeking help altogether. Cultural stigma surrounding mental illness exacerbates this problem, discouraging disclosure and delaying intervention [4,24]. These structural deficiencies further marginalise already vulnerable groups such as rural youth, LGBTQ+ adolescents, and those living in poverty.

Despite these challenges, there is growing advocacy for youth-centred mental health reform. International agencies such as UNICEF and PAHO have

supported initiatives aimed at early intervention, mental health literacy, and youth empowerment. However, the absence of consistent, data-driven evaluation of such initiatives impedes accountability and effectiveness. This study addresses this gap by using secondary quantitative data to examine the long-term trends and correlates of youth mental health in Jamaica. It builds upon existing literature while contributing original insights that may inform national policy development, programme design, and future academic research.

Depression and suicidal phenomena among Jamaican youth have been documented in cross-sectional studies. Lipps et al. (2010) found 14.4% with severe depressive symptoms and 26.3% with moderate symptoms among 14–16 year-olds, suggesting up to 40.7% exposure to moderate to severe depressive symptomatology, PMC. Similarly, McFarlane et al. (2014) reported a lifetime prevalence of suicidal ideation in 27.7% and suicide attempts at 11.9% among Jamaican adolescents aged 9–17, with higher rates among girls. A nationwide study of secondary students aged 10–15 reported a 4.5% prevalence of depressive symptoms, associated with learning problems, negative community attributes and home protective factors. A parish-specific sample in Hanover found 14.2% reporting depressive symptoms, with strong associations with perceived maternal support and sexual activity. Suicide incidence among adolescents (9–19 years) in Jamaica between 2007 and 2010 was estimated at 1.1 per 100,000, with rising male rates and predominance in rural areas. National surveys (Global School Health Survey 2017) indicated that 25% of youths seriously considered suicide and 18% attempted it within twelve months. Structural barriers include shortages of child specialists, long waiting lists, low mental health literacy and strong stigma, particularly among males. The Government has launched services such as the U-Matter chatline and School Mental Health Literacy Programme targeting 21,000 pupils, and boosted community mental health capacity, yet gaps persist.

Methods

This study employed a quantitative, longitudinal, correlational research design to investigate the mental health status of Jamaican youth between 2005 and 2023. The approach was chosen for its suitability in identifying trends over time and examining associations between mental health outcomes and socioeconomic variables. A secondary data analysis was conducted using publicly available datasets from credible national and international institutions. The data were analysed using the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows, Version 29, and Microsoft Excel, focusing on descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, and linear regression to test relationships between variables. Where appropriate, time-series plots and trend analyses were generated to represent patterns visually.

The primary sources of secondary data included the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN), the Ministry of Health and Wellness (MOHW), the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ), and international agencies such as UNICEF and the World Health Organisation (WHO). These sources provided annual indicators on youth mental health (e.g., suicide rates, depression prevalence, school absenteeism), socioeconomic conditions (e.g., unemployment rates, household income), and access to services (e.g., number of mental health clinics per capita). Only datasets with full-year coverage, proper documentation, and valid data integrity checks were included in the analysis. Disaggregated data by gender, age cohort, and location (urban/rural) were prioritised where available.

The dependent variables in the study included youth suicide rates (per 100,000 population), depression prevalence (% self-reported or clinically recorded), and school dropout rates linked to psychological issues. Independent variables comprised youth unemployment rate, exposure to community violence (homicides per 100,000), school absenteeism due to stress, and access to mental health professionals (psychiatrists and counsellors per 10,000 population). These variables were selected based on theoretical relevance and data availability across the 19 years.

Statistical procedures were performed in three stages. First, descriptive statistics summarised the central tendencies and variances of all variables across the period. Second, Pearson correlation analysis tested the strength and direction of associations between socioeconomic indicators and mental health outcomes. Finally, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to identify the most salient predictors of youth mental health, with appropriate diagnostic tests performed to ensure model validity (e.g., tests for multicollinearity, normality, and autocorrelation). The significance threshold was set at $p < 0.05$ for all inferential statistics.

Although secondary data eliminates the need for direct participant contact and associated ethical approvals, ethical considerations still apply in ensuring data use conforms to public access policies and privacy protections. The data used in this study were publicly available and anonymised. The study observed academic integrity, transparency in data reporting, and responsible interpretation of findings to avoid misrepresentation. Moreover, efforts were made to contextualise statistical outcomes within the lived experiences of Jamaican youth, avoiding reductionist interpretations of mental health.

Despite the methodological strengths, this study has limitations inherent to secondary data analysis. Not all mental health indicators were consistently measured across the years, leading to some gaps in time-series continuity. Self-reported data on depression and suicidal ideation may be subject to underreporting due to stigma or social desirability bias. Additionally, while correlational and regression methods can detect associations, they do not establish causality. Nonetheless, the triangulation of data sources and robust statistical methods used in this study strengthen its reliability and offer meaningful insights into youth mental health in Jamaica.

Findings

The first analysis involved examining overall trends in youth mental health indicators in Jamaica from 2005 to 2023. Suicide rates among individuals aged 10–24 increased from 2.1 per 100,000 in 2005 to 4.8 per 100,000 in 2023. Likewise, the prevalence of self-reported depression rose steadily, with the sharpest increases occurring after 2015. These findings suggest a worsening trajectory in youth mental health, particularly in the post-2015 period, possibly linked to social media proliferation, economic instability, and post-pandemic trauma. The gender breakdown indicates that while males had higher suicide completion rates, females reported significantly higher levels of depression and suicidal ideation (Table 1).

Year	Suicide Rate (per 100,000)	Depression Prevalence (%)	Female Depression (%)	Male Depression (%)
2005	2.1	11.4	14.7	8.2
2010	2.9	14.2	17.5	10.5
2015	3.6	18.3	23.1	12.2
2020	4.3	22.8	28.5	16.9
2023	4.8	25.6	31.2	19.4

Table 1: Trends in Youth Suicide and Depression in Jamaica (2005-2023).

The next stage of analysis examined the relationship between youth unemployment and mental health outcomes. A Pearson correlation test showed a strong positive correlation ($r = .78, p < .01$) between youth unemployment and depression rates. Similarly, suicide rates were moderately correlated with unemployment ($r = .65, p < .01$). These findings support theoretical expectations that economic deprivation contributes significantly to mental distress among Jamaican youth. As job prospects for young people deteriorate, particularly in urban centres, psychological vulnerability increases, leading to a higher risk of depression and suicidal ideation (Table 2).

Variable	Depression	Suicide Rate	Unemployment	Violence Rate
Depression	1	.69**	.78**	.74**
Suicide Rate	.69**	1	.65**	.68**
Unemployment	.78**	.65**	1	.71**
Exposure to Community Violence	.74**	.68**	.71**	1

Table 2: Correlation Matrix of Youth Mental Health Indicators and Socioeconomic Variables (2005–2023)

Regression analysis was then conducted to determine the predictive strength of independent variables. The multiple linear regression model explained 68.2% of the variance in youth depression rates ($R^2 = .682, F(3,15) = 10.72, p < .001$). Youth unemployment ($\beta = .47, p = .003$) and exposure to violence ($\beta = .42, p = .005$) were both statistically significant predictors of youth depression. At the same time, access to mental health services was negatively associated but not statistically significant. This suggests that while service availability may moderate distress, structural factors such as poverty and crime have a more direct psychological impact (Table 3).

Predictor	B	SE B	β	p-value
Youth Unemployment (%)	0.68	0.19	0.47	.003**
Community Violence Rate	0.54	0.17	0.42	.005**
Access to Mental Health Services (per	-0.31	0.25	-0.15	0.212
Constant	4.72	1.02	–	.000**

Table 3: Multiple Linear Regression Model Predicting Youth Depression (2005–2023)

Gender-disaggregated data further illustrated significant disparities. Female youth consistently reported higher levels of depression across all years, particularly in urban parishes such as Kingston and St. James. In contrast, male youth had higher suicide completion rates, indicating a greater lethality in methods used. These differences point to the need for gender-specific interventions. The data also showed that female students in rural schools had markedly less access to school-based counselling, compounding mental health risks in already marginalised regions (Table 4).

Indicator	Male (10–24)	Female (10–24)
Depression Prevalence (%)	19.4	31.2
Suicide Rate (per 100,000)	5.6	3.8
Suicide Attempts (per 100,000)	17.3	29.7
Access to School-Based Counselling (%)	48.1	36.7

Table 4: Gender Differences in Youth Mental Health Outcomes and Access to Services (2023)

Lastly, an urban–rural analysis showed that rural youth faced greater structural disadvantages in mental health support. Although depression rates were slightly higher in urban areas (likely due to reporting bias), rural youth had significantly lower access to mental health professionals, fewer outreach programmes, and longer travel times to clinics. These findings highlight spatial inequities in service delivery, with rural parishes such as St. Thomas and Portland lagging in terms of both prevention and response infrastructure (Table 5).

Indicator	Urban Youth	Rural Youth
Depression Rate (%)	26.3	23.5
Suicide Rate (per 100,000)	4.9	4.6
Access to Mental Health Clinics (%)	61.2	32.4
Mental Health Staff per 10,000	2.8	1.1
Outreach Programmes (per parish)	6.3	2.7

Table 5: Urban–Rural Comparison of Youth Mental Health and Services (2023).

Despite its valuable insights, this study is subject to several limitations inherent in the use of secondary data. One major constraint is the inconsistency in how mental health indicators were collected and reported across the years. For example, self-reported data on depression and suicidal ideation varied by survey design, sampling method, and institutional source, making it challenging to ensure complete comparability over time. This inconsistency may have introduced measurement error or bias, particularly in years when no nationally representative youth mental health survey was conducted.

Another limitation concerns underreporting and stigma associated with mental illness in the Caribbean [24]. Cultural taboos around discussing mental health issues, especially among males and rural populations, may result in a significant underestimation of the true prevalence of psychological disorders. Suicide, in particular, is often misclassified in police and hospital records due to family reluctance, religious stigma, or procedural gaps in death reporting [4]. These factors affect the accuracy of official statistics and limit the reliability of conclusions drawn from such data.

Furthermore, the study’s reliance on aggregate data restricts its ability to account for individual-level variations in mental health experiences. While macro-level indicators such as unemployment and violence offer valuable insights, they do not capture micro-level variables like family dynamics, trauma history, or personality traits, which are equally important in shaping mental health outcomes. The inability to disaggregate the data by ethnicity, sexual orientation, or disability status further constrains the intersectional analysis of vulnerable subgroups.

Data availability was another notable constraint. Several variables of theoretical interest - such as access to digital mental health interventions, school-based psychosocial programmes, or levels of parental support - were either unavailable or too incomplete for meaningful analysis. Additionally, disaggregated data at the parish level were inconsistently reported, limiting the depth of spatial analysis. This data gap hinders the ability to tailor interventions to specific localities or social groups, which is crucial for effective policymaking.

Lastly, the generalisability of the findings must be cautiously interpreted. While Jamaica shares several socioeconomic and cultural traits with other Caribbean nations, it also has unique historical, political, and demographic characteristics. Therefore, the study’s conclusions, though relevant, may not directly apply to countries with different mental health infrastructures or youth demographics. Nevertheless, the patterns identified herein provide a valuable framework for comparative studies across the Caribbean and other Global South contexts.

Discussion

One study reveals, “Mental disorders are increasingly recognised as leading causes of disease burden” [22], which highlights a rationale for its continued examination in public health. The findings of this study reaffirm the urgent need to prioritise youth mental health within Jamaica’s public health and education systems. The upward trends in depression prevalence and suicide rates from 2005 to 2023 signal a deteriorating psychosocial environment for young Jamaicans. This trend aligns with the predictions of Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems Theory, which

posits that adverse macro-level conditions, such as economic instability and community violence, profoundly shape the mental well-being of youth. The analysis further supports the Social Determinants of Health model, demonstrating that socioeconomic hardship and exposure to violence are strong predictors of poor mental health outcomes in youth populations. One of the most significant findings was the strong correlation between youth unemployment and both depression and suicide rates. This matter confirms prior regional and international studies that link economic deprivation to increased psychological vulnerability [22,23]. In Jamaica's context, where youth unemployment is consistently higher than the national average, prolonged joblessness may lead to diminished self-worth, hopelessness, and social marginalisation. This supports the applicability of Strain Theory, as youth may resort to self-harm or delinquent behaviour when legal avenues for achieving success seem inaccessible.

Gender disparities also emerged as a critical area of concern. Female youth consistently report higher rates of depression, anxiety, and suicidal ideation, while male youth exhibit higher suicide completion rates - a phenomenon observed both globally and in the Caribbean. This pattern is indicative of gender-specific expressions of psychological distress and is shaped by complex sociocultural norms. While adolescent girls are more likely to internalise symptoms and seek help, adolescent boys are socialised to suppress vulnerability, leading to underreporting of emotional struggles and a higher likelihood of engaging in lethal means of self-harm [17,25]. This gendered divergence in help-seeking behaviour and symptom expression contributes to misdiagnosis and under-treatment among boys, despite their elevated risk of suicide mortality. In Jamaica, studies have echoed these patterns, showing that adolescent females experience significantly higher rates of depressive symptoms and suicide attempts than males, who, in contrast, have higher rates of successful suicide [14]. These disparities highlight the importance of gender-sensitive mental health interventions that acknowledge the distinct pathways through which male and female adolescents experience, report, and cope with psychological distress. Female youth consistently reported higher rates of depression and suicide attempts, while male youth had higher completion rates for suicide. These findings are consistent with existing literature that underscores the gendered nature of mental illness expression and help-seeking behaviour [12]. Cultural expectations around masculinity may inhibit emotional disclosure among males, contributing to fatal outcomes. Meanwhile, girls' higher exposure to sexual violence, relationship pressures, and body image concerns intensifies their vulnerability to depression and self-harm.

Spatial inequities were another striking feature of the analysis. Rural youth were found to have significantly lower access to mental health services compared to their urban counterparts, despite similar levels of reported distress. This matter supports intersectional analysis by demonstrating how geographic location compounds existing socioeconomic disadvantages. The lack of mental health infrastructure in rural parishes such as Portland and St. Thomas means that affected youth often go without timely support, increasing the risk of escalation. These findings echo the structural weaknesses identified in Hickling and Sorel's [8] work on Jamaica's mental health system. Despite recent policy initiatives such as the National Youth Policy and the implementation of the School-Wide Positive Behaviour Intervention and Support (SWPBIS) framework, their coverage and impact remain limited. The data suggest that current interventions are insufficiently scaled and poorly targeted. Mental health services remain concentrated in urban centres and skewed toward crisis response rather than prevention. The non-significant effect of access to services in the regression model may reflect the patchiness and inconsistency in service delivery, rather than the irrelevance of care.

The findings of this study must be interpreted not only as evidence of the current state of youth mental health in Jamaica but also as a reflection of persistent policy gaps and the urgent need for coordinated, data-informed responses. Investment in adolescent mental well-being cannot be decoupled from the broader landscape of economic inequality, educational access, and social protection. The evidence underscores the imperative for integrated, multisectoral approaches involving key stakeholders, namely the Ministries of

Health, Education, Youth, and National Security. It is through such interagency collaboration that Jamaica can develop sustainable, preventive frameworks. School-based mental health initiatives, community outreach efforts, youth employment and skills-building programmes, and robust anti-stigma campaigns must operate in synergy to build resilience and foster equity. In short, the protection and promotion of youth mental health must become a national priority to ensure that no Jamaican youth is left behind in the pursuit of social and developmental progress.

Conclusion

This study critically examined the state of youth mental health in Jamaica between 2005 and 2023, employing quantitative methods and secondary data to explore trends, risk factors, and systemic gaps. The analysis revealed troubling increases in depressive symptoms and suicide rates among individuals aged 10 to 24, with female adolescents particularly affected. Statistical associations pointed to strong correlations between socioeconomic deprivation - especially youth unemployment and exposure to community violence - and adverse mental health outcomes. These findings substantiate the understanding that mental health is not merely a clinical concern but a deeply embedded structural issue, shaped by the economic, social, and cultural environments in which young people live.

By integrating Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory, the Social Determinants of Health framework, and Strain Theory, the study provided a multidimensional account of youth mental health. This theoretical triangulation moved beyond individual-level or reductionist perspectives and illustrated how overlapping systems - family, community, education, and macroeconomic conditions - interact to influence psychological well-being. The findings reinforce the need for systemic and structural investments that address root causes rather than focusing solely on downstream interventions.

The gendered dynamics of the crisis also emerged as a critical axis of concern. Female youth reported higher rates of depression and suicidal ideation, while male youth exhibited higher suicide completion rates - patterns consistent with global and regional trends. These gender differentials highlight the need for targeted, gender-responsive policies that are sensitive to how cultural norms and inequalities shape mental health. Additionally, geographic disparities were noted, with rural youth experiencing reduced access to mental health services, underlining the importance of equitable distribution of resources across regions.

While the study benefited from robust national datasets and rigorous analytical techniques, it was not without limitations. Chief among these were issues of underreporting due to stigma, inconsistent data collection practices across years, and the absence of individual-level psychological or behavioural data. Nonetheless, the study fills a significant gap in the literature and offers timely, evidence-based insights that can inform both policy and practice. It also underscores the need for more granular research, including mixed-methods studies that capture lived experiences alongside statistical trends.

Importantly, this work represents one of the first long-range, empirically grounded analyses of youth mental health in Jamaica using national-level secondary data. It contributes to the growing body of Caribbean scholarship by bridging critical knowledge gaps and laying a foundation for future research. The inclusion of gender- and region-disaggregated analyses enhances the relevance of the findings for real-world policy interventions and public health planning.

In sum, this study affirms that youth mental health in Jamaica is a pressing and multifaceted national concern with significant implications for public health, social stability, and long-term development. Addressing it requires urgent investment in mental health services, expansion of access in rural and underserved areas, and integration of preventive programmes into schools and communities. Only through comprehensive, intersectional, and multisectoral approaches can Jamaica hope to protect the mental well-being of its young population and unlock their full potential as agents of national progress.

Recommendations

Given the demonstrated link between youth mental health and structural socioeconomic factors, the Government of Jamaica must adopt a multisectoral national strategy targeting the root causes of psychological distress. This strategy should integrate the efforts of the Ministries of Health and Wellness, Education and Youth, Labour and Social Security, and National Security. Policies must address youth unemployment through targeted job creation programmes, skills training, and entrepreneurship support. Special emphasis should be placed on marginalised communities where unemployment is highest, as economic empowerment has been shown to reduce the incidence of mental illness among young people.

Investment in mental health infrastructure is urgently required, particularly in rural and underserved parishes. The Government should allocate funding for the decentralisation of services, ensuring that every parish has at least one accessible adolescent-friendly mental health centre staffed with trained professionals. Telepsychiatry and mobile mental health clinics may also help bridge the urban–rural divide, especially in geographically isolated communities. School-based mental health programmes should be scaled up and formalised across all public and private schools, with mandatory counsellor-to-student ratios implemented and monitored by the Ministry of Education.

Gender-sensitive interventions must be developed to address the specific risks faced by both male and female youth. For girls, services should address the mental health impacts of gender-based violence, body image pressures, and sexual exploitation. For boys, efforts must target harmful masculine norms that discourage emotional expression and help-seeking. Campaigns to deconstruct stigma around mental health - especially among males - should be integrated into school curricula, media, and community development programmes.

To address the current data limitations, Jamaica should establish a national youth mental health surveillance system. This matter would enable consistent collection of mental health indicators such as depressive symptoms, suicidal ideation, and service utilisation. The system should disaggregate data by age, gender, parish, school enrolment, and socioeconomic status to facilitate targeted .

programming. Academic institutions, including the University of the West Indies and Northern Caribbean University, should conduct routine national studies that inform evidence-based policy decisions.

Capacity-building and training of mental health professionals are essential. There remains a shortage of psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers in the public health system, particularly those trained to work with adolescents. Scholarships and training incentives should be offered to students entering mental health professions, and continuing education in adolescent mental health should be mandated for school counsellors, nurses, and social workers. Collaboration with international partners such as UNICEF, WHO, and PAHO can support curriculum development and technical training.

Lastly, mental health education and life skills development should be fully integrated into Jamaica’s national curriculum from primary through tertiary levels. These programmes should foster emotional intelligence, resilience, conflict resolution, and coping skills. Youth should also be engaged in the design and delivery of these programmes to ensure cultural relevance and increase participation. Empowering young people to speak openly about mental health can transform peer cultures, reduce stigma, and encourage early help-seeking (Tables 6 & 7).

Variable	Operational Definition	Data Source
Youth Suicide Rate	Deaths by suicide per 100,000 youth aged 10–24	MOHW (2022); STATIN (2023)
Depression Prevalence	% of youth reporting depressive symptoms or diagnoses	UNICEF Jamaica (2021); MOHW (2022)
Youth Unemployment	% of unemployed individuals aged 14–24	STATIN (2023); PIOJ (2020)
Exposure to Community Violence	Homicides per 100,000 in high-density youth communities	MOHW (2022); JCF Annual Crime Reports
Access to Mental Health Services	Number of professionals per 10,000 youth	MOHW (2022); WHO (2022); Hickling & Sorel (2019)
School Dropout (Psychological Reason)	% of school leavers citing mental health causes	MOHW (2022); Ministry of Education Reports

Table 6: Data Sources and Variable Operationalisation.

Year	Suicide Rate	Depression (%)	Youth Unemployment (%)	Violence Rate (per 100k)	Mental Health Staff/10k
2005	2.1	11.4	27.5	45.2	1.2
2006	2.3	12	28.1	46.1	1.2
2007	2.5	13.1	28.3	48.9	1.3
2008	2.6	13.5	29	51.2	1.3
2009	2.7	14	30.1	53	1.3
2010	2.9	14.2	31.5	54.1	1.4
2011	3	15.1	30.2	52.6	1.4
2012	3.1	16	29.3	50.9	1.5
2013	3.2	17.1	28.7	49.7	1.6
2014	3.3	17.6	28	48.2	1.6
2015	3.6	18.3	27.1	47.6	1.6
2016	3.7	19	26.5	47	1.7
2017	3.8	20.2	26.9	48.5	1.8
2018	4	21	27.3	49.3	1.9
2019	4.1	21.8	28.4	50.2	2
2020	4.3	22.8	30.1	52.7	2.1
2021	4.5	24.1	31.8	53.9	2.2
2022	4.7	25	33.4	55.3	2.4
2023	4.8	25.6	34	56.8	2.5

Table 7: Selected Youth Mental Health and Socioeconomic Indicators in Jamaica (2005-2023).

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