

Migration in the Republic of Fiji

A COUNTRY PROFILE 2020



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This publication was issued without formal editing by IOM.

Required citation: International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2020. *Migration in the Republic of Fiji: A Country Profile 2020*. IOM. Geneva.

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PUB2020/087/L

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A COUNTRY PROFILE 2020



FOREWORD

It is our pleasure to publish Fiji's first Migration Profile, titled *Migration in the Republic of Fiji: A Country Profile 2020*. This was prepared under the overall guidance of the Technical Working Group, co-chaired by the Fiji Bureau of Statistics and the Department of Immigration, with technical support from the International Organization for Migration (IOM).

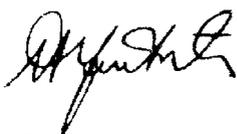
This Profile is the culmination of a series of consultations and data inputs from more than 40 government ministries, departments and institutions, high commissions and embassies, associations, United Nations agencies, academic institutions, academics and non-governmental organizations, as well as many more international and national online sources over a period of 18 months. It is the most comprehensive overview of migration into, out of and within Fiji and its impacts ever produced.

Producing a Migration Profile was born out of the Fijian Government's desire to better understand the migration dynamics facing Fiji as a country of origin, transit and destination in the Pacific. Data relevant to migration is captured across a wide range of ministries, departments and institutions, meaning that Fiji has experienced some challenges in ensuring this data is shared or analysed in a way that meaningfully supports policymaking. Following in the footsteps of more than 100 countries around the world that have developed their own Migration Profiles, this was developed in the hope of bringing together information from different sources in a structured manner and to provide a comprehensive overview of migration and its trends, characteristics and impacts for the first time. While doing so, the Technical Working Group and IOM have identified data gaps and made recommendations to improve data collection, sharing and analysis and understanding of the impacts of migration.

When this Profile was developed, utilizing data up to the end of 2019, the COVID 19 pandemic – which would later sweep the globe and disrupt migration flows throughout 2020, potentially changing them forever – was only just the beginning. While Fiji, at the time of writing, has mostly been spared from devastating public health impacts of the pandemic (having promptly closed ports of entry to visitors in March 2020 and subsequently instituted a wide-reaching, thus-successful COVID-containment campaign) the country has nevertheless suffered crippling economic impacts, including an unprecedented blow to the nation's usually-thriving tourism industry. If this Profile were to be produced today, it would tell a very different story about current flows of migration in Fiji.

Migration Profiles must be updated regularly and used for policy development to remain an effective policy-making tool. In Fiji’s case, this will be even more important. Migration Profiles capture a point in time, and this Profile shows the trends of migration up to the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic and what is now known as the “new normal”. We are pleased that the Technical Working Group, set up at the beginning of this process, proactively engaged to produce such a quality report. One of the recommendations of the report, that a group similar to this one continues to meet and guide migration policy and data discussions for the country as well as reviewing and updating this Migration Profile, has been accepted by the Technical Working Group – and we look forward to seeing how future Profiles will show Fiji’s recovery from the impacts of the pandemic.

We would like to thank the lead author, Ms Tara Brian, for consolidating and drafting the report; the IOM Country Office for Fiji, and in particular Ms Mahym Orazmuhamedova – the former Chief of Mission, Ms Manaini Rokovunisei and Ms Lee Yacoumis, Project Managers, for coordinating development of this Migration Profile; the IOM Research Unit for reviewing the report; Mr Simon Drought for his editorial expertise; the IOM Development Fund for its generous funding support; and, most significantly, members of the Technical Working Group, co-chaired by the Fiji Bureau of Statistics and Fiji Department of Immigration, who remained committed and provided such valuable inputs and guidance throughout the different phases of the Migration Profile’s development.



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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ACRONYMS

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ADB	Asian Development Bank
APTC	Australia Pacific Training Coalition
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CROP	Council of Regional Organizations in the Pacific
Dol	Fiji Department of Immigration
FBoS	Fiji Bureau of Statistics
FDI	Foreign direct investment
FEMIS	Fiji Education Management Information System
FJD	Fijian dollar
FNU	Fiji National University
FSM	Federated States of Micronesia
GBP	British pound sterling
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IBMS	Integrated Border Management System
IDMC	International Displacement Monitoring Centre
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MOU	Memorandum of understanding
MSG	Melanesian Spearhead Group
NCD	Non-communicable disease
NDP	National Development Plan
NEC	National Employment Centre
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NZD	New Zealand dollar
ODPP	Office of the Director of Public Prosecutions
PACER	Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations
PIC	Pacific Island country
PICTA	Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement

PIDC	Pacific Immigration Development Community
PIDF	Pacific Island Development Forum
PIF	Pacific Islands Forum
PIFS	Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat
PLMAM	Pacific Labour Mobility Annual Meeting
PLS	Pacific Labour Scheme (to Australia)
PMSC	Private military and security companies
PNG	Papua New Guinea
RSE	Recognised Seasonal Employer (to New Zealand)
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SIDS	small island developing States
SPC	Pacific Community (formerly South Pacific Commission)
SPREP	Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme
SWP	Seasonal Worker Program (to Australia)
TSLB	Tertiary Scholarship and Loans Board
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UoF	University of Fiji
UN	United Nations
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USD	United States dollar
USP	University of the South Pacific
WHO	World Health Organization

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The *Migration in the Republic of Fiji: A Country Profile 2020* was prepared by members of the inter-ministerial Technical Working Group, in close collaboration with a broad range of stakeholders and with technical support from the International Organization for Migration (IOM). This Migration Profile, a first for Fiji, is designed to enhance policy coherence, evidence-based policymaking and the mainstreaming of migration into Fiji's development plans. Its development was guided and supported with inputs by the Technical Working Group of 13 government ministries and institutions.

The following pages provide an overview of trends, impacts and governance of migration in Fiji up to the end of 2019. The data used in the analysis were collected from various sources, ranging from Fiji's national Population and Housing Censuses and national surveys to administrative records, academic research and relevant national and international sources. As a result, this landmark Profile delivers one of the most comprehensive overviews of migration trends and their impacts on Fiji to date. Future reviews and updates of this Migration Profile can be guided by the Fiji Migration Data Collection Toolkit, published separately.

The Profile is comprised of four parts:

- **Part A: Migration trends and characteristics** provides data and analysis of migration trends in Fiji
- **Part B: Impacts of migration** describes the impact of migration on key socioeconomic and development indicators
- **Part C: Governance of migration** presents an overview of migration governance in Fiji
- **Part D: Recommendations** presents key steps and initiatives for consideration by policymakers

Migration trends

As a small island country in the Pacific, migration is an opportunity and a necessity for Fiji and has an important place in the country's history and contemporary development. From the mid-1800s, the development of Fiji's cotton, copra and sugar industries was supported by large-scale immigration of workers from Melanesia and indentured labourers from British India, known as "girmit", which increased under British colonial rule and continued until 1916. In the decades following Fiji's independence in 1970, tens of thousands of

Fijians (the majority of which were Indo-Fijians) left the country permanently due to acts of race-based violence, ethnic discrimination, political oppression and disenfranchisement. More recently, emigration has involved temporary and circular migration mainly to Australia and New Zealand, but also an expanding array of destinations. Immigration is relatively minor, but fills vital gaps in Fiji's labour market. This Profile found there is a need to continue working strategically towards enhancing the opportunities available through migration, while mitigating challenges such as loss of skills.

Despite its history, Fiji is now primarily a country of emigration, with emigrants outnumbering immigrants since the 1950s. That being said, Fiji hosts more immigrants than any other Pacific Island nation except Papua New Guinea and attracts workers and students mainly from Asia and the Pacific. United Nations data reported up to 14,000 immigrants lived in Fiji in 2019. Fiji is a hub for tertiary education in the Pacific Islands and hosts several thousand students in its universities and colleges each year. Immigrants also work in specialist and skilled professions, international organizations as well as agriculture, construction and tourism. Most acquisitions of Fijian citizenship, other than by birth, are by children born to Fijian citizens overseas or former Fijian citizens following the introduction of dual citizenship in 2009.

Emigrants from Fiji were estimated to exceed 222,000 in mid-2019 and almost all were located in four countries: Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States of America. Permanent emigration in the 1970s through to the early 2000s to Pacific rim countries, largely Fijians of Indian descent, contributed to declining growth rates in Fiji's population and shifts in the ethnic composition of the country. It also caused pronounced skills shortages in certain professions, particularly architecture, education, engineering and health care. Over the past two decades, these flows have given way to predominantly economically motivated migration, including an increasing prevalence of temporary migration, mostly to Australia and New Zealand through permanent skill streams or an expanding set of programmes for seasonal and temporary labour. Emigration to other Pacific Island countries remains limited.

Impacts of migration

Remittances from Fijians abroad have assumed an important place in the economy and have been shown to have positive and significant effects in driving long-term economic growth. In particular, they contribute to poverty reduction and mitigate the impacts of domestic economic shocks, such as those caused by natural disasters. Remittances have drawn more Fijians into the cash economy (with varied impacts) and formal banking systems, and have also had positive

impacts on social indicators, such as schooling. Migration has also led to social challenges, however, including separation of families, depletion of able-bodied young people from rural areas, and changes in community and family dynamics.

Skill losses through emigration have been a particular concern for Fiji's small labour market. During the waves of emigration that followed several coups d'état between the 1980's and 2000's, crucial sectors such as education and health care were hard-hit by the emigration of skilled workers and professionals, and today's skill-based migration programmes in Australia, New Zealand and elsewhere continue to attract the most qualified professionals. However, research suggests skill losses may be less than assumed from emigration figures alone: the prospect of migration may encourage young people to stay in school and receive more training resulting in a net increase in skill levels in Fiji's domestic labour supply because not all of these people will in fact emigrate.

Rural-to-urban migration has characterized internal migration in Fiji in recent decades, with the country's population shifting from 63 per cent rural in the mid-1970s to almost 56 per cent urban just 40 years later. This has led to increasing numbers of informal settlements and urban poverty. The effects of climate change on low-lying communities, coastal agriculture and fisheries is likely to exacerbate these trends. Several communities have undergone planned relocations to higher and safer ground, although this remains a last-resort option in Fiji's climate adaptation strategies.

Flows of asylum seekers, into and out of Fiji, are limited. Trafficking in persons in, through and to Fiji is an ongoing challenge, and includes trafficking of children in Fiji for work and sexual exploitation. Irregular migration in Fiji is largely from over-stayers, often visitors who remain beyond the expiry of their visas.

Migration governance

Fiji has ratified most key migration-related international conventions, and written them into domestic law, the most recent being the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers. Fiji's primary domestic laws governing migration – the Immigration Act, Passport Act, and Citizenship Act – are currently under review. Legislation does not ensure full access to social protections for migrants, asylum seekers or refugees in Fiji, and counter-trafficking laws must be harmonized to criminalize all forms of the offence. While workers' rights are enshrined in domestic law, the government continues to face challenges in implementing protections for exploited workers in the country and is actively exploring solutions. Fiji has taken a leadership

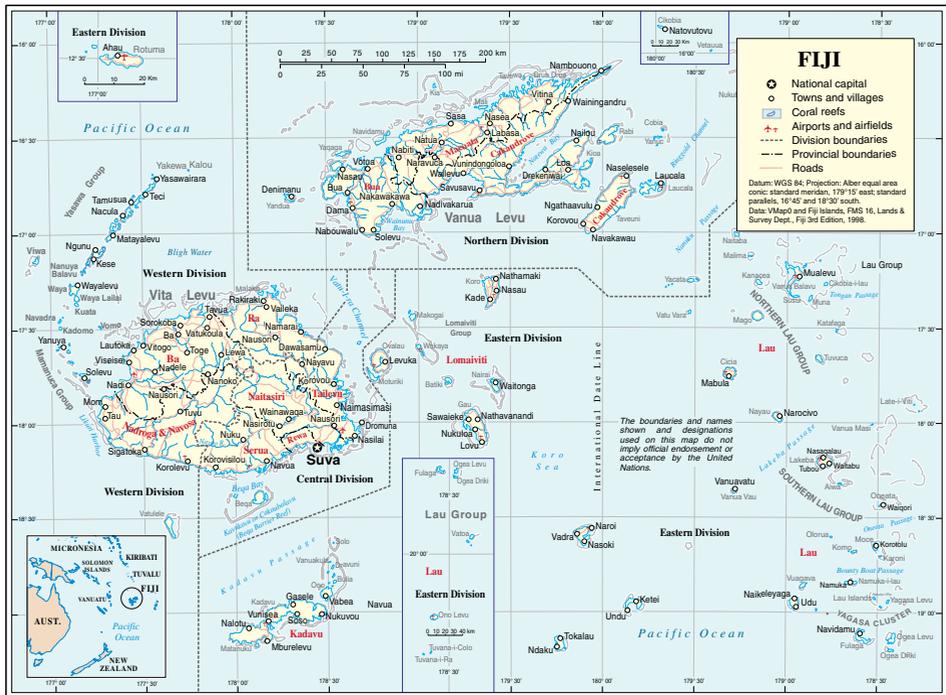
role in the international community to achieve Target 8.7 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to combat modern slavery, trafficking in persons, forced labour and child labour. Fiji participates in several regional and bilateral labour mobility agreements and is proactive domestically and internationally in addressing climate change-related migration.

Key findings

The Technical Working Group, while discovering the availability of accurate and up-to-date migration data in the country to be limited, proceeded to identify challenges, gaps and opportunities for the Fijian Government's consideration.

While data on migration and its impacts on Fiji are developing, challenges remain in achieving efficient collaboration between ministries and the regular collection, analysis and publication of data. Efforts must also be made to enhance policymakers' ability to access, understand and utilize existing data to become fully cognizant of the scope and impact of migration on the country and to develop evidence-based policies in response. National data collection on immigrants in Fiji and their characteristics is limited and commonly delayed publication reduces the data's utility for policy. Specialized surveys on outcomes of Fijian workers returning from abroad, impacts of remittances and community impacts following labour emigration would help to refine labour migration strategies and mitigate problematic areas. Policy-related recommendations include enhancing social protections for migrants and victims of trafficking in Fiji, developing a strategic approach to labour mobility and supporting the effective reintegration of returnees into the labour market, amongst others. Full recommendations addressing data and policy are presented at the end of the report in **Part D: Recommendations**.

MAP AND KEY FIGURES: FIJI



Source: United Nations, Department of Field Support Cartographic Section, map no. 4371.

Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the International Organization for Migration.

Geography and key facts	
Official name	Republic of Fiji
Area	18 272 square kilometres, encompassing more than 300 islands (110 permanently inhabited)
Capital city	Suva
Administrative distribution	Four divisions, and Rotuma
Currency	Fijian dollar
Official language(s)	English, Fijian, Fiji Hindi
Recognized regional language	Rotuman
Religious composition of population ^a	64.4% Christianity 27.9% Hinduism 7.7% Other religions

Human and social development					
	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Life expectancy at birth (years) ^b			69.8		
Adult literacy rate, % aged 15 and above ^c			99.1		
GDP per capita, Purchasing power parity current international dollars ^d	12 412	12 632	13 529	14 134	14 428
Human Development Index (0-100) ^e	0.718	0.718	0.721	0.724	
Remittances and other financial flows					
	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Remittance inflows, millions, current USD ^f	251.18	269.11	274.23	285.45	286.59
Remittance outflows, millions, current USD ^g	9.67	13.02	14.92	15.73	11.26
Remittance net flows, millions, current USD	241.51	256.10	259.31	268.94	275.33
Remittance inflows as percentage of GDP (%) ^h	5.4	5.5	5.1	5.2	5.2
Net official development assistance received, millions, current USD ⁱ	102.48	117.42	145.89	111.11	-3
Population					
	1985	1995	2005	2015	Most recent ²
Total ^{l,1}	715 375	775 077	837 271	884 887	884 887
% Male	50.7	50.8	51.0	50.7	50.7
% living in urban areas	38.7	46.4	50.7	55.9	55.9
Population growth, average annual rate (%)	2.0	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6
International migrant stock ^k	13 103	13 001	12 435	13 751	14 038
Net international migration rate, per 1,000 population ^{l,3}	-3.8	-9.0	-14.4	-12.0	-7.0

Sources:

- (a) Fiji Population and Housing Census, 2007
(b) Fiji Bureau of Statistics, 2020b
(c)(d)(f)(g)(h)(i) World Bank, World Development Indicators database (accessed 8 July 2020)
(e) UN Development Programme, Human Development Reports database (accessed 8 July 2020)
(j) Fiji Bureau of Statistics, 2020b
(k)(l) UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019

Notes:

- (1) Censuses were carried out in Fiji in 1986, 1996, 2007 and 2017. As such, data on population only approximately corresponds to years indicated in the table.
(2) Data on population are from the Fiji 2017 Population and Housing Census; migrant stock data are UN estimates for 2019; net migration rate is an estimate for 2015–2020.
(3) Refers to net migration rate over the previous five years, i.e. -3.8 refers to the rate between 1980 and 1985.

INTRODUCTION

Migration has played an important role in Fiji's history and contemporary development. From the mid-1800s, Fiji underwent a period of large-scale immigration that was instrumental in the development of its copra, cotton and sugar industries. This was followed by mass emigration, mainly of Indo-Fijians, after the country's independence in 1970 and spurred by political instabilities. Contemporary emigration dynamics have included increased temporary migration to a growing range of destinations, driven by labour opportunities. Remittances from migrants working abroad have become an essential source of foreign exchange in Fiji's economy and have helped to alleviate poverty and encourage human capital development. Fiji also battles skill losses due to migration, and waves of emigration in the 1980s through 2000s saw the loss of up to half of its skilled professionals. Fiji is a hub among the Pacific Islands for work, education and training, and a major destination for tourists from around the world. Although modest in number, contemporary immigration has played a crucial role in Fiji, filling gaps in specialist positions, bolstering public services including medical care, stimulating foreign investment, providing a source of lower-cost labour and stimulating the economy through student migration. How to balance the development benefits that migration can bring, while fostering and retaining domestic skills and jobs, remains a challenge for policymakers.

The links between migration and development are recognized in the SDGs set out in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (the 2030 Agenda). Migration can be a generator of development and a challenge if not well governed. Migrants also face particular vulnerabilities and challenges that must be addressed if the fundamental aim of the SDGs to "leave no one behind" is to be realized. The most explicit migration goal in the 2030 Agenda is to facilitate "safe, orderly and regular migration and mobility including implementation of well-managed migration policies". Goals on health care and poverty reduction also call for consideration of migrants, for instance access to social protections and empowering migrants as agents of development. There are various references within the 2030 Agenda to the protection of the rights of labour migrants to ensure fair recruitment systems, adequate protections and freedoms, and to eliminate trafficking in persons for work or other forms of exploitation. Remittances, student mobility, and migration within the context of climate change are also addressed. Finally, there is a call for improved data on migration through disaggregation of numerous indicators by migratory status and nationality.

The importance of migration governance in contemporary politics and development processes is also highlighted in the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, adopted in 2018 by most United Nations member States, including Fiji. The Global Compact for Migration reflects unprecedented will and recognition at the global level of the importance of achieving well-managed, safe migration for the benefit of societies.

The intricate inter-relationships between migration and development recognized within the 2030 Agenda and the Global Compact for Migration call on governments to reach far beyond implementing migration policies, and entail integrating migration across governance sectors. This Migration Profile aims to stimulate such policy coherence in Fiji by bringing together actors from a range of ministries and institutions, including through the Technical Working Group, to examine what is known about migration in Fiji and devise strategies and priorities going forward as part of a comprehensive, evidence-based approach to migration in support of the development of the country and well-being of its population.

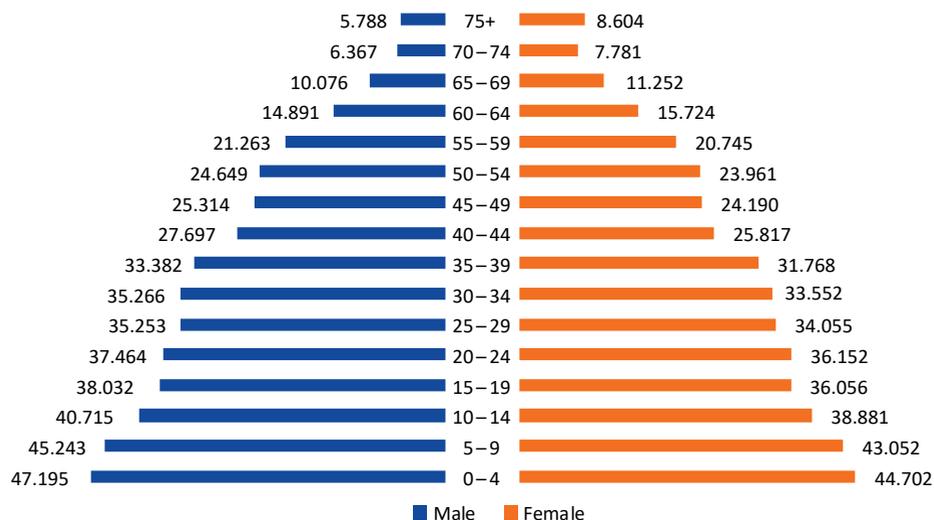
PART A: MIGRATION TRENDS AND CHARACTERISTICS

A.1 General population

Fiji's population growth rate has decreased over the last half century due to lower birth rates and emigration. Accelerating rural-to-urban migration means more than half of Fijians now live in urban areas.

Fiji's population more than tripled between 1950 and 2017, from 289,000 to 884,887 (FBoS, 2018b). However, since the 1970s, annual population growth has decreased in contrast to an increase in the population's median age, according to Fiji's 2017 Population and Housing Census. In 1976, the average annual rate of population growth was 2.1 per cent and half of Fiji's population was below 17.8 years old. In 2017, the rate of population growth was 0.6 per cent and half of the population was aged below 27.5 years (FBoS, 2018b). During the same period, the share of population living in urban areas increased from 37.2 per cent to 55.9 per cent (FBoS, 2018b).¹ The rural population has decreased in absolute numbers, shrinking by 5.3 per cent since 2007. Sixty per cent of people live in the predominantly urban provinces of Ba, Naitasiri and Rewa.

Figure 1. Age-sex structure of Fiji's population, 2017



Source: Fiji Bureau of Statistics, 2017 Population and Housing Census.

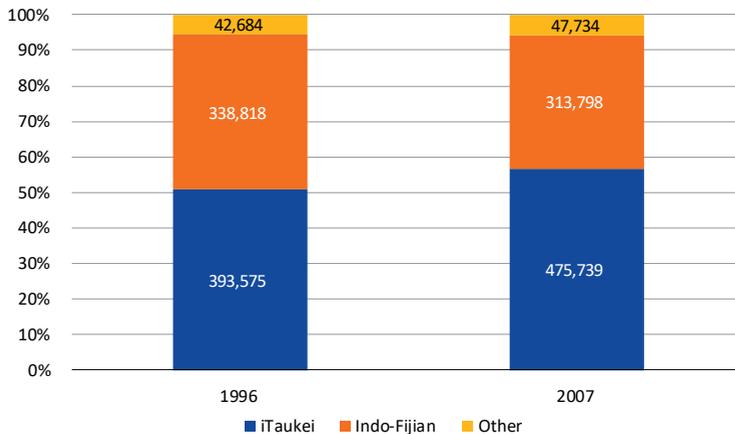
¹ Urbanization of Fiji's population was affected by the extension of urban boundaries (FBoS, 2018b:1).

Fertility rates began declining in the 1960s, with the total fertility rate dropping steeply from 5.6 in 1966 to 2.9 in 2017 (Gubhaju et al., 2013; FBoS, Registrar General’s Office and Ministry of Health and Medical Services, 2019). Meanwhile, the average life expectancy increased from around 65 years in the 1990s to 69.8 in 2017 – with differences between men (68) and women (72) (FBoS, 2020a). As of 2017, males accounted for slightly over half of the population (50.7%). However, women were more prominent than men in age groups over 60, indicating greater longevity among women (FBoS, 2018b).²

Data on the age structure between rural and urban populations shows working-age people are more concentrated in urban areas, particularly workers under 40, with children over-represented in rural areas.

Fiji’s population is primarily comprised of Fijians, including indigenous Fijians (iTaukei) and Fijians of British Indian descent (Indo-Fijians),³ with a small minority of other ethnicities. Data on ethnicity collected in the 2007 census indicated 57 per cent of the population was iTaukei, 37 per cent of Indian ethnicity and 6 per cent of other ethnicities.⁴ This reflects a significant shift in the ethnic composition of the Fijian population, with the share of Indo-Fijians declining since the 1960s. This trend is due to high levels of emigration in the late 1900s and early 2000s, as well as significant differences in fertility rates between Indo-Fijians and iTaukei from the 1960s (FBoS, 2008).

Figure 2. Population of Fiji by ethnic group, 1996 and 2007



² Women accounted for 51.4 per cent of the population among Fijians aged 60-64 and close to 60 per cent over 75 years old.

³ The word “Indian” or Indo-Fijian denotes Fiji islanders of South Asian descent at the time India included present-day Bangladesh and Pakistan. While a tiny proportion of the population claims mixed ethnicity, intermarriage between the groups is rare (Chand and Clemens, 2019).

⁴ Others include: Other Pacific Islanders (15,311), Part European (10,771) and Rotuman (10,335).

iTaukei were less likely than Indo-Fijians and other ethnicities to live in cities, with 44 per cent in urban areas compared with 57 per cent of Indo-Fijians and 74 per cent of other ethnicities in 2007 (see Table 1).

Table 1. Population of Fiji by ethnic group and geographical sector of residence, 2007

Sector	iTaukei population	%	Indo-Fijian population	%	Others population	%
All	475 739	100%	313 798	100%	47 734	100%
Rural	264 235	56%	135 918	43%	12 272	26%
Urban	211 504	44%	177 880	57%	35 462	74%

Source: Author, based on 2007 Population and Housing Census, Fiji Bureau of Statistics.

According to the Fiji Bureau of Statistics (FBoS, 2018a), the 2017 census could not provide reliable updated information on ethnicity. While a question on ethnicity was included in the census, upon reviewing the results it was found the question had not been delivered appropriately by enumerators.⁵

Fifty-seven per cent of Fiji's population over the minimum working age of 15 was in the labour force, according to the 2017 census. There were substantial gender differences in labour market behaviour, with men's participation rate nearly double that of women's (76.4% versus 37.4%) and the former less than half as likely to be unemployed (2.9% versus 7.8%) (FBoS, 2018b).⁶ The largest sector in Fiji's economy is services, driven by tourism and related industries. Key primary industries include sugar production, fishing and aquaculture, mining and quarrying, while manufacturing dominates the secondary sector. Top commodity exports include bottled water, re-exports, gold, fish, timber, garments and sugar.

A.2 Key driving factors of migration and cross-border mobility

Fiji is a source, destination and transit country for migration. These patterns have been shaped by the country's history as a British colony, political upheaval during much of the four decades following independence, and its position as a small, remote country in the vicinity of the larger economic hubs of Australia and New Zealand. One of the most sophisticated economies among the Pacific Islands, Fiji attracts labour migrants and students from the region and beyond.

⁵ As reported by the FBoS: "It was found that many enumerators failed to verbally ask for the respondent's ethnic background. Instead data were collected based on the enumerator's observed assumption of the respondent's ethnicity. Many enumerators also assumed the entire household's ethnicity based on one household member, failing to account for households with multiple ethnicities. It was also reported by enumerators that many respondents refused to disclose their ethnic background".

⁶ The labour force consists of all who are 15 years and older engaged in paid or unpaid work or unemployed. The unemployed are those available or looking for work.

Migration patterns to and from Fiji can be grouped into three broad phases:

1. Mass immigration of labour migrants and indentured servants (“giritmit”) in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries;
2. Permanent emigration from the 1970s into the 2000s;
3. Temporary labour migration and contemporary immigration in the last 30 years (Mohanty, 2006).

In the second half of the 1800s, the growth of Fiji’s copra, cotton and sugar industries led to the large scale immigration of labourers from other Melanesian islands and British India. About 27,000 Melanesians were contracted – many through kidnapping or deception – into working in Fiji between 1865 and 1911 in a process known as “blackbirding” (Siegel, 1985 in Summy, 2009). Shortly after, colonial authorities recruited tens of thousands of men, women and children to come to Fiji – also relying heavily on deception – who would later be trapped and indebted as indentured labourers, largely working in the sugar cane industry and building the colony’s new infrastructure network. From the first arrivals in 1879 to the abolishment of the indentured labour system in 1920, an estimated 61,000 giritmit were brought to Fiji through the scheme, known as “giritmitiya”. Most remained after the expiration of contracts and settled in Fiji’s sugar cane belts, principally on the two main islands of Viti Levu and Vanua Levu. Some Melanesians also remained, with their population in Fiji estimated to be about 12,000 (Summy, 2009). After 1920, the bulk of Indian migration to Fiji was “free” and composed of Gujarati traders and Punjabi agriculturalists (Lal, 2003).

With time, Indo-Fijians reached similar levels of average income, health, and basic education as the indigenous iTaukei population (Chand and Clemens, 2019). By the end of the Second World War, Indo-Fijians outnumbered iTaukei, causing concern among iTaukei about their place and identity in their ancestral land (Lal, 2003). This trend was not reversed until the 1980s when Indo Fijians began emigrating in large numbers after they were targeted by politically and ethnically motivated acts of violence and legal discrimination.

Emigration of Indo-Fijians increased significantly after the 1987 coups, mostly to Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States

In 1987, Fijian military officers carried out two coups d’état. The new Government changed the constitution ensuring iTaukei control of the political system and enacted a series of measures that advantaged iTaukei over Indo-Fijians (Chand and Clemens, 2019).⁷ It was not until the adoption of a new

⁷ The changes spanned across politics, business, housing, labour, land and higher education (Chand and Clemens, 2019).

constitution in 2013 and restoration of democratic government in 2014 that all ethnic groups in Fiji were formally considered as a common citizenry: Fijian.

The rise in legal discrimination against Indo-Fijians precipitated waves of emigration, starting gradually in the 1960s and increasing through the 1980s and 1990s. Between 1978 and 1986, more than 17,000 Indo-Fijians emigrated at an annual average rate of 2,000. Between 1987 and 1999, the number increased to 57,000 at an annual average rate of 4,700 (Mohanty, 2017). Demographic geographer Mohanty estimated that 122,000 Indo-Fijians – about one third of the Indo-Fijian population – have left the country in the past four decades (Mohanty, 2017). The majority were skilled workers, professionals and their families (Chand and Clements, 2019). Most moved to United States and Canada in the earlier flows, and predominantly to Australia and New Zealand from the 1990s onwards (Lal, 2003).

Table 2. Emigration of Indo-Fijians 1978–2012

Year	Fijian-Indian migrants	Total Fiji citizen migrants	% Fijian-Indian migrants	Annual average Fiji-Indian emigration rate	Professional migrant workers			
					Fiji-Indian	Annual average Fiji-Indian	Fiji total	% Fiji-Indian to Fiji total
1978–86	17 358	20 703	83.8	1 929	-	-	-	-
1987–99	57 159	64 209	89.0	4 763	6 008	501	6 869	87.5
2000–07	37 174	43 113	86.2	4 647	6 749	844	7 446	90.6
2008–12	10 536	21 774	48.4	2 107	3 001	600	6 445	46.6
1978–12	122 227	149 799	81.6	3 595	-	-	-	-

Source: Mohanty, M. 2017, based on data from Fiji Bureau of Statistics, 1978–2012.

In the past three decades, emigration has been driven by labour migration of Indo-Fijian and iTaukei people, primarily to Australia and New Zealand, but also to where diaspora communities have been established in Canada and the United States. Since the 1990s, emigration has become more temporary and circular to an increasingly diverse set of countries and regions.

Contemporary immigration to Fiji is relatively limited, with foreign-born residents representing less than 2 per cent of Fiji’s population in 2019. Immigrants are mainly from Asia and the Pacific region, drawn by work and educational opportunities.

In terms of internal migration, displacement is driven by climate change impacts, such as sea level rises and extreme weather events. Planned relocations have also moved villages to safer ground. Driven primarily by economic factors and household efforts to diversify livelihoods, rural-to-urban migration is a key characteristic of internal migration.

The Fijian Government has embraced opportunities for temporary Fijian labour migration, in particular through Australian and New Zealand worker mobility schemes, with an emphasis on lower-skilled workers over fears of skill losses in needed sectors like education and health. Fiji has begun to encourage foreign investors and skilled immigration to boost the economy and supplement skills shortages. However, immigration policy remains relatively restrictive aside from that covering skilled professionals.

A.3 Immigration

Key data on immigration are compiled by the Department of Immigration (DoI), under the Office of the Prime Minister, with other ministries gathering information on specific aspects, such as trafficking in persons, irregular migration, student migration and foreign nationals in specific professional groups. Administrative data are held in Fiji's Integrated Border Management System (IBMS) and provide indications of immigration flows, as do data compiled from arrival and departure cards. The FBoS collects information on migrant stocks through its Population and Housing Census every 10 years, although data from the 2017 round were not available at the time the Migration Profile was prepared.

Stocks of immigrants

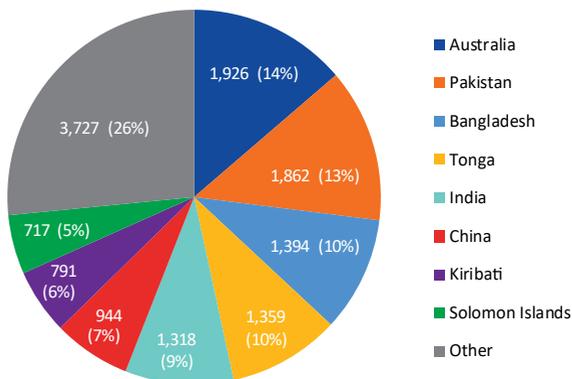
According to data from Fiji's 2007 Population and Housing Census, there were 13,090 foreign-born people living in Fiji. Most were from Australia (2,080), Tonga (1,044) and Asian countries including Pakistan, Bangladesh and China. Most lived in the provinces of Ba and Rewa on Viti Levu.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) Population Division compiles data on migrant stocks globally by origin and destination. Stocks for 2019 are calculated based on projections, not new data.

According to these estimates, there were just over 14,000 foreign migrants residing in Fiji in 2019, representing 1.8 per cent of the country's total population (UN DESA, 2019a). Total migrant stocks have actually decreased from the 1960s, when approximately 20,000 foreign-born people lived in Fiji. In 2015, Fiji had the second highest number of immigrants in the PIC region (22.5% of all immigrants in the region) after Papua New Guinea (42.2%) (ILO and ADB, 2017).⁸

⁸ PIC in this case includes: Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu.

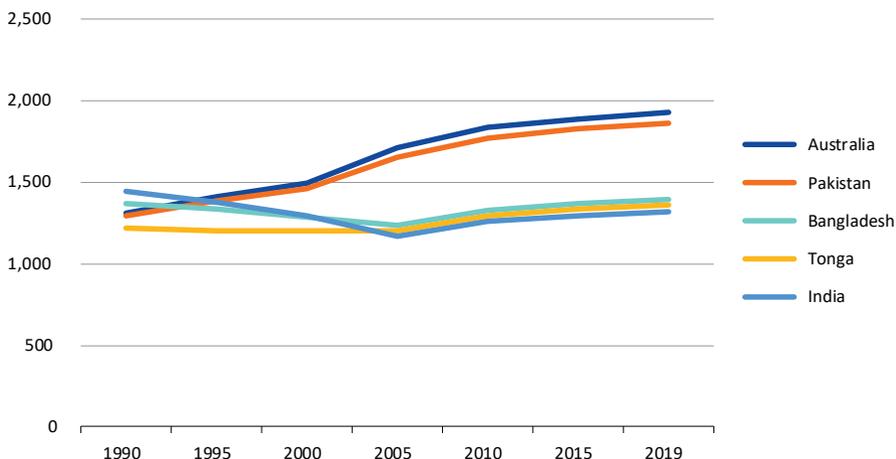
Figure 3. Migrant (foreign-born) stocks in Fiji by country of origin, mid-2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019.

According to the UN data, most immigrants in Fiji are from Australia (14%), Pakistan (13%), Bangladesh (10%), Tonga (10%) and India (9%) (see Figure 3). These five have been the main origin countries since the 1990s, with a fall in Indians contrasting with a rise in Australians and Pakistanis. Migrants from New Zealand and the United Kingdom fell by up to 50 per cent over the past 20 years (see Figure 4 and Table 3).

Figure 4. Migrant stocks from top five countries of origin, 1990–2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019.

Table 3. Migrant stocks in Fiji, top 10 countries of origin, 1990–2019

Country of origin	Migrants						
1990		2000		2010		2019	
India	1 443	Australia	1 489	Australia	1 832	Australia	1 926
Bangladesh	1 368	Pakistan	1 456	Pakistan	1 771	Pakistan	1 862
Australia	1 306	India	1 292	Bangladesh	1 326	Bangladesh	1 394
Pakistan	1 294	Bangladesh	1 287	Tonga	1 293	Tonga	1 359
Tonga	1 221	Tonga	1 199	India	1 255	India	1 318
New Zealand	1 211	New Zealand	870	China	898	China	944
China	848	China	833	Kiribati	753	Kiribati	791
United Kingdom	759	Kiribati	698	Solomon Islands	683	Solomon Islands	717
Kiribati	710	Solomon Islands	634	New Zealand	588	New Zealand	618
Solomon Islands	646	United Kingdom	528	Tuvalu	399	Tuvalu	419
Other	2 477	Other	2 433	Other	2 553	Other	2 690
Total	13 283	Total	12 719	Total	13 351	Total	14 038

Source: UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019.

Some nationalities are not fully captured in the above data. The Embassy of the Republic of Korea in Suva, for example, estimated 1,400 of its citizens lived in Fiji, principally in urban centres of Suva, Nadi and Lautoka. Korean migration began with entrepreneurs in the fishing industry in the 1980s and 1990s and was boosted by the more recent arrival of students and volunteers.⁹ There were 42 Malaysian citizens registered with the High Commission of Malaysia in Fiji in 2019. There are likely many other examples that could be shown.

Immigration flows – Permits issued

Fiji rolled out its current Integrated Border Management System (IBMS) in 2013. It facilitates collection, collation and exchange of data between government stakeholders concerned with border management. The system stores data useful for understanding immigration flows, such as issuance of permits, border entries, and applications for citizenship. Various other indicative data are not fully integrated into the system electronically, or specific modules available for use have not yet been activated, restricting access to certain types

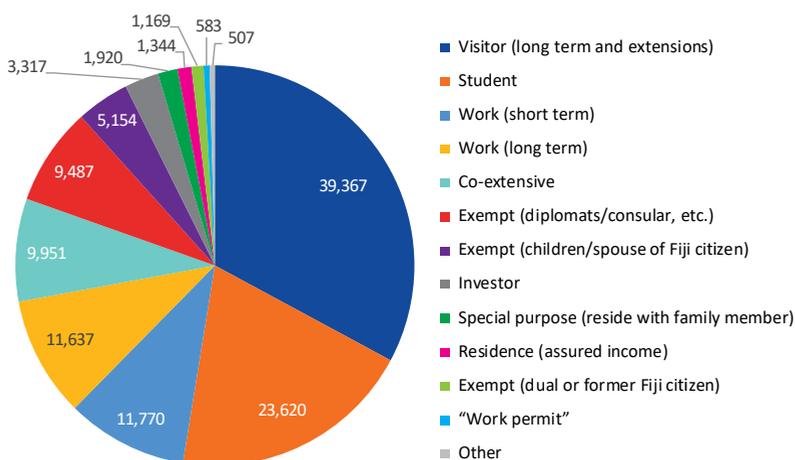
⁹ Dr Piotr Plewa interview with the Embassy of the Republic of Korea in Fiji, June 2019 for the purpose of this Migration Profile.

of data, such as immigration compliance and citizenship. The system does not include data on deportation, asylum seekers, and refugees.

Data on types of permits issued to foreign nationals in Fiji have been stored in the IBMS since 2013. Data from previous years were migrated into the IBMS, but some data loss during this process has degraded the reliability of older data.

The annual number of permits issued has fluctuated from a low of just over 7,400 in 2013 to a peak of nearly 23,500 in 2017. In 2019, some 18,429 permits were issued to foreign nationals entering the country, including 7,000 to long-term visitors (see Table 4). Over the course of the seven years, one third of issuances were visitor permits (visitors staying longer than 14 days and up to four months) and extensions to visitor permits (33%). Students were the second largest category, accounting for one-in-five permits (20%, 23,620). Another 20 per cent were work permits, either for long-term (11,637) or short-term valid for a year (11,770). Nearly 9,500 permit exemptions were issued to diplomatic and consular officers and their staff, non-citizen civil servants and dependents/spouses of these groups. Other groups included immediate family of primary permit holders (co-extensive) (excluding family of diplomatic/civil service), children and spouses of Fiji citizens, investors mostly on three-year permits, special purpose for residing with a dependent or extended family member of an eligible permit holder and residence permits on assured income (see Part C.1.1 for an explanation of permit categories).

Figure 5. Total permits issued by type between 2013 and 2019



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

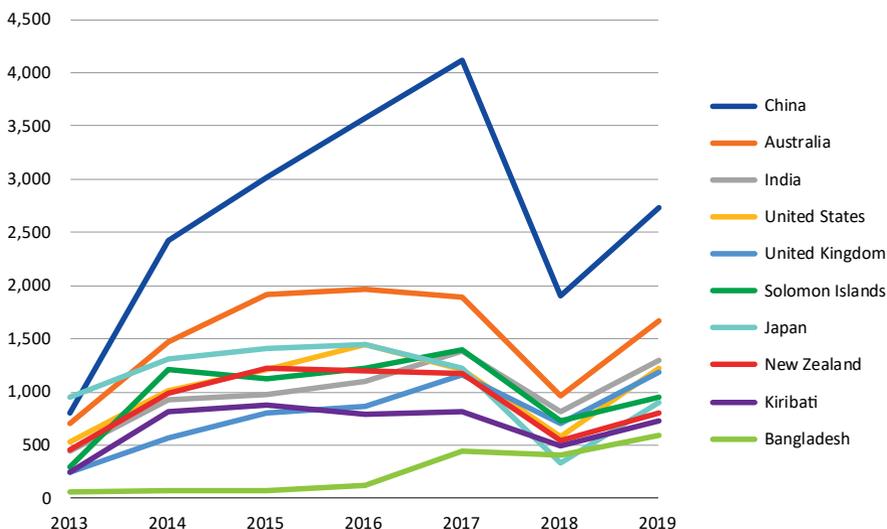
Table 4. Permits issued annually, by type, 2013–2019

Permit type	Year of issuance							TOTAL
	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	
Visitor (long term and extensions)	1 973	5 673	6 359	6 706	8 322	3 233	7 101	39 367
Student	1 459	3 932	3 914	4 012	4 232	2 790	3 281	23 620
Work (short term)	611	1 308	1 949	2 391	3 336	816	1 359	11 770
Work (long term)	513	1 293	2 137	2 042	1 931	1 914	1 807	11 637
Co-extensive	693	1 031	1 963	2 048	1 782	1 267	1 167	9 951
Exempt (diplomats/ consular)	965	1 476	1 413	1 742	1 595	617	1 679	9 487
Exempt (children/ spouse of Fiji citizen)	543	986	942	838	703	377	765	5 154
Investor	241	407	655	685	742	333	254	3 317
Special purpose (reside with family member)	160	256	295	347	350	254	258	1 920
Residence (assured income)	80	155	213	230	209	210	247	1 344
Exempt (dual or former Fiji citizen)	115	172	185	196	222	44	235	1 169
"Work permit"	0	0	0	0	0	377	206	583
Other	76	85	101	78	57	40	70	507
TOTAL	7 429	16 774	20 126	21 315	23 481	12 272	18 429	119 826

Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

In 2019, permits were issued to nationals of 139 countries. Half of these were concentrated among nationals of six countries: China (15%), Australia (9%), India (7%), United States (6.5%), United Kingdom (6.5%) and Solomon Islands (5%). Since 2013, the total number of permits issued has grown at an average annual rate of 27 per cent. The highest growth among the top 15 nationalities was posted by Bangladeshis, with an annual average rise of 63 per cent in permits issued. Other nationalities with relatively high average annual growth rates include Solomon Islanders, Chinese, Indonesians and British (see Figure 6). Interestingly, despite Pakistanis estimated as the second highest stock of foreign citizens according to UN data above, they have only received a small number of permits annually since 2013 and are not among the top nationalities granted permits in any of the years analysed.

Figure 6. Permits issued to the top 15 nationalities, 2013–2019



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

Flows – analysis of arrival cards

Based on an analysis of arrival cards, there were 21,600 arrivals of foreign Fiji residents¹⁰ over the age of 15 at Fiji’s ports of entry in 2018. This is based on arrivals, not individuals and thus the same person may be counted more than once if they entered the country several times during the year. The greatest share came from Australia (16%), followed by China (13%) and New Zealand (10%). Roughly 60 per cent were male, with this share even higher among resident arrivals from China (71% male), and New Zealand (63% male). Two thirds were aged 25–54, with females more represented in younger ages (17% were 15–24 versus just 11% of males), and less represented in older arrivals (12% of females were aged 55–64 versus 15% of males).

Of those arrival cards on which people had listed an occupation, most worked in services and were high-skilled.¹¹

¹⁰ Foreign Fiji residents refers to foreign citizens who ticked “resident” of Fiji on their arrival card to Fiji.

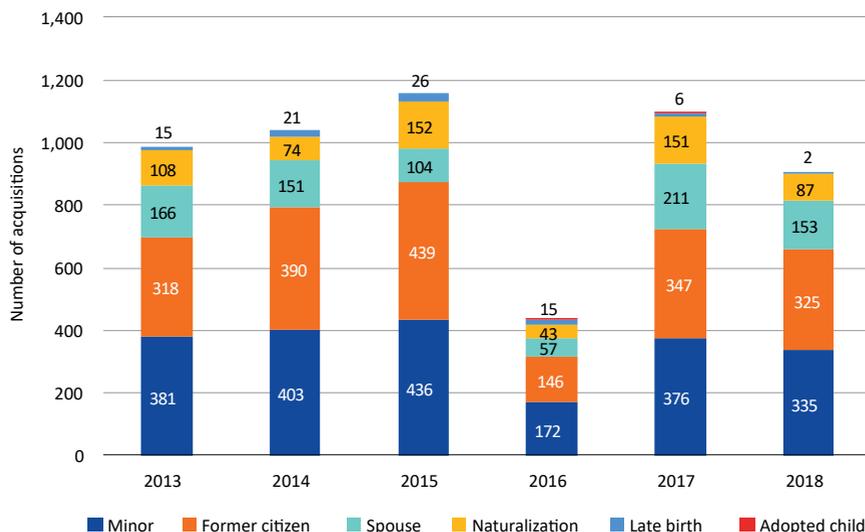
¹¹ Skill classification was conducted by FBoS based on listed occupations on arrival cards using the “Fiji Standard Industrial Classification 2010”. This document is used for national classification of data according to economic activity and associated industry/sector.

Immigration flows – citizenship acquisition

Data on applications for citizenship are accessible from the DoI through the IBMS. However, as processing of applications occurs outside the IBMS, acquisitions must be determined by comparing application data with a manual register of acquisitions.

Between 2013–2018, some 5,613 people acquired Fijian citizenship through registration and naturalization.¹² Three quarters were children of Fijian citizens born overseas (“minors” 2,103) and former Fijian citizens (“former” 1,965). Former Fiji citizens have been able to regain their Fijian citizenship, including people who are citizens of other countries, following the introduction of dual citizenship in 2009. Other routes are spousal (842), naturalization (615), late birth (85) which refers to children born overseas to a Fijian citizen or born to an overseas parent who was granted Fijian citizenship, who apply for citizenship aged 18–21, and children adopted by Fijian citizens.

Figure 7. Acquisition of Fijian citizenship by registration and naturalization, by route, 2013–2018



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration (Fiji, 2019a).

The drop in acquisitions in 2016 may have been due to administrative changes that occurred when the responsibility for the DoI transferred from the Ministry of Defence, National Security and Policing to the Office of the Prime Minister that year.

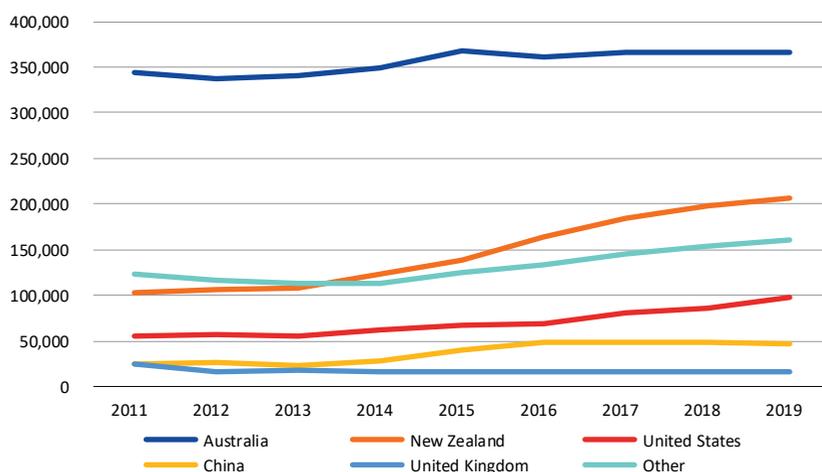
¹² Citizenship is acquired in one of three ways: birth, registration or naturalization. See Part C.1.3 for a detailed description of citizenship legislation.

Text Box 1. Visitors to Fiji

While not classified as immigrants, visitors to Fiji play a vital role in the country's economy and are important to consider when looking at the impacts of migration. Fiji is the largest recipient of foreign tourists among the PICs, and a key gateway to smaller island States (Harrison and Prasad, 2013). The tourism sector is the largest contributor to the Fijian economy, earning just over FJD 2.07 billion (USD 0.94 billion) in 2019 and representing one third of GDP. The sector has contracted severely in 2020 in response to the COVID-19 pandemic.

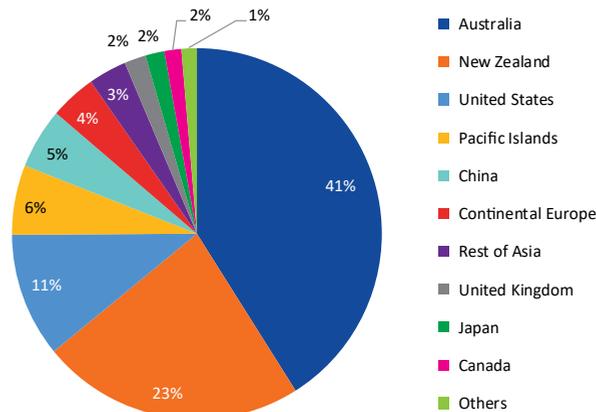
In 2019, the number of visitors was similar to the total population of the Fiji, with more than 894,300 arrivals. With the exception of 2020, numbers have risen steadily, growing by 32 per cent from 2011-2019. Most visitors are from Australia (41% in 2019), followed by New Zealand (23%) and the United States (11%). Of the top countries of origin, tourism from New Zealand and China has shown the greatest increase over the past eight years, roughly doubling from each country.

Figure 8. Visitor arrivals, 2011–2019



Source: Fiji Bureau of Statistics, 2020a.

Figure 9. International visitor arrivals to Fiji, 2019



Source: Fiji Bureau of Statistics, 2020a.

The Ministry of Commerce, Trade, Tourism and Transport collects quarterly data on hotels and accommodation in Fiji. Data for 2019, indicated foreign visitors spent a total of 3.8 million nights in Fijian accommodation.¹³ Turnover of hotel facilities, including food and drink, was FJD 1.3 billion (USD 605 million)¹⁴ and 15,100 people were employed in hotels, including 78 per cent in full-time positions.¹⁵ In total, one third of employed people in Fiji were estimated to work in tourism or associated industries as of 2018 (IFC, 2019).

The ministry also conducts regular International Visitor Surveys of passengers departing Nadi International Airport. The 2019 survey was based on responses from 11,465 visitors¹⁶ to surveys sent via email after departure from Fiji (Fiji, 2020b). The findings show visitors spent an average of 9.6 nights in the country, and nearly 60 per cent were in Fiji for the first time. Women slightly outnumbered men (54% to 46%). More than three quarters came to Fiji for holidays, followed by family gatherings and celebrations, and corporate meetings. Small numbers also listed education/training (2%), volunteering (2%), sports (1%) and real estate purchase/viewing (1%). Visitors from the Pacific Islands and Asia were more likely to be travelling for business or events, and Pacific Islanders were most likely to list education and training as the main reason for their trip (19%). Nearly 90 per cent said they were likely to recommend Fiji as a destination to friends and family.

A.3.1 Immigration for employment

An average of 4,230 permits were issued for work purposes in Fiji annually between 2013 and 2019, accounting for one quarter of all permits issued to foreign nationals during this period. This includes long- and short-term work permits (80%),¹⁷ and permit exemptions for diplomats and consular officers, their staff and foreigners in the civil service (20%). The number of such permits issued annually has fluctuated from 1,575 in 2013 to a peak of 6,305 in 2017, partly driven by a rise in short-term work permits issued that year. There was a significant drop in the number of permits issued in 2018, due to some changes in policy. For example, since 2018 migrants on a 14 day business visa can no longer seek visa extensions exceeding 12 weeks from the date of arrival and are required to leave the country. Additionally, applicants for a work permit (under one year – previously known as short-term work permit) must apply from outside the country.

¹³ “Guest nights” refers to the number of nights spent by each person in hotel accommodation.

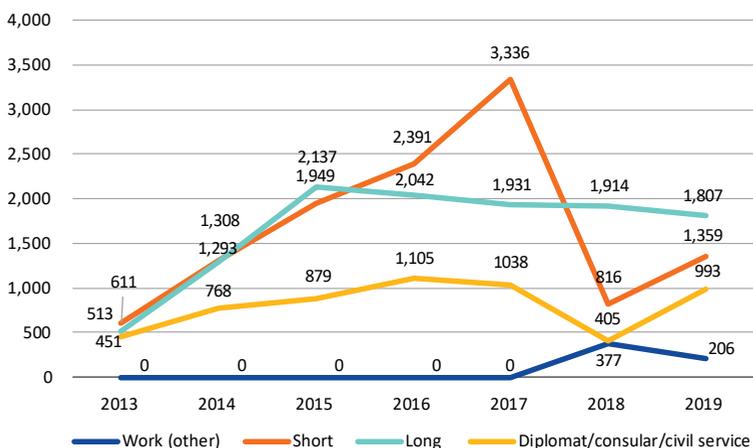
¹⁴ Some is generated by Fijian resident hotel guests who spent 889,293 nights in hotels in 2019.

¹⁵ Available on FBOS website at www.statsfiji.gov.fj/index.php/statistics/tourism-and-migration-statistics/hotels-and-tourist-accommodation.

¹⁶ The international visitors survey defines a visitor as: “Any person who travels outside his/her usual environment for at least a night, but not exceeding a year and does not have a long-term employment contract. This includes those who are transiting to another destination.”

¹⁷ Long-term permits are valid for up to three years; short-term permits are valid for up to one year.

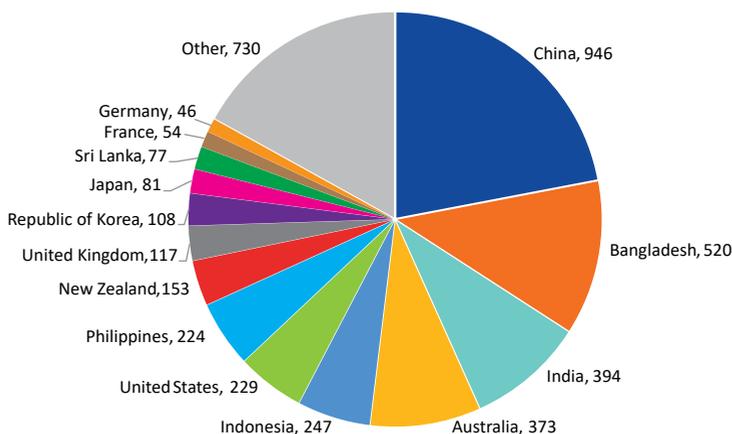
Figure 10. Permits issued to foreign citizens in Fiji for the primary purpose of work, 2013–2019



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

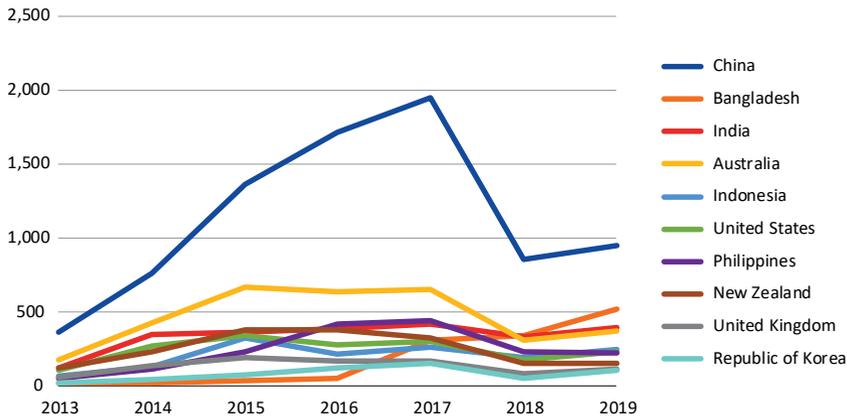
Since 2013, about one quarter of work permits have been granted to Chinese nationals, consistently the top nationality granted work-related permits to Fiji each year. Over the course of seven years to 2019, Australians and Indians were the second and third largest groups of work permit holders (11% and 8%, respectively). However, since 2017, the number of Bangladeshis on short and long term work permits has risen sharply to outstrip Australians and Indians to become the second most prominent nationality granted work-related permits to Fiji in 2019, making up 12 per cent of all recipients that year. Koreans, Japanese and Filipinos have also grown quicker than the average growth rate since 2013 (see Figures 11 and 12).

Figure 11. Permits issued to foreign-born in Fiji for the primary purpose of work in 2019, by nationality of recipient



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

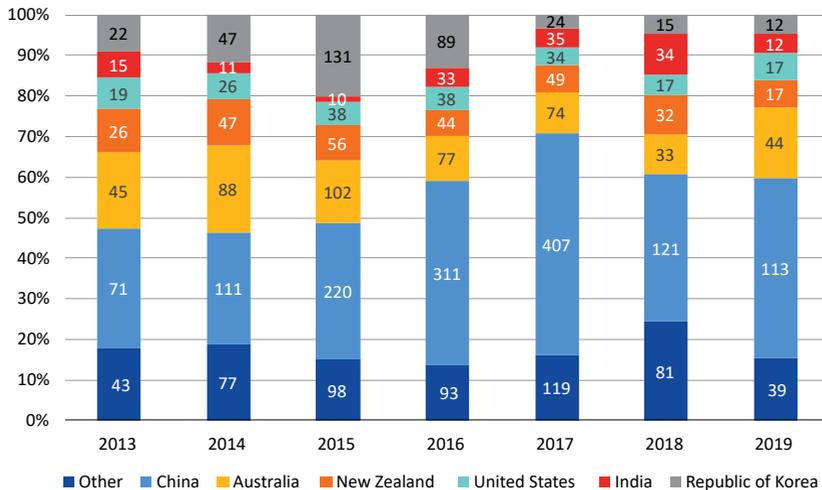
Figure 12. Permits issued to foreign-born in Fiji for the primary purpose of work in 2013–2019, top 10 nationalities



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

In addition to permits issued for work, an average of 473 investor permits were issued to foreign nationals each year between 2013 and 2019. Over the course of this period, 41 per cent of permits went to Chinese, followed by Australians (14%), Koreans (10%) and New Zealanders (8%) (see Section B.2 for more details on foreign investment).

Figure 13. Investor permits issued to foreigners, 2013–2019, by top six nationalities

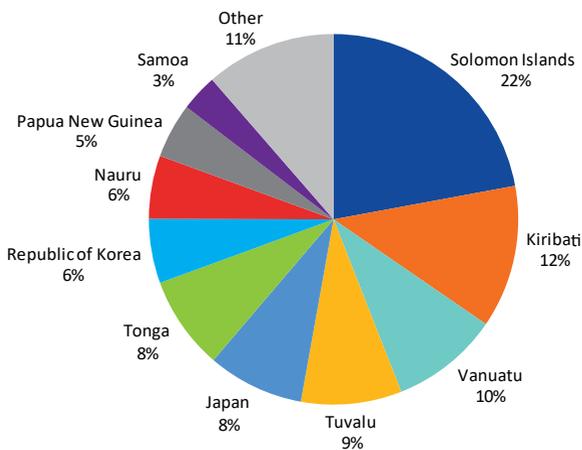


Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

A.3.2 Immigration for study

According to data from the DoI, about one-in-five permits granted to foreign nationals between 2013 and 2019 were for students (primary, secondary and tertiary levels). On average, 3,375 student permits were issued each year, fluctuating between a low of approximately 1,460 in 2013 and a high of close to 4,230 in 2017. Most students were from the Pacific Islands or Asian countries, particularly the Solomon Islands at tertiary level. Permits are issued for a maximum duration of three years. Some students also study unlawfully while on visitor visas.¹⁸

Figure 14. Student permits issued to foreign citizens, 2013–2019



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration, data shared for this Migration Profile (Fiji, 2020a).

Tertiary level

Fiji is a hub for tertiary education in the Pacific Islands. It hosts the main campus of the region's only transnational institute of higher learning, the University of the South Pacific (USP), as well as the University of Fiji (UoF) and Fiji National University (FNU). The country boasts two of the few medical schools in the Pacific region, and several specialist and technical colleges.

Fiji hosts about 70 per cent of students studying at USP across three campus, the largest being Laucala. Data are not available by nationality for USP students in Fiji, however across all of USP's 14 campuses in the region¹⁹ there were more than 11,000 non-Fijian students in 2019. The vast majority were from

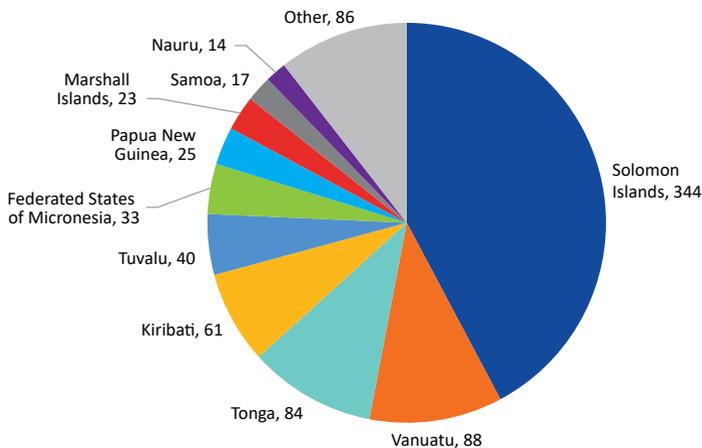
¹⁸ Fiji Department of Immigration, Migration Profile Technical Working Group meeting, 6 November 2019.

¹⁹ USP has campuses in the Cook Islands, Fiji (Laucala, Labasa and Lautoka campuses), Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Republic of Nauru, Niue, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu.

other PIC member countries of USP (97%), while just 361 came from beyond the region. Most non-Fijian students were from the Solomon Islands (39%), followed by Vanuatu (21%) and Kiribati (14%). This includes students completing degrees at bachelor's master's and doctorate levels, as well as certificate, diploma and training courses, some of which are upper secondary school equivalents.

There were 815 foreign students enrolled at FNU and UoF in 2019. Similar to USP, most were from the Solomon Islands (42%), Vanuatu (11%), Tonga (10%) and Kiribati (7%) (see Figure 15).

Figure 15. Foreign students enrolled at Fiji National University and University of Fiji in 2019, top 10 nationalities



Source: Author, based on data provided by the Fiji National University and University of Fiji (Fiji National University, 2019; University of Fiji, 2019).

Note: Figure is based on enrolment data from the first semester of 2019.

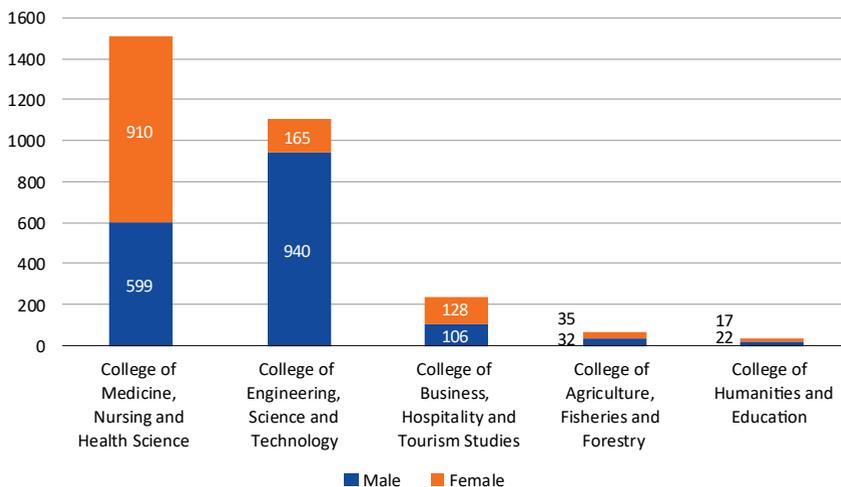
In 2018 and 2019, enrolment of females slightly outnumbered males across the country, although this differed by university, with USP (all campuses) witnessing stronger enrolment of females and FNU attracting more males.²⁰

Data on foreign students at FNU showed that 88 per cent were enrolled in either the College of Medicine, Nursing and Health Science or College of Engineering, Science and Technology. While foreign students overall were more likely to be male (58%) than female (42%), the gender break-down differed depending on the college of study. Females were more numerous in the College of Medicine, Nursing and Health Science making up 60 per cent of foreign students during 2014-2019, while males comprised 85 per cent of foreign

²⁰ Data on gender is only available for Pacific regional students at USP. No data on gender is available for University of Fiji, however, numbers of foreign students are small and would not affect percentages.

students in the College of Engineering, Science and Technology. Enrolment of males and females was roughly similar in the other colleges (see Figure 16).

Figure 16. Foreign students in enrolled in Fiji National University, by college of study and gender, 2014–2019



Source: Author, based on data provided by Fiji National University (2019).

Note: Figure is based on data of unique students; i.e. students who are studying in multiple year programmes are included only once. The same student who over the course of the time period was enrolled in more than one programme of study is included once for each unique programme.

Regional governments provide some scholarships to study at FNU. Other students and academics benefit from programmes such as ECCAM (Education for Climate Change, Adaptation and Mitigation), which provides master and doctorate (PhD) scholarships for students and staff from Caribbean and Pacific regions at FNU, University of Guyana and University of the West Indies.²¹

In 2019, the Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts approved the applications of nine researchers to come to Fiji from Australia, New Zealand and Europe.

Primary and secondary levels

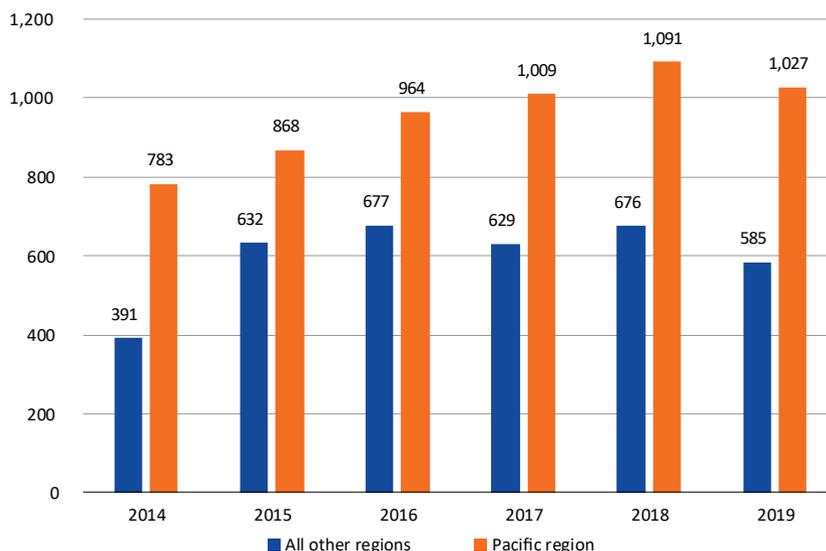
In 2019, nearly 2,500 foreign students were enrolled in publicly-funded primary and secondary schools across Fiji.²² Foreign student enrolments in Fiji's primary schools have increased by 37 per cent since 2014 (1,174 to 1,612 students). Still, foreign students represented only about 1 per cent of total enrolments in public primary schools across the country. Students from the

²¹ See: www.eccam.fnu.ac.fj/.

²² Data refers to students enrolled in the first semester of the year.

Pacific region outnumbered those from outside the region, representing 64 per cent of foreign students in 2019.²³ Between 2014 and 2019, females represented 49 per cent of students from the Pacific region, and 47 per cent of students from other regions.

Figure 17. Foreign students enrolled in primary schools in Fiji, by region of origin, 2014–2019



Source: Author, based on data provided by the Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts (Fiji, 2019b).

Notes: (a) Includes foreign students enrolled in 736 publicly-funded primary schools in Fiji and three private primary schools. Data from 11 other private schools are not included.

(b) Data for 2019 is based on enrolments in the first semester.

(c) Pacific region refers to students from Kiribati, Nauru, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu.

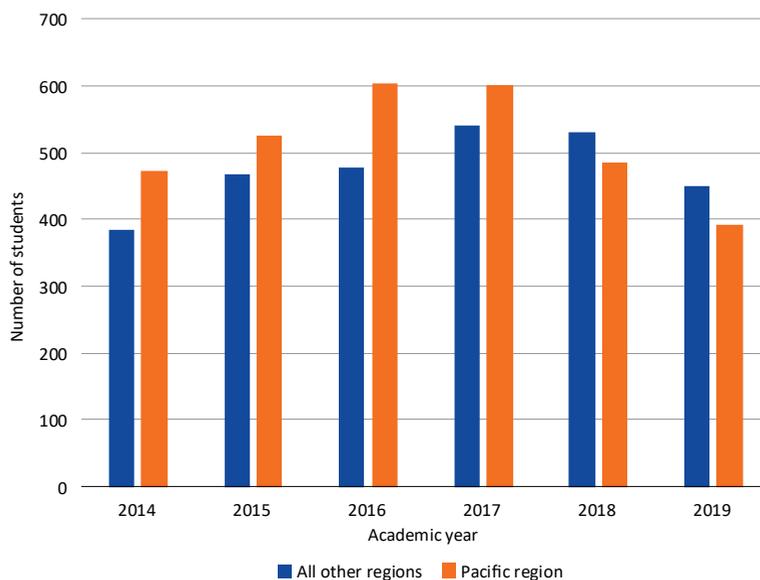
Foreign students represented about 2 per cent of the secondary school population in Fiji in 2017 and 2018.²⁴ Absolute numbers are low with just 841 in 2019, down from 1,140 in 2017. While students from the Pacific region outnumbered extraregional students between 2014 and 2017, in the past two years this has reversed with extraregional students predominating slightly (see Figure 18). Females represented about half of all foreign students, regardless of whether they were from the Pacific or other regions. Based on available data, most foreign secondary students in Fiji in 2019 were from Japan, Tuvalu, Kiribati and Nauru.²⁵

²³ For the purposes of this calculation, Pacific region includes Kiribati, Nauru, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu.

²⁴ Note, this refers only to enrolment in secondary schools receiving public funding, as well as two private schools. Data on six other private secondary schools are not included. Since some of these are international schools, foreign student populations are likely higher in them.

²⁵ Note that data on the nationalities of 128 students (15%) are not available; therefore the top nationalities may not be accurate.

Figure 18. Foreign students enrolled in secondary schools in Fiji, by region of origin, 2014–2019



Source: Author, based on data provided by the Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts (Fiji, 2019b).

Notes: (a) Includes foreign students enrolled in 173 publicly-funded secondary schools in Fiji and two private secondary schools. Data from six other private schools are not included.

(b) Data for 2019 is based on enrolments in the first semester.

Data sources and availability

Data on international students enrolled in Fiji universities are not stored centrally and must be obtained from individual universities. Data are not recorded in any standard format. Most data are disaggregated by gender and nationality, while some indicated programme of study, college of enrolment and course level. The Fiji Education Management Information System (FEMIS) holds data on international students enrolled in all publicly-funded primary and secondary schools in Fiji. The Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts plans to also include information on international students at tertiary level in the FEMIS database.

A.3.3 Involuntary immigration

Fiji hosted just 13 refugees and seven asylum seekers in 2019, mainly from Pakistan, Afghanistan and Bangladesh. Since 1995, most refugees and asylum seekers have been from Nigeria, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Somalia and Eritrea, totalling at least 45 recognized refugees (UNHCR, 2019).²⁶

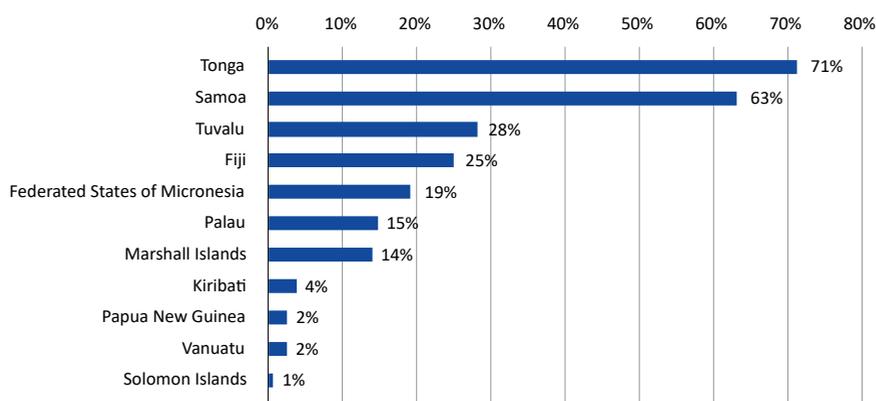
²⁶ Because UNHCR withholds some data to protect privacy when numbers are small in some years or from particular countries, the actual total will be slightly higher.

A.4 Emigration

Accurate data on emigration are notoriously challenging to capture. Data collected from border entries and exits are not necessarily indicative of emigration as they record events rather than individuals and may capture the same person leaving the country multiple times. With these challenges in mind, FBoS analyses departure cards to provide an estimate of emigration flows (see later on in this section). Typically, data from key destination countries must be used to estimate stocks and flows of nationals residing abroad.

Emigrants have outnumbered immigrants to Fiji since the 1950s, with this trend becoming more pronounced from the 1980s as Indo-Fijians left the country and as labour emigration accelerated. Fiji has relatively high mobility compared with other PICs, with the stock of emigrants about 25 per cent the size of the Fiji's population in 2019 (see Figure 19).

Figure 19. Size of emigrant population compared to resident population expressed as a percentage, among PICs, 2019



Source: Author's calculations based on data from UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019; and Total Population, both sexes (2019).

Stocks of emigrants

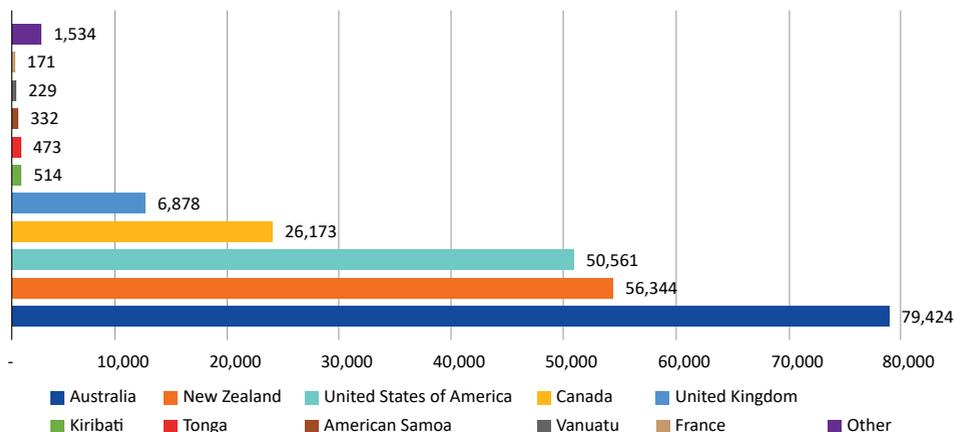
As of mid-2019, more than 222,000 Fiji-born people resided abroad,²⁷ according to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs international migrant stock database (UN DESA, 2019a).²⁸ This is more than double the size of Fiji's emigrant population in 1990, which stood at just over

²⁷ This figure refers mostly to people born in Fiji who live abroad. A fraction of the data refers to Fijian citizens living abroad.

²⁸ Data on international migration are collected from countries by the UN Statistics Division (UNSD) through the Demographic Yearbook data collection system.

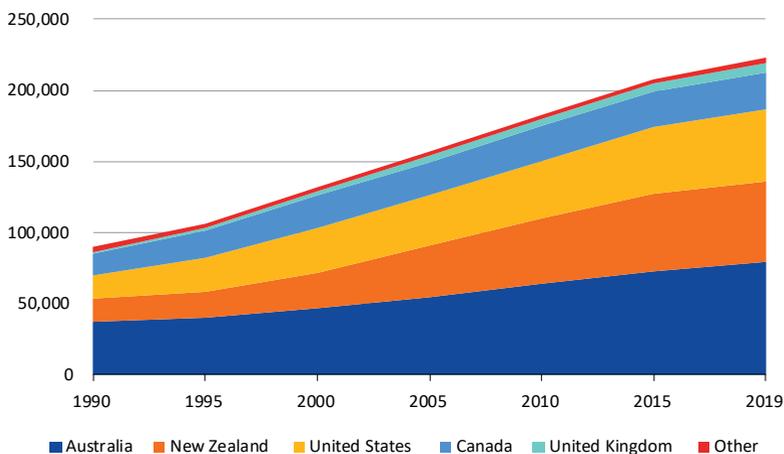
90,000. Ninety-five per cent of Fijian emigrants lived in either Australia (36%), New Zealand (25%), the United States (23%) or Canada (12%) in 2019.

Figure 20. Stocks of Fiji emigrants by main countries of destination, estimates mid-2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019.

Figure 21. Stock of Fiji emigrants by main countries of destination, 1990–2019



Source: UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019.

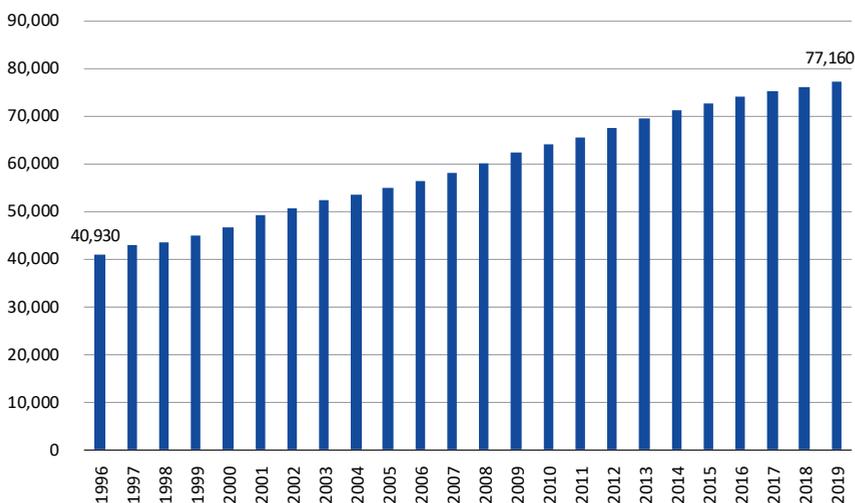
Australia

Migration from Fiji to Australia has grown rapidly since the 1960s, initially as a result of Fijian independence in 1970 and then successive military coups d'état in Fiji coupled with Australia's attractive economy. Numbers peaked immediately following Fiji's 1987 coup, with 2,980 settler arrivals during 1987–1988 (Australia, 2018).

These figures slowed from the early 2000s onwards (Australia, 2018), with an average of 1,340 new permanent Fijian settlers in Australia each year between 2000 and 2016 (ABS, 2018).²⁹ Just over 1,150 settled permanently in 2019 (Australia, 2020).

The stock of Fiji-born migrants living in Australia increased from about 41,000 in 1996 to more than 77,100 in 2019. However, the average annual growth rate of the Fijian population in Australia slowed from 3.3 per cent between 1996 and 2006, to 2.8 per cent the following decade and 1.4 per cent annually between 2017 and 2019 (ABS, 2020). Over half of Fijians (55%) live in New South Wales, according to data from Australia’s 2016 census, and most are of Indian descent (Australia, 2018). Recent migration has seen growing numbers in temporary seasonal schemes, with about 530 Fijian workers participating in seasonal schemes in 2019.

Figure 22. Stock of Fijian-born migrants living in Australia, 1996–2019



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2020, Table 5.1.

New Zealand

Migration of Fijians to New Zealand has increased steeply by nearly 250 per cent since the 1990s to reach a stock of about 62,000 in 2018, according to New Zealand national data (New Zealand, 2019b). Fijians are now the seventh largest foreign-born population in the country (ibid). Most Fijian recent migration to New Zealand is through skill-based and temporary worker schemes. Between

²⁹ Refers to Fijians in Australia’s permanent migration programme.

2010 and 2019, nearly 20,000 Fijians were approved for permanent residence in New Zealand, more than any other PIC except Samoa (New Zealand, 2020).

North America

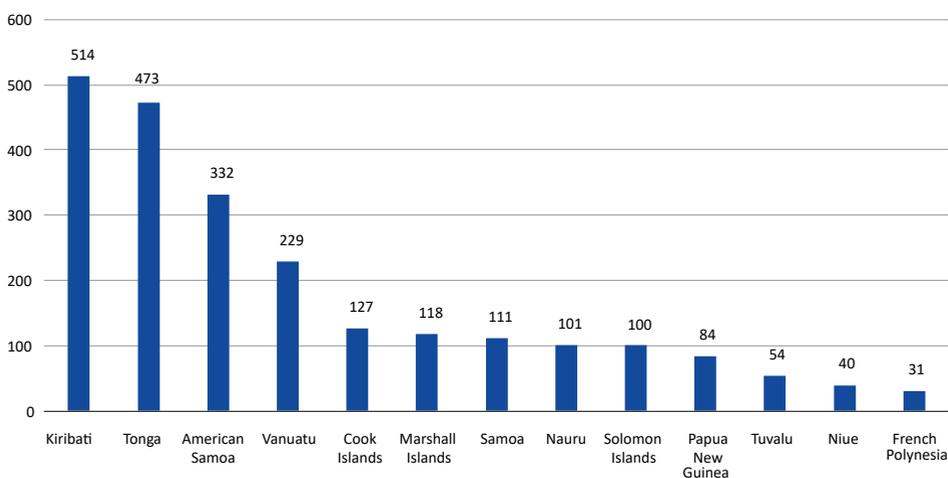
Migration of Fijians to North America was prominent among Indo-Fijians in the 1970s and 1980s, particularly following Fiji’s 1987 coup. Migration to Canada and the United States has since slowed, particularly to Canada (Coelho and Neville, 2016). More than 32,000 people living in the United States identified their “race” as at least partly Fijian, according to the United States 2010 census (Hixson et al., 2012). This is more than double the 13,500 who identified as such 10 years previous. Most live in California (75%), where a vibrant Indo-Fijian diaspora community has developed.

According to Canada’s most recent census (2016), there were just under 25,000 Fiji-born migrants in the country, 80 per cent of whom arrived before 2000 (Statistics Canada, 2016).

Pacific island countries

Fijian emigration to other Pacific island countries (PICs) is negligible, accounting for just 1 per cent of the country’s total emigrant stocks in 2019 (2,314). Most were in Kiribati (514) and Tonga (473). While total emigrant numbers to all destinations have jumped by nearly 70 per cent since 2000, only a 17 per cent rise in Fijians arriving in PICs was witnessed during the same period.

Figure 23. Stocks of Fiji emigrants in Pacific Island countries, mid-2019



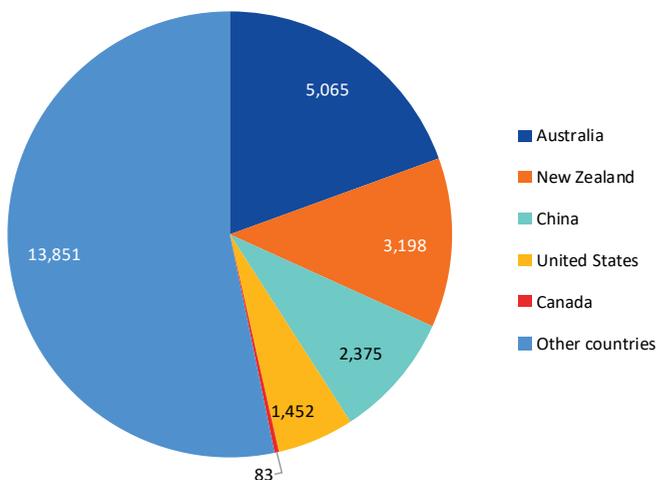
Source: UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. International Migrant Stock 2019.

Emigration flows – analysis of departure cards

In 2018, roughly 26,000 Fiji citizens departed the country for stays abroad of more than one year, according to an analysis of departure cards at Fiji’s border ports.³⁰ One third departed for Australia (19%) or New Zealand (12%), while 9 per cent went to China and 6 per cent to the United States. Sixty per cent were male, with men particularly concentrated among migrants to China (71%) and women to the United States (48%) and New Zealand (44%).

Of those who listed their occupation, 91 per cent worked in services, while just 8 per cent was in industry and 1 per cent in agriculture. Most were highly skilled (78%), or medium-skilled (20%). These trends were roughly consistent across genders. One third did not list an occupation, some of whom may have been students, or retired. However, others simply elected not to fill out the field. Categorization by sector and skill was done by FBoS based on occupations written in departure cards using the Fiji Standard Industrial Classification 2010. Hence, data should be viewed as indicative. As data refer to individual departure cards not people, theoretically the same person could be counted multiple times. However, as these data concern those who indicated they would stay abroad at least one year, the number of departure cards over the course of the year should correspond to the number of unique individuals.

Figure 24. Outflow of Fiji citizens by country of destination, 2018



Source: Fiji Bureau of Statistics, based on Fiji Department of Immigration data from departure cards (FBoS, 2019).

³⁰ Data shared by Fiji Bureau of Statistics, based on analysis of departure card information compiled by the Fiji Department of Immigration. Some data are available online via Fiji Bureau of Statistics under “Releases – tourism and migration” www.statsfiji.gov.fj.

These data are the result of collaboration between the DoI and FBoS which has an office at Nadi International Airport where data are cleaned and analysed, based on weekly datasets of arrival and departure cards shared by the DoI. The FBoS conducts regular trainings with new border officers to reduce errors that can occur during transfer of data from physical arrival and departure cards to electronic format. However, despite improvements, errors are still common. IT-based solutions may improve the accuracy of data and efficiency of the process.

Emigration flows: renunciation of citizenship

Few Fijian citizens have renounced their citizenship in recent years, with only 14 having done so in the past six years. Since 2009, Fijians have been permitted to hold multiple citizenships (see Part C).

A.4.1 Emigration for employment

Fiji's National Employment Centre, which facilitates temporary overseas employment, keeps data on Fijians participating in government-to-government seasonal and temporary worker schemes. Information gathered from individual destination countries on types of visas and permits issued, as well as from any labour force surveys or censuses are also useful. Analysis of departure cards from Fiji, as presented above, can also provide information on labour emigration.

Economic migration has been the defining characteristic of Fijian emigration over the past decade, with most other recent emigration from the country – such as family reunification – linked to initial labour mobility. Expanding avenues for seasonal and temporary labour migration to Australia and New Zealand have increased the options for Fijian workers and their families. In addition to the main avenues of labour mobility to Australia and New Zealand, other destinations in Asia and the Middle East have emerged in recent years for niche migrant groups, such as athletes and private security personnel (ILO, 2019).

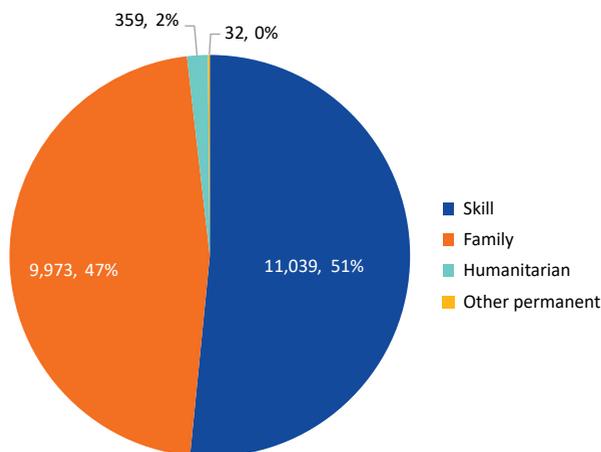
Australia

The top destination for Fijian labour migrants is Australia. They either enter through a permanent migration skill stream, or through several temporary and seasonal programmes. Between 2000 and 2016, half (51%) of all Fijians who migrated under permanent schemes were admitted through the skill stream,

totalling 11,039 people (ABS, 2018).³¹ Between 2015 and 2019, more than 1,200 visas were issued to Fijians participating in seasonal work schemes in Australia.

Australia’s Migration Programme allocates a set number of places each year for people wanting to migrate permanently to the country, split between three streams: skilled, family and special eligibility. During 2019–2020, a cap was set of 160,000 places (for all nationalities), with more than two thirds (69.5%) for people in the skilled migration stream (Australia, 2019a). The allocation of at least two thirds of places for skilled migrants has been a commitment of the Australian Government since 2013 (Australia, 2019b), amid a general trend over the past two decades of favouring migrants with skills and capital. Australia’s Humanitarian Programme leads to permanent residence for refugees and those in refugee-like situations (see Figure 25).

Figure 25. Fijian-born permanent migrants in Australia who arrived during 2000–2016, by visa stream (total number per stream and as a % of total)



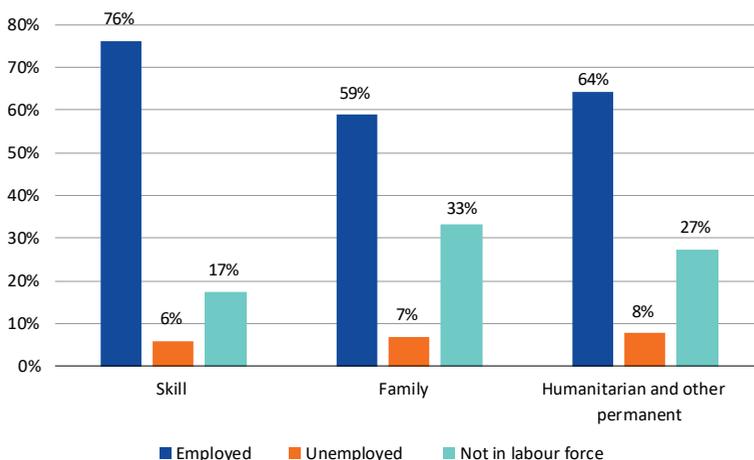
Source: Author, based on ABS 2018b, Table 4.

Note: Refers to migrants who arrived in Australia between 1 January 2000 and 9 August 2016 under a permanent visa scheme. Percentages refer to per cent in each stream out of total Fijians (e.g. 51% of Fijian permanent migrants entered through the skill stream).

Among Fijians who gained permanent residence through the skill stream, three quarters were employed (76%), and just 17 per cent were outside the labour force, at the time of Australia’s 2016 census. Unemployment was low at 6 per cent. As would be expected, labour force participation rates were lower among those who had gained residence through the family and humanitarian/other categories, although the majority were employed (see Figure 26).

³¹ This refers to people born in Fiji who were resident in Australia at the time of the census in 2016, and who migrated to Australia between 2000 and 2016.

Figure 26. Labour force status of 15+ year-old Fijian-born permanent migrants in Australia, by visa stream, 2016



Source: Author, based on ABS 2018b, Table 10.

Note: Refers to migrants who arrived in Australia between of 1 January 2000 and 9 August 2016.

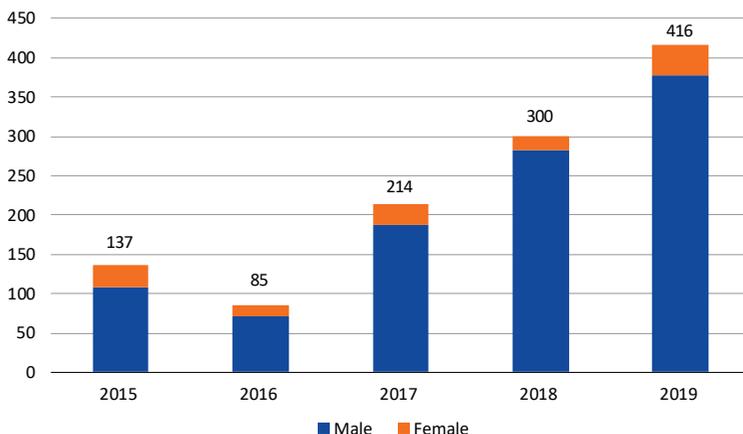
Based on data from the 2016 census of Fijians who were employed, 46.5 per cent were employed in either a skilled managerial, professional or trade occupations compared with 48.8 per cent of the total Australian population (Australia, 2018).

In addition to permanent migration, there are some options available to Fijians for temporary and seasonal work. Currently, most temporary migration from Fiji occurs through the Seasonal Worker Program (SWP), launched in 2012 and open to workers from PICs and Timor-Leste for temporary employment in the agriculture and accommodation sectors.³²

Participation of Fijians in the scheme has grown consistently since Fiji joined in 2015, reaching more than 400 in 2019. In total since 2015, 1,152 visas have been granted to Fijians (some of them return migrants), with 89 per cent to men. Despite increasing numbers of Fijians, participation in the SWP remains dominated by nationals from Tonga, Timor-Leste and Vanuatu, which together accounted for 84 per cent of workers in the scheme in 2018–2019 (10,270).

³² Accommodation sector includes jobs such as bar, food and beverage attendants, baristas, garden labourers, housekeepers, kitchen hands and cleaners. See https://docs.employment.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/accommodation_factsheet_3.pdf.

Figure 27. Visas granted to Fijians under the SWP, 2015–2019



Source: Author, based on data provided by the Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations (Fiji, 2019c).

In 2018, Australia launched the Pacific Labour Scheme (PLS) to complement the SWP. The scheme is open to all SWP participant countries and allows non-seasonal work for up to three years in rural and regional Australia. Like the SWP, there is no cap on the number of workers participating. Fiji joined in April 2019 and by the end of the year, 112 Fijians had been deployed. Numbers increased in the first quarter of 2020, with 119 visas granted. Most work in the meat industry (85%), with small numbers in hospitality and elderly care.³³

In September 2019, Fiji and Australia signed a partnership agreement – the Fiji-Australia Vuvale Partnership – with the intention to expand participation of Fijians in Australia’s labour mobility programmes, including the PLS.

New Zealand

Fijians are consistently the most prominent nationality among PIC workers in New Zealand. Between 2010 and 2019, Fijians made up one third of all temporary workers from PICs and Fiji is by far the largest PIC source for permanent skill-based streams (New Zealand, 2020).

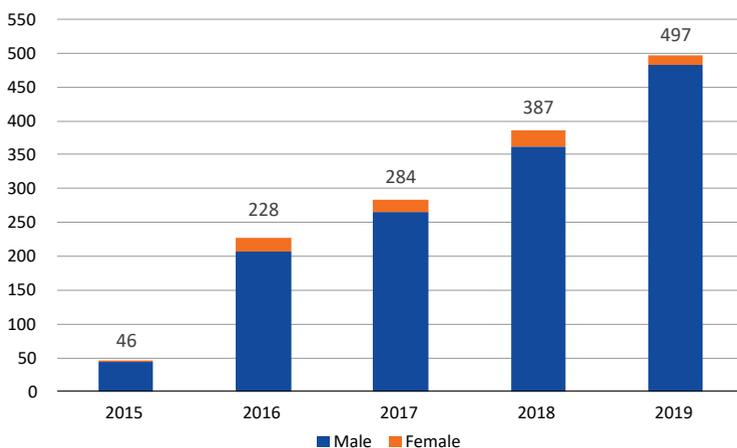
Among Fijians moving to New Zealand through permanent migration streams, roughly half are approved under the skill-based/business stream each year, about 1,000 people annually since 2010, including primary and secondary applicants (New Zealand, 2020). Fijians are the largest PIC nationality approved under this scheme, making up 89 per cent of all PIC permanent skill stream migrants between 2010 and 2019 (ibid).

³³ Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations, internal data.

Unlike Australia, New Zealand also offers a window in its permanent migration scheme exclusively for nationals of PICs. Established in the early 2000s, the Pacific Access Category and Samoan Quota scheme offer up to 1,750 places each year for permanent residence to citizens of Samoa (1,100), Fiji, Tonga, (250 each), Kiribati and Tuvalu (75 each).³⁴

Fijians are the largest group from the PICs on temporary work visas in New Zealand, with close to 6,000 visas granted to Fijians in 2019 (New Zealand, 2020). Fijian temporary workers are concentrated in the essential skills and partnership visa categories. Only a relatively small number enter through New Zealand’s Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) scheme, launched in 2007, to help fill seasonal labour shortages in the horticulture and viticulture industries. By the end of 2019, 1,442 visas had been granted to Fijians through the RSE scheme since 2015, with annual numbers continuing to rise, reaching nearly 500 in 2019 (Fiji, 2019c). As with Australia’s SWP, although participation is increasing, Fijians still make up a small percentage (4%) of all PIC nationals in the scheme.

Figure 28. Visas granted to Fijians under the RSE, 2015–2019



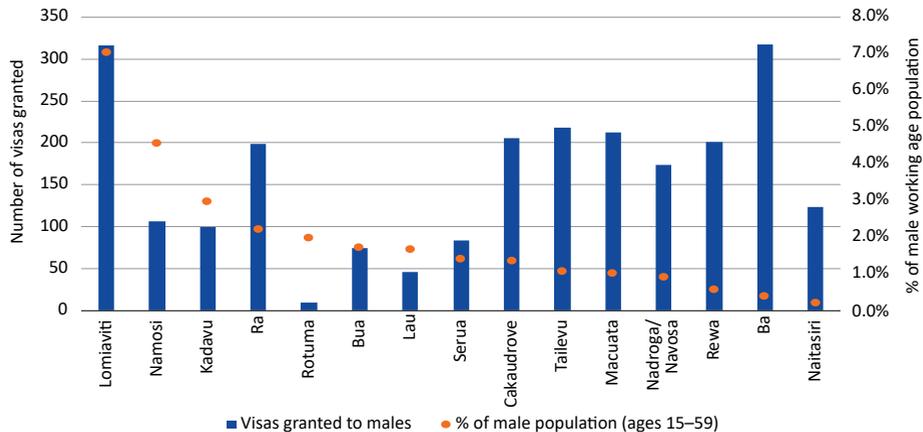
Source: Author, based on data provided by the Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations (Fiji, 2019c).

Considering participation in Australian and New Zealand seasonal work schemes, most Fijians are from rural areas and mainly from the provinces of Ba, Cakaudrove and Lomaiviti. Data on RSE participation by ethnicity, shows the vast majority since 2015 have been iTaukei (98%). There are no data on SWP participation by ethnic background, though 92 per cent of workers in the programme since 2015 were male (Fiji, 2019c). When looking at participation in the schemes as a share of the male working age population (aged 15–59),

³⁴ Pacific Access Category was reopened to Fijian nationals in 2015, after its exclusion due to the military coup in 2006.

one can see seasonal work is particularly important in the provinces of Lomaiviti and Namosi.³⁵

Figure 29. Visas granted to Fijian males through the SWP and RSE, by province of origin, and as a share of male population ages 15–59, 2015–2019



Source: Author, based on data provided by the Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations (Fiji, 2019c) and population data from the 2017 Population and Housing Census.

Note: Data indicates visas granted; many migrants participate in seasonal work schemes more than once.

Other destinations

Labour migration of Fijians to other PICs is small, but there are indications it is gradually increasing. Fiji’s relatively advanced education and skills training systems mean Fijians can work in a variety of sectors in the region (ILO, 2019). In 2012, the Skills Movement Scheme was introduced to allow 400 professionals from Melanesian Spearhead Group countries to work in other member nations (Fiji, PNG, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu). However, there has been low uptake of this programme (ILO, 2019).

Outside of any formal agreements, mobility is growing between Fiji and PNG, particularly outbound Fijian hospitality and tourism workers. Fijian security personnel have also been employed in PNG (ILO, 2019). Nearly 80 teachers from Fiji moved to other PICs for two-year volunteer contracts, through Fiji’s Volunteer Service between 2014 and 2019. Most went to Tuvalu (35) and Vanuatu (25), as well as smaller numbers to the Marshall Islands, Nauru and, outside the region, the Seychelles. These are mostly teachers who retired at the compulsory age of 55 (see Part C for more on the Volunteer Service).

³⁵ Data are for numbers of visas granted, not individual participants. Many migrants participate more than once in the schemes, therefore the calculations as a share of the population will be somewhat overestimated.

Beginning in the early 2000s, a significant number of Fijians travelled to the Middle East and other conflict areas to work as private military and security personnel. While there are no official numbers, it is estimated that more than 1,000 Fijian men migrated annually between 2006 and 2011 (Kanemasu and Molnar, 2017) (see Text Box 2).

Text Box 2. Fijians overseas in private military and security companies, peacekeeping and British Armed Forces³⁶

Fiji has a long history of military work and related migration, gaining Fijians an international reputation for soldiery. Eight thousand Fijians joined the Allied forces in the Second World War, and 1,600 later fought in the Malayan War. Following independence in 1970, Fijian military migration accelerated through recruitment to the British Army, participation in UN peacekeeping missions and work with private military and security companies (PMSCs).

Following an initial mission in Lebanon in 1978, Fijian participation in UN peacekeeping missions expanded greatly and by the 2000s, Fiji was sending more soldiers per capita than any other nation. In 2016, this was about 1,000 annually on one-year rotations. Fijians have also been recruited into the British Army since the 1960s, peaking in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Although intake has since decreased, nevertheless 2,740 Fijians joined British Armed Forces between 1998–1999 and 2017.

In the 2000s, recruitment of Fijians into the fast-growing global industry of PMSCs began to accelerate. It is estimated that 1,000 to 1,500 Fijians emigrated each year to work as PMSC personnel between 2006 and 2011, with fewer recruits now. Many have gone to high conflict zones like Afghanistan and Iraq, while some are in non-conflict areas like Australia and PNG. Research by Kanemasu and Molnar in 2017 described Fijians working in a variety of areas, including as convoy security, security escorts and personal security details. Although in Fiji this work is often described as being a “security guard”, in fact many are engaged in armed services. All those interviewed for Kanemasu and Molnar’s research recalled violent and traumatic situations and were exposed to extreme physical risk. As of 2017, 29 Fijians had died in Iraq since 2004.

Kanemasu and Molnar described PMSC recruitment dynamics as a “buyers’ market”, with fierce competition for employment. This led many Fijians to accept “severely exploitative contract arrangements”, requiring minimal investment by the employer in remuneration, training, physical protection, insurance or psychological support. PMSC personnel are in a legal limbo: neither civilians nor soldiers. Thus, they can be killed with impunity, but are not offered any of the rights or privileges afforded to soldiers (Fabre, 2010:547). Most Fijians were insured for death, but not injury beyond initial emergency care. They received no psychological support, and many experienced physical and psychological impacts years after their return to Fiji. Although salaries for PMSC personnel are generally much higher than the average salary in Fiji, Fijians and other PMSCs from developing countries are paid far less than western PMSCs or soldiers. They also may have long periods of unemployment or under-employment between contracts, meaning the financial benefits are often not as large as they appear at the outset. Furthermore, those who are injured may find it harder to work productively upon return home.

A report by the ILO and researchers at FNU have called for psychological support for former peacekeepers and employees with PMSCs (Pacific Beat, 2019). ILO’s report states that private security work has “serious physical and psychological repercussions” impacting individuals and communities that have not been adequately addressed (ILO, 2019).

³⁶ This text box is mainly based on research by Kanemasu and Molnar (2017) “Private military and security labour migration: The case of Fiji”. *International Migration*, 55(4):154–170. Information that is not otherwise cited comes from this article.

It is reported that caregiving in the past three decades has become an increasingly important source of income for female Fijian migrants in the United States, some of whom are effectively undocumented after overstaying visitor visas or staying in the country without work rights (ILO, 2019; Connell and Voigt-Graf, 2006). Canada has run immigration streams for caregivers since 1992 and as of June 2019, is piloting two re-worked schemes: Home Child Care Provider and Home Support Worker. The pilots each have a maximum of 2,750 primary applicants per year (from all nationalities), plus their immediate family. Participants can apply for permanent residence after two years.

Emigration of athletes, especially rugby players, albeit numerically small, is also consistent trend that is culturally very important to Fijians. Most go to Australia, New Zealand and Europe, particularly the United Kingdom and France, as well as more recently to Japan (ILO, 2019).

A.4.2 Emigration for study

There are no comprehensive data on Fijians moving abroad for education. Fiji's Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts keeps a list of students currently studying abroad under schemes administered by the Tertiary Scholarship and Loans Board (TSLB). However, any historical data must be obtained directly through TSLB. The ministry does not have data on private students studying abroad or those participating in scholarship programmes not administered by TSLB.

Table 5. Fijian students enrolled in universities abroad under schemes administered by TSLB, by destination country, 2019

China	40
Cuba	27
Australia	12
New Zealand	8
Georgia	3
Malaysia	1
Total	91

Source: Author, based on data provided by Fiji's Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts from TSLB (Fiji, 2019b).

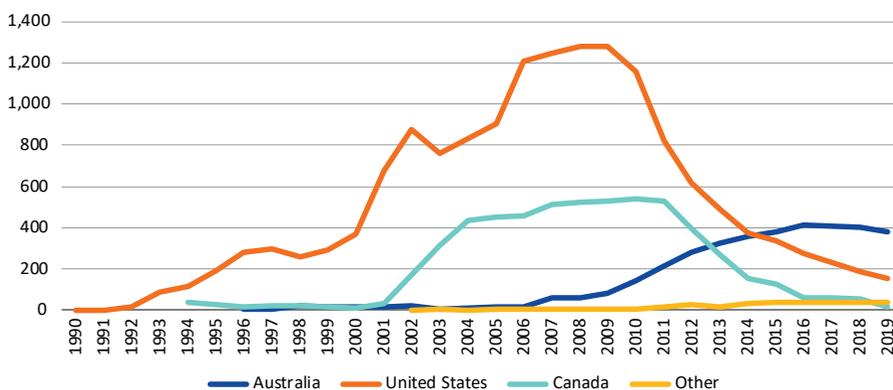
According to data collected by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) on global student mobility, there were between 1,100 and 1,500 tertiary-level students from Fiji studying abroad each year between 2013 and 2017 (UNESCO, 2019). Most were in Australia, New Zealand and the United States.

Data from New Zealand list Fiji as the origin of the largest number of Pacific Island students in the country, representing 60 per cent of all student visa holders from PICs (1,818). However, most were dependent children of temporary visa-holders (New Zealand, 2018a). According to the Open Doors US survey of international exchange students, around 100 Fijians were enrolled in university programmes in the United States each year since 2013-2014. In the 2018-2019 academic year, 98 Fijians were enrolled mainly in undergraduate (79) and graduate (12) programmes, while several were in non-degree programmes or working on Optional Practical Training visas granted for one year by the United States after completion of a university degree.³⁷ There are 25 spots offered each year to Fijians to study in India through the Indian Council for Cultural Relations scholarship programme.

A.4.3 Involuntary emigration

Refugee flows in and out of Fiji are currently low. There was a total stock of 591 refugees from Fiji as of 2019. Nearly two thirds were in Australia (382), and 154 in the United States (UNHCR, 2020). Just under 2,350 Fijians had asylum or appeal claims pending as of December 2019, mainly in Australia and the United States, with small numbers in New Zealand, Canada and Brazil. Current recognition rates are very low, however, at around 1 per cent at first instance and 11 per cent for cases granted administrative review. Data show large numbers of Fijian refugees in the United States and to a lesser extent Canada in the first decade of the 2000s. This tapered in the second decade of the 2000s, while refugee stocks in Australia increased (see Figure 30).

Figure 30. Stock of refugees from Fiji by country of asylum, 1990–2019



Source: UNHCR, Population Statistics (UNHCR, 2019; 2020).

³⁷ See Open Doors (2019), International Students data “Places of origin”. Available at www.iie.org/en/Research-and-Insights/Open-Doors/Data/International-Students/Places-of-Origin (accessed 9 December 2019).

A.5 Return migration

Return migrants are not systematically captured in ongoing data collection processes in Fiji. It may be possible to extract this information from arrival cards at border entry points. However, information collected on the cards and ambiguity of categories as they apply to returning Fijian migrants may not allow statisticians to reliably distinguish between Fijians residing abroad and entering Fiji for a short visit or returning Fijian migrants.

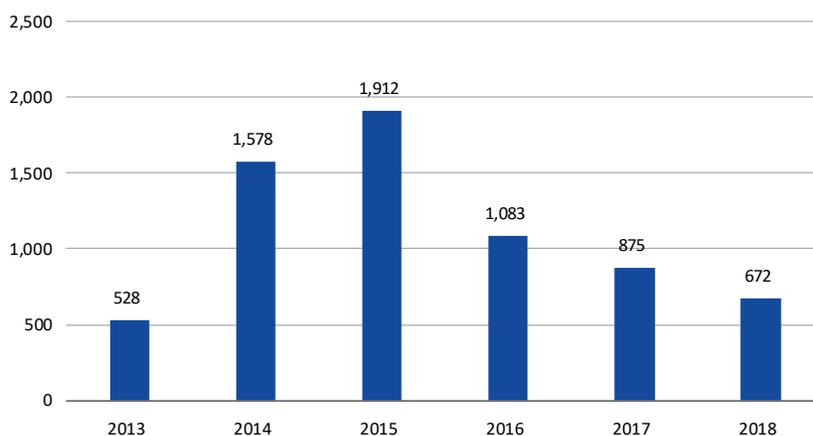
A.6 Irregular migration

Irregular migration encompasses unauthorized entry either by evading border controls or using false documents, overstaying a valid period of stay or violating the terms of stay, most commonly working when not authorized to do so. Trafficking in persons, when it occurs across international borders, is an extreme form of irregular migration, involving coercion and exploitation.

At the border

Data on denials of entry to Fiji are collected by immigration officials at the border and stored in the IBMS. Most denials are at Nadi International Airport, Fiji's largest port of entry. Denials can be for a range of reasons, including not meeting the correct entry requirements, not being considered a genuine visitor, or links to criminal activity. In recent years, border officials have identified an emerging trend of motorcycle gangs connected to criminal activity trying to enter Fiji from Australia and New Zealand.

Figure 31. Foreign nationals denied entry to Fiji, 2013–2018



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration (2019a).

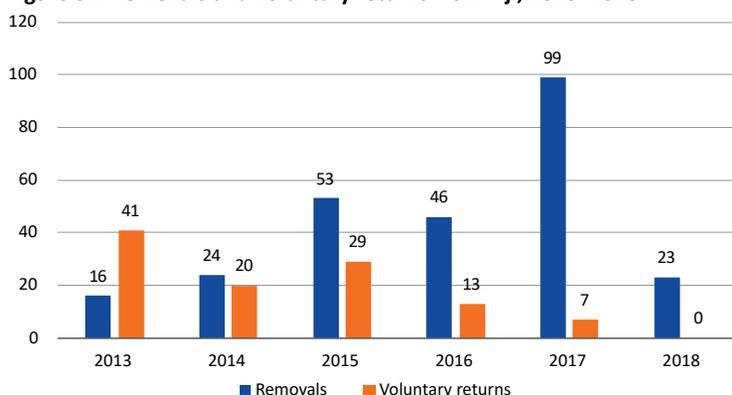
In country

Most irregular migrants in Fiji are visa overstayers. Between 2013 and 2019, nearly 3,900 people were estimated to have overstayed their permit or visa. Eighty-six per cent of cases were people overstaying visitor visas, followed by exemptions and residence permits. The top nationalities overstaying were Tuvaluans (10%), New Zealanders (9%), Australians (9%), Americans (8%) and Chinese (8%). Most people overstaying exemption classes were from New Zealand, United States, India, Australia and the United Kingdom, while most residence permits were overstayed by Koreans and Chinese. There were only 89 cases of overstaying student permits, mostly among Tuvaluans, I-Kiribati and Papua New Guineans. The DoI noted that some students enrolled in universities while on visitor permits, which they subsequently overstayed. These visa violations persist despite the DoI delivering information sessions at embassies from the region each year (Fiji, 2019a).

Overstayers are detected on exiting the country and are issued a notice prohibiting them from entering Fiji for a set period and are required to pay a fine. The government recently raised this fine to FJD 500 – more than the cost of applying for a student permit – to discourage students from studying on visitor visas and overstaying.³⁸ Overstayers may also apply to the Permanent Secretary to use discretion to adjust their status without penalty and are reportedly often successful. Investigations by the compliance team, within the DoI, may also identify overstayers during inspections.³⁹

Fewer than 400 foreign nationals in Fiji were removed from the country or returned voluntarily between 2013 and 2018.

Figure 32. Removals and voluntary returns from Fiji, 2013–2018



Source: Fiji Department of Immigration (2019a).

³⁸ Fiji Department of Immigration, Migration Profile Technical Working Group meeting, 6 November 2019.

³⁹ IOM interview with the Fiji Department of Immigration on 20 June 2019.

Trafficking in persons

Fiji is a source, destination and transit country for men, women and children subjected to sex trafficking and forced labour. The first trafficking in persons conviction in Fiji was in 2010, the same year the Crimes Act came into force and introduced Fiji's second piece of legislation addressing trafficking in persons (see Part C.3). Since then, at least 27 incidents of trafficking have been investigated or prosecuted in Fiji.⁴⁰ Data published since 2018 on indictments filed by Fiji's Office of the Director of Public Prosecutions (ODPP) indicate two individuals were charged with trafficking in persons crimes involving five victims in 2019, and that 23 counts of trafficking were charged in 2018 for domestic and international trafficking, as well as one for "debt bondage" (data for 2018 do not indicate number of accused individuals) (ODPP, 2019, 2020). Cases have involved luring foreign nationals – often Bangladeshis, Chinese and Indians – to Fiji with the false promise of jobs in Australia, New Zealand or attractive jobs in Fiji and forcing them to work under exploitative conditions, subjecting Fijians to forced labour in New Zealand or Australia – usually in agriculture or construction, forced labour and slavery in Fiji – including on small farms, factories and fishing vessels (including foreign nationals on foreign vessels using Suva for port services, and Fijians on foreign vessels) (Fiji Fishing Industry Association, 2020; United States Department of State, 2020), international sex trafficking to Fiji and domestic sex trafficking in Fiji, including children. Fiji is also a transit country for trafficking in persons.⁴¹ Most known perpetrators are Chinese, Fijian and Indian as international trafficking has usually involved agents in Fiji and overseas. Despite new investigations and prosecutions each year, there have been few convictions (United States Department of State, 2020).

Child sex trafficking remains a serious problem in Fiji. Children may be forced to sell sex on the street by their families or family friends, or forced to have sex to cover their family's rent payments or other costs (United States Department of State, 2020). The practice of sending children to live with relatives or friends in larger cities can place some children at risk of domestic servitude or forced sex in exchange for food, clothing, shelter, or before shelter (United States Department of State, 2020). According to the United States Department of State Trafficking in Persons Report 2020, children may be exploited by taxi

⁴⁰ Author's calculation based on data shared by the Fiji Department of Immigration and gathered from United States Department of State Trafficking in Persons Reports.

⁴¹ For example, in 2019, 101 Bangladeshis in Vanuatu claimed they were trafficked through Fiji and several other countries: www.reuters.com/article/us-bangladesh-vanuatu-trafficking/dozens-of-bangladesh-migrants-trafficked-to-vanuatu-stuck-in-limbo-idUSKCN1R61OV.

drivers, foreign tourists, businessmen, and crew on foreign fishing vessels. Despite the magnitude of this problem, few victims have been identified by the government and there has only been two convictions for child sex trafficking in 2014 and 2019.⁴²

A.7 Internal migration

Rural-to-urban migration has been a defining characteristic of internal migration in Fiji, with the population shifting from 63 per cent rural in the mid-1970s to almost 56 per cent urban just 40 years later (FBoS, 2018b).⁴³ Similar trends have been observed across PICs, although Fiji has a higher rate of urbanization than most others (Naidu and Vaik, 2016). What was formerly temporary migration from rural areas and small islands to cities for work, has increasingly become permanent over the past 50 years (ibid). Circular migration or alternating migration of family members to and from cities remains common, however, increasingly generating “translocal households” or households that exist in different places (Weber, 2017). Internal migration may also take place in steps: from small islands to larger ones, from remote interiors to coastal areas, and from villages first to towns and then to cities. Another development has been the increasing share of women taking part in internal migration, partly propelled by economic and social changes that have led to greater participation of women in the labour force, and by greater availability of services (Naidu and Vaik, 2016).

Data from Fiji’s 2017 Population and Housing Census show nearly one-in-three people over the age of five had changed residence within Fiji at some point in their lives (251,895).⁴⁴ Of these, 70,365 had moved within the five years prior to the census (“recent migrants”), including 52,100 for whom it was their first move away from their place of birth. Among internal migrants in Fiji, about 245,000 were living away from their place of birth at the time of the census, while just over 7,000 had returned to their birthplace in the past five years after moving away.

⁴² (2014) See judgement from the High Court of Fiji here: www.unodc.org/res/cld/case-law-doc/traffickingpersonscrimetype/fiji/2014/state_v_raikadroka_-_judgment_2014_fjhc_402_html/FJI003-State_v_Raikadroka_-_Judgment_2014_FJHC_402_Sentence.pdf.

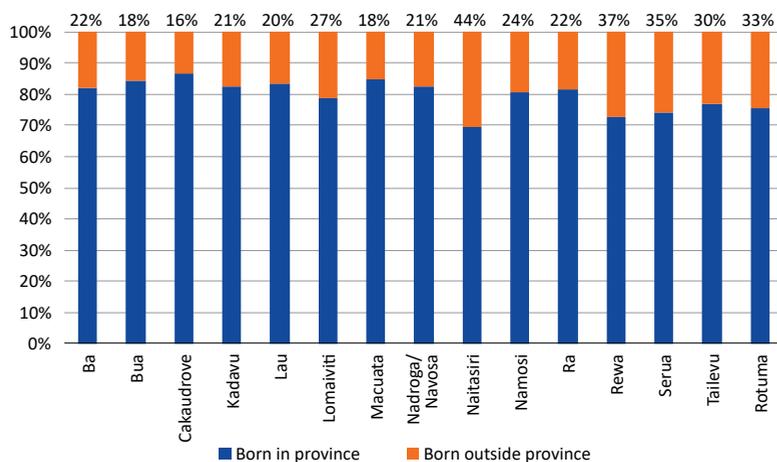
(2019) See report issued by the Office of the Director of Public Prosecutions here: <http://odpp.com.fj/wp-content/uploads/2019/12/ODPP-Media-Update-Court-hands-down-14-year-sentence-for-child-trafficking-12.12.19.pdf>.

⁴³ Some of this growth is due to the extension of urban boundaries.

⁴⁴ The number of people who have ever changed place of residence in Fiji is likely higher. A “non-migrant” is classified as someone whose place of birth is the same place they resided five years before the census and the night of the census (Birth = 5 years ago = current). Therefore, some past migration may not be captured in the figure of internal migrants that is presented.

Based on analysis of data on place of birth and place of enumeration on the night of the census, it is possible to see that nearly two thirds (68%) of people who were outside their place of birth where in more urban provinces of Naitasiri, Rewa and Ba.⁴⁵ Naitasiri had the most “internal migrants” as a share of its population, with 44 per cent of people enumerated not born there. This was followed by Rewa where 37 per cent of people were born in another province, and Serua (35%). Ba, as the most populous province in Fiji, had 52,375 people enumerated in the province who were not born there, comprising 22 per cent of its population (see Figure 33).

Figure 33. Share of population born outside of the province of enumeration, by province of enumeration, 2017



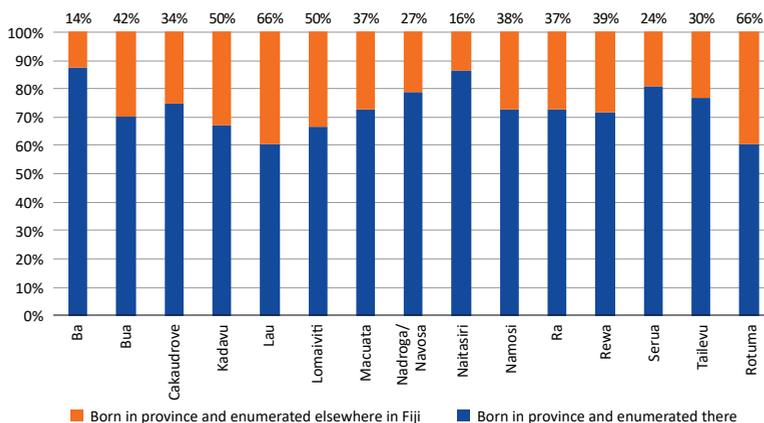
Source: Author, based on Table 6.1 of Fiji Bureau of Statistics Population and Housing Census 2017.

Note: Calculations are based on data covering 95 per cent of the total population enumerated.

Provinces with the highest share of internal “outmigration” were Rotuma and Lau, where two thirds of people born there were in other provinces at the time of the 2017 census – mainly in Naitasiri and Rewa. Half of people born in Kadavu and Lomaiviti were outside these provinces at the time of enumeration, again mainly in Naitasiri and Rewa. Ba was the province with the smallest share leaving, with just 14 per cent of people born there in a different province on the night of enumeration (see Figure 34).

⁴⁵ This was not exactly the same as the measure used for calculating internal migrants, the estimates of which were presented in the previous paragraph. It does not include people who migrated and then returned home to their place of birth, for instance.

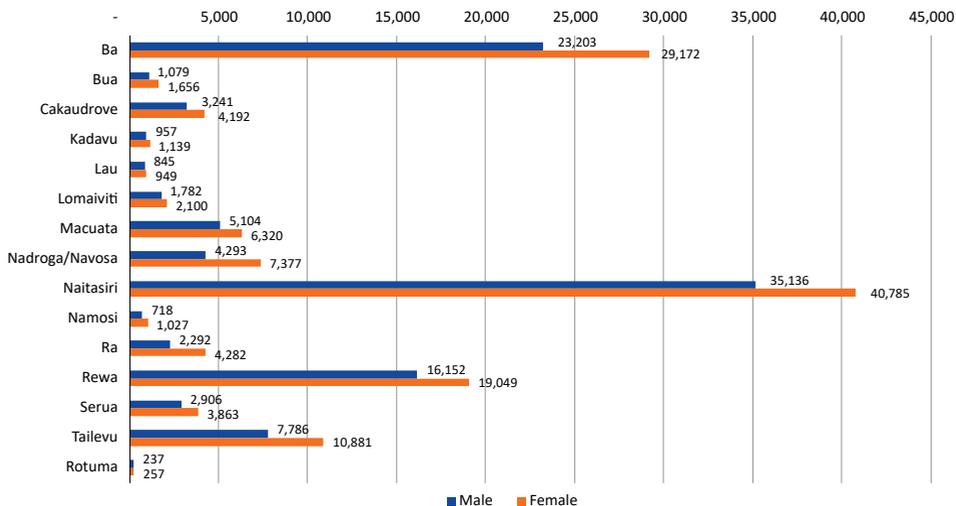
Figure 34. Share of people outside their province of birth on the night of enumeration, by province of birth, 2017



Source: Author, based on Table 6.1 of Fiji Bureau of Statistics Population and Housing Census 2017.
 Note: Calculations are based on data covering 95 per cent of the total population enumerated.

Data indicate people staying outside of their province of birth were more likely to be female (56%) than male (44%), and this trend was exhibited in every province. It was most pronounced in the provinces of Ra where females made up 65 per cent of all "internal migrants", Nadroga/Navosa (63%), and Bua (61%) (see Figure 35).⁴⁶

Figure 35. People born outside province of enumeration, by province of enumeration and gender, 2017



Source: Author, based on Table 6.1 of Fiji Bureau of Statistics Population and Housing Census 2017.

⁴⁶ Members of the Technical Working Group guiding this Migration Profile indicated this might be attributed to the cultural norm of women moving to live with their husband's family when they marry, though data did not allow for analysis of the reasons behind internal migration at this stage.

A.8 Climate change-related migration and disaster displacement

Fiji is highly vulnerable to the effects of climate change due to its geographical characteristics, vulnerability to climatological, hydrological and meteorological hazards, patterns of settlement in coastal areas and floodplains, and economic reliance on climate-sensitive industries, such as agriculture and tourism. An estimated 12 per cent of Fiji's urban population and 6 per cent of its rural population (approximately 143,000 people) live in low-elevation coastal zones (Fiji et al., 2017). Main cities and towns are threatened due to the vulnerability of principal ports and infrastructure which provide employment to a large proportion of the urban population. Climate change projections indicate a likely decrease in the number of cyclones, but an increase in their intensity over time (Fiji, 2018a). Sudden and slow-onset disasters, such as tropical cyclones and floods caused by rising sea levels, are primary challenges affecting the development of Fiji and well-being of society. Fiji has been identified as a country with the 12th highest natural disaster risk in the world as measured in the World Risk Index 2019 (Radtke and Weller, 2019). Climate change is having and is projected to have, varied impacts on coastal agriculture and fisheries, with effects already being felt (Fiji et al., 2017). These climate change impacts may encourage greater internal migration from outer islands to larger ones, and from rural areas to cities, as it interacts with other drivers of rural-to-urban migration.⁴⁷

Climate change-related migration

Planned relocation of communities is increasingly considered a climate change adaptation strategy among Pacific Islands, including Fiji (IOM, 2018; Coelho and Neville, 2016). International migration has been discussed as a possible solution, though it requires adequate legal and policy frameworks in place to ensure the protection and support to migrants and host communities. While historical and not related to climate change, Fiji has some experience with the international relocation of communities to the country. As an example, important lessons from the resettlement of Banaban and Gilbertese communities from Banaba Island in the central Pacific to northern Fiji at the end of the Second World War should be referred to, in order to avoid major negative implications (Edwards, 2013).

⁴⁷ Eberhard Weber, senior lecturer at University of the South Pacific. Communication for this Migration Profile.

In 2013, the village of Vunidogoloa on Vanua Levu became the first in Fiji to be relocated due to the climate change impacts and numerous others on low-lying outer islands in the archipelago may not be viable over the long term (Fiji, 2018a). By September 2019, more than 300 people had been relocated from three villages on Vanua Levu and Viti Levu to nearby areas (National Disaster Management Office, internal data), and the government continues to identify other villages that may need assistance to relocate (Fiji et al., 2017).

Most individuals in vulnerable coastal communities in the Pacific Islands currently prefer not to migrate or relocate, at least in the short-term (Coelho and Neville, 2016; Farbotko, 2018), as relocation would incur the loss of generations-held land, livelihoods, and even ancestral burial grounds. Research conducted in Fiji, in 2016, found that the recent occurrence of severe weather events could change people's attitudes more in favour of relocation. However, community members expressed reluctance to leave their land and viewed relocation as a last resort if other adaptation measures were inadequate (Coelho and Neville, 2016). Temporary migration and labour mobility abroad could become an important adaptation measure if based on choice and well-managed, as explored under the current joint-agency Pacific Climate Change, Migration and Human Security programme. The role of immigration policy and labour mobility initiatives to support sustainable development and climate change adaptation is identified as a strategy in Fiji's National Climate Change Policy 2018–2030.

Disaster displacement

Many Fijian communities have experienced displacement first-hand and the destructive impacts natural hazards have on the country. The International Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) estimated 5,766 people in Fiji are at risk of being internally displaced annually due to sudden-onset hazards (IDMC, 2020), with approximately 5,000 being displaced during 2019 according to IDMC data. In 2016, Tropical Cyclone Winston was the strongest cyclone ever recorded in the southern hemisphere and devastated large parts of Fiji. The event caused 44 fatalities and displaced up to 76,000 people (IDMC, 2020). In response to disaster displacement events, the Fijian Government provided assistance and protection to displaced communities and is committed to finding solutions. Governments in the Pacific, including Fiji's, are currently working with partners to prepare, monitor and manage the risks and impacts of disaster displacement faced by vulnerable communities.

Policy

In recent years, the Fijian Government has made significant advancements in its conceptualization and planning for climate change and disaster-related issues, including displacement and planned relocations. In 2018, the Fijian Government developed its National Climate Change Policy 2018–2030 and National Disaster Risk Reduction Policy 2018–2030, both of which address issues relating to climate change-related migration and disaster displacement. The National Climate Change Policy establishes human mobility as a priority human and national security issue, acknowledging the role of the United Nations and the Global Compact for Migration in supporting policy development and cross-border migration issues. It also identifies the need for climate and disaster-related displacement legal frameworks, policies and strategies to protect human rights and reduce long-term risks.

Supporting the National Climate Change Policy, in the same year the Fijian Government issued its first-ever National Adaptation Plan to comprehensively address climate change and bolster resilience. The plan sets adaptation priorities over the next five years, including actions across 10 system and sectorial components. Planned Relocation Guidelines, also developed in 2018, assist and guide planned relocation efforts as part of community adaptation strategies in relation to disasters and climate change-related slow-onset events. Fiji is one of the first countries to develop such guidelines, becoming an example to the rest of the Pacific. They take the approach that relocation should not be undertaken until all other adaptation options provided by the National Adaptation Plan have been exhausted, acknowledging that planned relocation within Fiji is an option of last resort. The guidelines also commit the Fijian Government to develop standard operating procedures to guide any future planned relocations of communities.

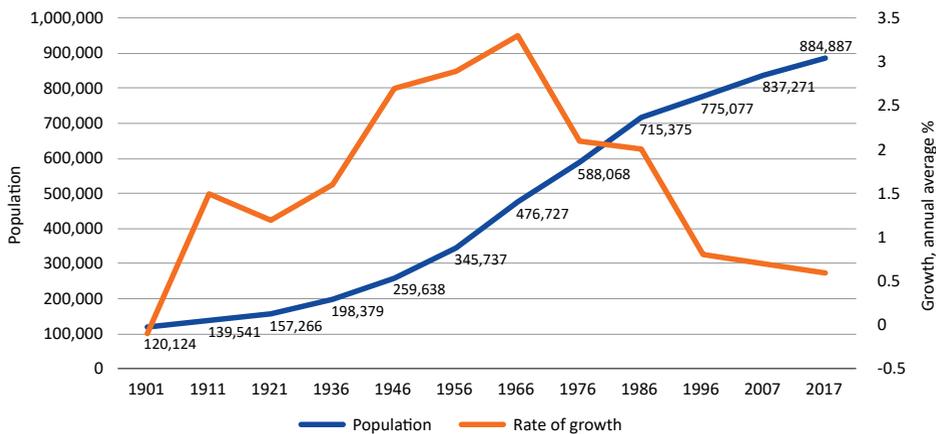
In 2019, the Fijian Government issued its first Displacement Guidelines to reduce vulnerabilities associated with displacement and consider durable solutions to prevent and minimize the drivers of displacement in affected communities in Fiji. In the same year, the Fijian Government drafted its first Climate Change Bill, set to be tabled before Parliament in 2020 or 2021. It includes reference to climate migration and displacement, including proposing to establish a Fiji Taskforce on Relocation of Communities Vulnerable to the Impact of Climate Change.

PART B: IMPACTS OF MIGRATION

B.1 Migration and human development

Since the 1970s, Fiji's population has experienced several key trends, namely slowed growth, urbanization and – despite still being a relatively young population – ageing. The country has consistently had a negative net migration rate since the 1950s, which has contributed to decreasing the rate of population growth. Immigrants make up only a small percentage of the population and thus do not have a large impact on population trends.

Figure 36. Total population of Fiji and annual average growth rate, 1901–2017



Source: Fiji Bureau of Statistics (2019).

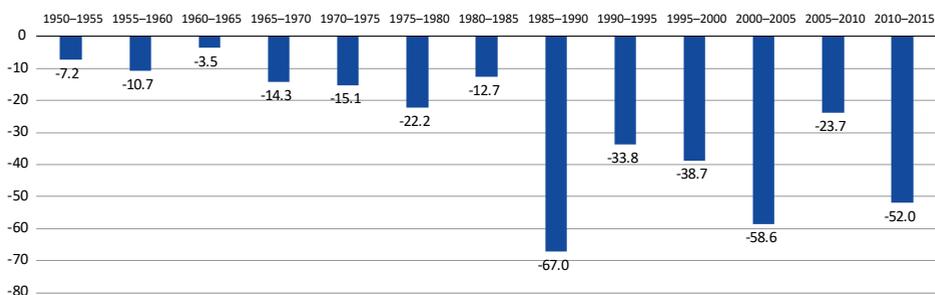
Figure 36 shows Fiji's population rising strongly through the mid-1960s and then beginning to slow, with growth rates decreasing from an average rate of 3.3 per cent per year in the 1960s to just 0.6 per cent per year between 2007 and the latest census in 2017. Demographers have attributed this tapering to decreasing fertility rates, and large-scale emigration in the 1980s through early 2000s. Both changes in fertility and migration have contributed to divergent growth rates between Indo-Fijians and iTaukei, leading to a dramatic shift in the ethnic composition of the population, with the Indo-Fijian share having fallen from 50.5 per cent in 1966 to just 37.5 per cent in 2007 (FBoS, 2008). The Indo-Fijian population actually decreased in absolute terms between 1996 and 2007, while the iTaukei population grew at an annual rate of 1.8 per cent (FBoS, 2008).

Fertility and death rates have shrunk in line with the typical progression of a developing economy to more industrialized one – referred to as the “demographic transition”. Fiji’s total fertility rate⁴⁸ shrank from 5.6 children per woman in the mid-1960s to 2.9 in 2017 (Gubhaju et al., 2013; FBoS, Registrar General’s Office and Ministry of Health and Medical Services, 2019). Rates declined sooner and faster among Indo-Fijians than iTaukei, with large differences emerging in the 1960s and continuing through 2007 when the latest data by ethnic group are available (Gubhaju et al., 2013; FBoS, 2008). The fertility rate of Indo-Fijians is now below replacement level (FBoS, 2008).

The dependency ratio⁴⁹ in Fiji has nearly halved since the 1940s due to a decrease in fertility rates. Again, this drop is particularly pronounced among Indo-Fijians, driven by a huge decrease in youth dependency, while old age dependency has become an increasingly larger part of overall dependency with their age pyramid similar to populations in Europe (FBoS, 2008). There are also differences in the dependency ratio between poor and non-poor families and between rural and urban, with the dependent share much higher among rural and poor segments of the population (FBoS, 2015).

Regarding the contribution of migration to population growth, Fiji has experienced much higher numbers of people leaving the country than moving to it. Population loss through migration was most pronounced in the late 1980s at the time of Fiji’s first coups, when a net number of 67,000 people moved away from the country (UN DESA, 2019b). Throughout the subsequent 35 years, net migration to Fiji has remained the most negative in Melanesia other than Papua New Guinea in the early 2000s.

Figure 37. Net number of migrants to Fiji, 1950–2015 (thousands)



Source: UN DESA, 2019a, Population Division. World Population Prospects 2019 (accessed 3 December 2019).

Note: The net number of migrants refers to the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants. It is expressed as thousands.

⁴⁸ The total fertility rate is the average number of children a woman would give birth to during her lifetime if she passed through her childbearing years experiencing the present-day age-specific fertility rates.

⁴⁹ The dependency ratio is defined as the sum of the population “less than 15” and the population “65 and over” (‘dependent’ population) divided by the population “15 to 64” (‘working population’) times 100.

Slightly more female than male emigrants have been witnessed since the 1990s, with the share slightly increasing from 52 per cent of emigrant stocks in 1990 to 53 per cent in 2019 (UN DESA, 2019a). Emigration has primarily been of Indo-Fijians, leading to further divergence in growth rates between the two main ethnic groups in Fiji.

Meanwhile, immigration to Fiji has remained low, with the stock of immigrants hovering between 1.6 and 1.8 per cent of Fiji's population since the 1990s (UN DESA, 2019a). Males have slightly outnumbered females among immigrant stocks and this trend has continued with the latter comprising 48.5 and 46 per cent of immigrant stocks in 1990 and 2019, respectively (UN DESA, 2019a).

Internal migration has been the major contributor to urbanization over the past 50 years. The share of people living in cities has increased from 37 per cent in 1976 to 56 per cent in 2017 (FBoS, 2018b). Rural populations have also altered, with a particular decline in younger and more educated cohorts (Underhill-Sem et al., 2019).

B.2 Migration and the economy

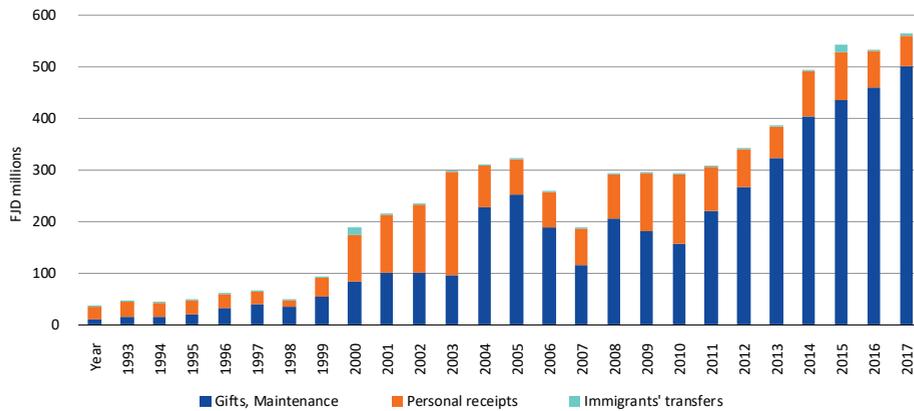
Since Fiji's independence in 1970, real GDP growth has averaged 2.8 per cent a year, with more positive acceleration since around 2011 (World Bank, 2017b). However, nominal GDP was estimated at FJD 11.7 billion in 2019 with growth at a decade low of just 1.3 per cent (Fiji, 2020c). Expansion of the economy has been hindered by natural hazards and political instability, and currently by low investment, weak exports and low-productivity jobs (World Bank, 2017b). Growth has primarily been driven by the service sector, especially tourism-related industries. Meanwhile, agriculture and industry have declined in importance to the economy, with agriculture as a share of GDP dropping most steeply due to a reduction in sugar sector productivity. In terms of expenditure drivers of growth, consumption explained more than 80 per cent of total output growth between 1970 and 2015 (World Bank, 2017b). Rising remittances from migrants abroad ensured consumption remained resilient during periods of slow domestic growth. As a geographically-isolated and disparate archipelago nation, Fiji has historically been heavily dependent on imports. Its trade deficit has increased due to shifting trends in global demand, including declines in exports of traditional goods like sugar and garments, in addition to an increase in import demand due to growing consumption among a burgeoning middle class and strengthening investment. Trade in services has been positive, but not enough to offset the widening gap between the export and import of goods. Emigration

of high-skilled workers may negatively affect productivity and the contribution of human capital to growth (World Bank, 2017b).

Remittances

Fiji has the highest inflows of international remittances among PICs in absolute terms, accounting for nearly 5 per cent of GDP in 2018.⁵⁰ With some fluctuations, personal remittances have grown dramatically since the turn of the twenty-first century, rising by more than 1,032 per cent from FJD 49.82 million in 1999 to FJD 564 million (USD 263 million) in 2018.⁵¹

Figure 38. Personal remittances to Fiji, by type, 1993–2018



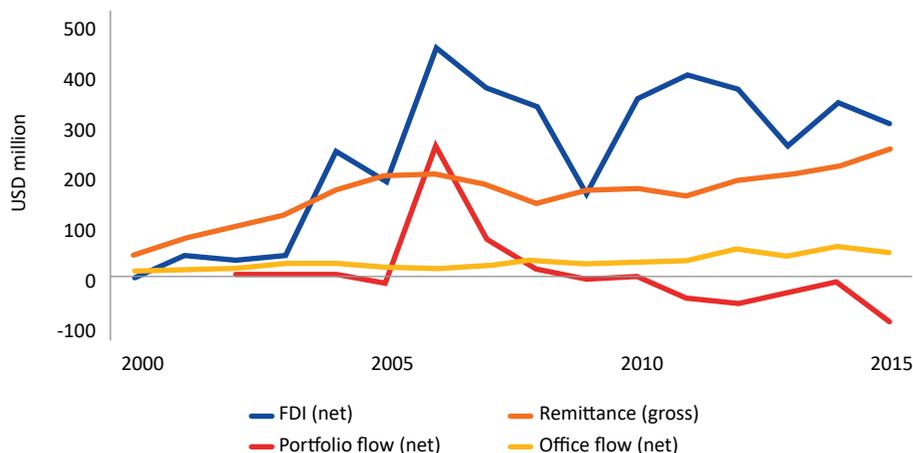
Source: Reserve Bank of Fiji (Fiji, 2019d).

Remittances have assumed an increasingly important role in Fiji’s economy, becoming the second largest source of foreign exchange following tourism and outstripping sugar, timber, gold and garments (Fiji, 2016). They have played an increasing role in financing growth in Fiji (World Bank, 2017b), and have been shown to have positive and significant effects on long-term economic growth in the country (Makun, 2018).

⁵⁰ Data shared by the Reserve Bank of Fiji and FBoS for the purpose of this Migration Profile.

⁵¹ Ibid.

Figure 39. Financing of growth in Fiji, 2000–2015



Source: World Bank 2017b, based on data from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) Balance of Payment Database.

Remittances are estimated to have financed 7 per cent of consumption over the last decade (World Bank, 2017b). Because they are relatively resistant to domestic economic shocks, they have been particularly important during periods of volatile domestic growth and to support households after natural disasters. While there is the risk that large remittance inflows could lead to currency appreciation and a deterioration in competitiveness and fall in exports, analysis suggests remittances have not led to long-term currency appreciation in Fiji (World Bank, 2017b).

Migration and remittances increase participation in the cash economy of households previously relying on subsistence livelihoods, mainly through increasing their consumption ability. One study found that remittances may also encourage rural households in Fiji to grow more cash crops rather than traditional root crops (Xing, 2018). Remittances also draw more people into the formal financial system, for instance through opening bank accounts and exposure to other financial products. Access to savings institutions by receiving households enhances the development impact of remittances as financial sector institutions can recycle savings as credit (Jayaraman et al., 2018). Improving financial literacy and increasing access to financial services are priorities in Fiji's National Development Plan to deepen the country's financial system.

Many migrants in Fiji still bring cash or goods when travelling home, in part because of the high costs of sending money through official channels. Transaction costs associated with sending remittances remain a constraint to development, particularly felt by the poorest for which remittances comprise a larger share of total income (World Bank, 2017b). Pacific Islands tend to have

some of the highest transaction costs in the world, averaging 11.6 per cent between 2011 and 2017 (Hahm et al., 2019). Fiji has seen a significant reduction in average transaction fees from 13.4 per cent in 2011 to 8.9 per cent in 2017 (World Development Indicators). However, this remains well above the 2030 Agenda global target of reducing transaction costs to no more than 3 per cent by 2030.⁵² In one study, it was found that improving migrants' financial literacy to use lower cost remittance providers could save many individual Pacific Islanders in Australia several hundred US dollars a year (Karunarthne and Gibson, 2014 in Underhill-Sem and Marsters, 2017). A possible solution to high transaction costs could be adoption of more fintech remittance services, such as using internet or mobile phones (Hahm et al., 2019). Increasing the use of mobile phones for sending remittances is a target in Fiji's National Development Plan.

Investment by Fijian diaspora

Limited research has been conducted on the investment behaviour of the Fijian diaspora. One of the few studies is a recent survey of Fijians in the United Kingdom (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2018).⁵³ The Commonwealth Secretariat-commissioned study on understanding the potential investment of the Commonwealth Diaspora that included Fijians living in the United Kingdom found that the Fijian diaspora members in the United Kingdom were highly engaged with Fiji, with almost all those surveyed sending money to friends and family in Fiji and generally maintaining strong cultural and emotional connections to the country. The study also found that the Fijians in the United Kingdom who participated in the survey maintained financial links with Fiji which were focused on benefitting family, friends and local communities, more so than financial motivations. Ninety-four per cent of the Fijians living in United Kingdom that responded to the survey had sent money to friends and family in the year before the survey, 66 per cent had made donations in kind either to family and friends or charities (clothes, household items), and 38 per cent had made financial donations to charities or religious groups. Most (72%) who sent money in the past year did so in transfers under GBP 5,000 (FJD 13,800), as it was expensive and complicated to send larger amounts.

Although there was strong interest among the Fijian diaspora members in the United Kingdom to invest in Fiji, 43 per cent of those who responded to

⁵² 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Target 10.c: "By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent".

⁵³ Most participants in the survey were born in Fiji (96%). 71% had arrived between 2001 and 2017, while only 5 per cent had arrived before 1980. As such, the survey mainly involved first generation migrants, and not second or third generation diaspora.

the survey did not have any formal investments or savings there. Nearly half held a savings or deposit accounts in Fiji, while only a small number said they held other forms of investment such as insurance products, pension products, a business, stocks and shares or government bonds.

Furthermore, the study also found that respondents noted political instability and corruption as the most common governance issues seen as obstacles to investing historically. Financial barriers most cited were currency fluctuations, financial instability and the high costs of transferring money from the United Kingdom. Many Fijians living in the United Kingdom that participated in the study also mentioned red tape, excessive regulations, taxation and logistical difficulties of sending and investing money in Fiji. More than 40 per cent said they did not have enough information about investment/savings opportunities, and a similar share reported they were too far away geographically to manage their money and did not know nor trust any organization to manage it on their behalf.

Investment by foreign citizens

Foreign nationals provide an important source of investment in Fiji, particularly in the service sector and tourism, but also in manufacturing, wholesale and retail trade, agriculture and forestry. In 2019, 254 foreign nationals were granted three-year investor permits and there were 175 foreign-registered projects in the country, down from a 10-year high of 475 in 2017. Foreign nationals taking advantage of investment opportunities in Fiji come from more than 70 countries, with the largest flows of proposed foreign investment from citizens of China, Australia, the Republic of Korea, the United States, and New Zealand (see Table 6).

Table 6: Proposed investments in Fiji, by citizenship of investor, number of investors, proposed employees and proposed investment, 2015–2019

Country/Territory of Citizenship	No. of Investors	Proposed Employment	Proposed Investment (FJD)
China	1 307	7 126	1 162 075 425
Australia	390	5 745	1 144 228 945
Fiji*	507	5 595	831 120 151
Republic of Korea	169	512	760 534 722
United States	175	1610	443 305 199
New Zealand	337	2440	424 899 218
Papua New Guinea	10	213	198 128 550
British Virgin Islands	7	407	88 750 000
Sri Lanka	17	180	79 214 942
Malaysia	10	105	57 249 889

Country/Territory of Citizenship	No. of Investors	Proposed Employment	Proposed Investment (FJD)
Singapore	12	219	53 864 101
India	207	853	52 760 276
Hong Kong SAR, China	29	288	43 320 070
United Kingdom	52	152	35 055 779
Canada	17	73	31 729 740
Other	321	1 250	88 174 561
Total	3 567	26 768	5 494 411 568

Source: Investment Fiji, data shared for this Migration Profile.

Note: Data refer to proposed projects approved by Investment Fiji and granted a Foreign Investment Registration Certification. Projects still need other approvals and actual implementation.

* Refers to Fijians partnering with foreigners on an investment proposal.

B.3 Migration, employment and the labour market

B.3.1 Impacts of immigration on the labour market

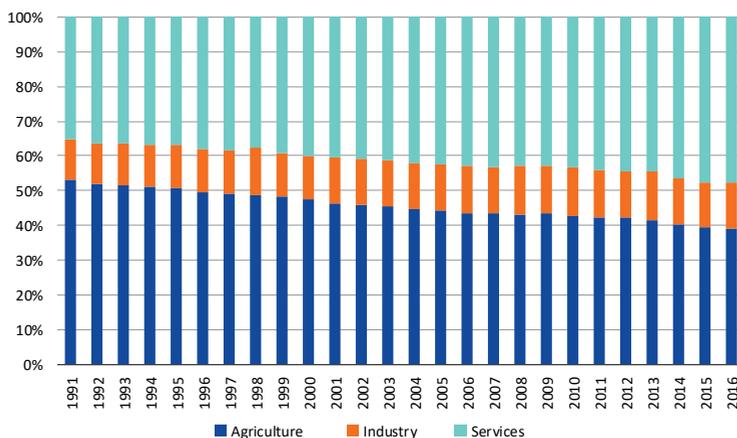
Almost all literature on the impacts of migration on Fiji concern temporary and seasonal mobility of Fijians in the Pacific, and permanent emigration of Indo-Fijians. There are no studies specifically addressing the impacts of *immigrants* on Fiji's labour market.

As international immigration to Fiji is small-scale, it does not have strong macrolevel impacts on the labour market. However, migrants play an important role within particular sectors, including through filling skill shortages created by high-skilled emigration, such as in the fields of education and medicine. Foreign labour is also important in agriculture and construction. Internal rural-to-urban migration has had a large impact on labour market dynamics.

Services have been the main driver of job creation in Fiji for the past several decades, with low-skilled labour transitioning from agriculture and industry (World Bank, 2017b). Figure 40 illustrates the shift in agricultural jobs to the service sector over the past 20 years, which now accounts for nearly half of employment. More than one third of jobs are estimated to stem from tourism (IFC, 2019). Other growing industries include construction and manufacturing. While unemployment in Fiji is low, the labour market is characterized by high levels of informal employment and under-employment, as well as significant subsistence activities (ADB and ILO, 2015). Estimates suggest the informal sector accounts for about 10 per cent of GDP,⁵⁴ and possibly as much as 25 per cent (Medina and Schneider, 2018). Lack of productive employment has been identified as a development constraint (ADB and ILO, 2015).

⁵⁴ Based on FBoS data "Real GDP by formal and informal" available here: www.statsfiji.gov.fj/index.php/statistics/economic-statistics/national-accounts-gdp.

Figure 40. Employment by sector, 1991–2016



Source: World Bank, Data Bank, Jobs (World Bank, 2020).

Fiji's labour force participation rate⁵⁵ was 57.1 per cent, according to the 2017 census, fluctuating modestly between 57 and 62 per cent since the 1990s.⁵⁶ Differences are stark between the participation rate of men (76.4% in 2017) and women (37.4% in 2017). There is some international evidence that an increase in remittances may reduce labour force participation, for example by raising reservation wages and requiring women to care for the extended family of migrant spouses.

According to the 2017 Population and Housing Census, unemployment was just 4.5 per cent, the lowest recorded in 20 years. Again, outcomes are different for men and women, with men half as likely to be unemployed (2.9%) as women (7.8%) – a pattern that has persisted in Fiji over the years. The unemployment rate is higher in urban areas (5.7%) than rural areas (2.9%), with the differences between men and women occurring in both. The high rates of unemployment among women are mainly driven by the Central and Western Divisions at 6 and 10 per cent in urban and rural areas (FBoS, 2018b). Youth unemployment (ages 15–24) was 10.3 per cent as of 2017.

Fiji has been experiencing a shortage of workers in the agricultural and construction industries, particularly higher skilled construction workers. To fill these gaps, Fiji has recruited labour migrants from Bangladesh, China and the Republic of Korea (Underhill-Sem et al., 2019). Foreigners in PICs including Fiji often fill technical, managerial, entrepreneurial or professional shortages (ILO,

⁵⁵ Labour force participation rate refers to the share of people over age 15 who are working in paid or unpaid work, or who are unemployed and actively looking for work/available to take up work.

⁵⁶ <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.ZS?end=2018&locations=FJ&start=1990&view=chart>

2017). Foreign nationals have been recruited to fill positions in the health sector, including specialists and doctors (see Section B.3.5) as well as play an important role in Fiji's fishing industry (Fiji Fishing Industry Association, 2020). Foreign crew are also sought after for long-duration (up to four months) fishing ventures often beyond Fijian waters. The Fiji Fishing Industry Association suggested training Fijians with fishing-specific STCW-F⁵⁷ certification could reduce the tendency for young Fijian officers to give up commercial fishing for less physically strenuous careers like working on passenger vessels.

Meanwhile, the lowering of the retirement age to 55 has meant many skilled Fijian workers unable to work in Fiji are available and competitive in regional labour markets (Underhill-Sem et al., 2019).⁵⁸ In recent years, the Fijian Government has invested heavily in building out the country's vocational training programmes to fill this skills gap.

B.3.2 Emigration of Fijians and labour market impacts

Emigration is critically linked to Fiji's labour market. Labour emigration can be an important source of foreign income and skills development for Fijians, benefiting migrants and their communities and the Fijian economy, not to mention receiving countries. However, there can also be drawbacks requiring mitigation, such as loss of skills in sending country labour markets, absence of prime working-age people in local communities, and subtraction from productivity growth in the economy.

Historical discussions on emigration from Fiji have often been approached from the perspective of a "brain drain". The large, mainly permanent emigration of Indo-Fijians in the 1980s through the early 2000s led to significant skill losses, with some shortages persisting today. The education and health sectors have been particularly hard hit. Between 1987 and 2004, some 10,700 professionals are estimated to have emigrated from Fiji, including architects, engineers, and related technical workers, teachers, accountants and medical workers (Fiji, 2002; Mohanty, 2006). An estimate by ILO, in 2001, suggested emigrants represented more than half of Fiji's stock of middle to high-level workers (Fiji, 2002).

However, the picture may not be as bleak as the above data seem to suggest. A study by Chand and Clemens (2019), found the push to emigrate incentivized Fijians to invest in skills development and – because not all

⁵⁷ International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Fishing Vessel Personnel, 1995.

⁵⁸ The retirement age was decreased from 60 to 55 years in 2009.

emigrate – the result was a net increase in the share of the skilled population in Fiji that more than offset the loss of skills resulting from emigration. Furthermore, recent developments suggest there may be school and university graduates who cannot be absorbed into the domestic labour market, and therefore emigration can reduce unemployment, overskilling and relax social tensions.⁵⁹

More recent trends in temporary and seasonal labour mobility offer opportunities for Fiji to benefit from overseas work with less risk of permanent skills loss. However, there is a need to carefully monitor these dynamics to ensure Fiji does not lose workers with skills most-needed for its development, and that seasonal work programmes do not keep migrants in cycles of low-skilled ‘permanent’ temporary migration (Bedford et al., 2017 in Underhill-Sem et al., 2019). The vast majority of temporary labour migration is to the large economies of Australia and New Zealand. The potential benefits of intraregional migration among more similar-sized Pacific Island economies are largely unexplored.

While Australia and New Zealand offer temporary migration options for low-skilled workers, Australia’s programmes – other than seasonal work and now the Pacific Labour Scheme (PLS) – are generally more restrictive, with fewer options for lower-skilled migrants. The expansion of the Seasonal Workers Program (SWP) in 2018 to include the accommodation sector⁶⁰ and launch of the PLS – which offers non-seasonal work for longer durations, present more options for Fijian migrants and may incentivize skills development in these areas as opposed to just unskilled agricultural work. They may also result in more women participating (Connell and Petrou, 2019), as well as expanding opportunities for Pacific workers to fill shortages in the growing care sector in Australia (Curtain et al., 2016).

New Zealand has more options for low-skilled migrants beyond seasonal agriculture and horticulture work. Indeed, Fijians are much more likely to utilize other, non-seasonal work visa categories – primarily the essential skills visa, which has no minimum skills threshold. Most Fijians in this scheme work as technicians, trades workers and labourers, with data showing about four-in-five are concentrated at the middle and lower end of the skills spectrum (New Zealand, 2020).⁶¹ Australia’s non-seasonal temporary work visa equivalent, now known as the Temporary Skill Shortage visa, in contrast does not allow for recruitment below a medium skill level and has offered few visas to Fijians and other Pacific Islanders (Curtain et al., 2016). Curtain et al (2016) identified the

⁵⁹ Eberhart Weber, senior lecturer at University of the South Pacific. Communication for this Migration Profile.

⁶⁰ See https://docs.employment.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/accommodation_factsheet_3.pdf.

⁶¹ Mainly skills categories 3 and 4 (with 1 being highest skilled and 5 being lowest skilled).

absence of a medium and lower skills occupational pathway as one of the major barriers for Pacific migrants to work in Australia for longer periods.

New Zealand's Pacific Access Category, which offers spots by lottery to 250 Fijians each year who have a job offer, also seeks to avoid a "brain drain" by not imposing any minimum skill level (Curtain et al., 2016). Curtain recommends slightly tougher admission requirements – such as completion of secondary school – could actually stimulate a brain gain in Pacific sending countries, while still avoiding a brain drain. Such a requirement would, for instance, encourage youth in Fiji to finish secondary school.

One of the intended benefits of temporary migration is to enhance the skills of workers to return home with better employment options in the sending country labour market. Seasonal schemes have been designed explicitly to promote this development outcome for sending States (Friesen, 2018; Underhill-Sem et al., 2019). However, for this to occur, three things need to be in place: skills are actually enhanced through migration, migrants return to their home countries and upon return, they use improved skills in the labour market or channel savings towards business development.

A positive example of upskilling through mobility schemes is New Zealand's pilot project with carpenters. In 2016, under New Zealand's Canterbury Reconstruction Pilot, carpenters from Fiji, Samoa and Tonga were employed to work in the rebuilding of earthquake-hit Christchurch, leading to a new Pacific Trades Partnership initiative, which currently recruits trained Pacific Island carpenters for short-term employment in New Zealand's construction industry (ILO, 2019).

Seasonal mobility

While most migrants return home after participating in seasonal schemes, research suggests the schemes are not especially effective at building skills needed in Pacific island sending States. A 2014 study on participation of Tongans and ni-Vanuatu in New Zealand's RSE scheme found it had little impact on increased skills or self-employment prospects on return (Gibson and McKenzie, 2014, p.242). RSE participation was unlikely to have a major impact on the productivity of workers on their own farms upon return as types of produce and

growing conditions were different and skills developed were not applicable in local contexts, such as for fruit pruning (ibid).

Most Fijians participating in seasonal work schemes were reported to return to their respective village and continue farming or start a small business following work abroad.⁶² Fiji's recruitment process for seasonal worker schemes in Australia and New Zealand actively targets rural and remote areas as these workers are most suited to agricultural labour.⁶³ The majority have low levels of education (primary and secondary).⁶⁴ More systematic collection and analysis of data on outcomes following return would be helpful in understanding whether seasonal schemes are effective in enhancing opportunities for workers returning to Fiji.

Underhill-Sem et al. (2019:24) define a framework of “wins” and “losses” to consider whether seasonal labour mobility schemes support or undermine sustainable development in the Pacific. They note that while “to a large extent, the benefits seem to outweigh the shortcomings,” the programmes should be evaluated from a perspective of sustainable development. Their framework for evaluation of “wins” and “losses” is presented below, with the “losses” shaded in grey.

⁶² Meeting between IOM Fiji and Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations, 12 September 2019.

⁶³ Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations, Migration Profile Technical Working Group meeting, 6 November 2019.

⁶⁴ Meeting between IOM Fiji and Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations, 12 September 2019.

Who Wins/Loses?	What are Wins/Losses?			
	Economic Imperative	Demographic Imperative	Political Imperative	Development Imperative
Country of Origin (including community)	<p>Increases remittances which improves national income.</p> <p>Family and community in home villages require cash to purchase food because of absent family member who usually provides garden or ocean resources.</p>	<p>Eases strain of “youth bulge” on wage employment.</p> <p>Opportunity for off-shore training of citizens.</p> <p>Loss of able-bodied people for gardening, building, fishing, cultural and social obligations when adequate plans are not made prior to workers leaving.</p>	<p>Provision of a key leverage point in PACER Plus discussions with Australia and New Zealand.</p> <p>Continued reliance on New Zealand and Australian as development partners.</p>	<p>Spreads effect of remittances and eases pressure on government services.</p> <p>Increased consumption of costly imported goods.</p>
Country of Destination	<p>Improved viability of horticulture / viticulture sector.</p> <p>Reliance on imported labour alongside continued high unemployment among low skilled (mentioned in PLMAM).</p>	<p>Responsiveness to shortage of readily available unskilled labour in rural areas.</p> <p>Reduces incentives to improve rural appeal and rural work for New Zealanders.</p>	<p>Consolidation of historical relationships with Pacific neighbours.</p> <p>Responsiveness to internal employer demands.</p> <p>Various forms of backlash against increasing reliance on temporary migrants in New Zealand economy.</p>	<p>Improved rural development in New Zealand.</p> <p>The risk of impeding development of rural New Zealand for all New Zealanders.</p>
Seasonal Worker (including family)	<p>Increased income, though only seasonal.</p> <p>Opportunity for training.</p> <p>Opportunity cost of work not done at home.</p>	<p>Reduction of tension with underemployed young people in home village.</p> <p>Delayed/interrupted parenthood in worker’s household.</p>	<p>Offers chance of being a good employee to ensure continued seasonal work for self or community.</p> <p>Shift in leadership structures.</p>	<p>Provides personal empowerment, work experience, community leadership and local business development.</p> <p>Reduction in community engagement in home community.</p>
Ancillary Services	<p>Increased revenue from services such as transport, accommodation, food suppliers.</p> <p>Increased pressure on health services in both origin and destination countries.</p>	<p>Increase in employment opportunities for rural New Zealanders (skilled and low skilled). This also applies under the first row – country of origin.</p>	<p>“Reciprocal” international trade and employment agreements for the mutual benefit of both New Zealand and Pacific countries.</p> <p>Increased pressure on Labour Sending Units especially linked with increasing complexity and diversity of temporary employment opportunities overseas.</p>	<p>Development of services in rural New Zealand to support RSE.</p>

Source: Underhill-Sem et al., 2019. *Are There Only Winners? Labour Mobility for Sustainable Development in the Pacific*. New Zealand for Pacific Research.

Other temporary mobility

Fijians working overseas on non-seasonal temporary visas are less likely to return to Fiji than those in seasonal work schemes. Furthermore, higher skilled workers may be the least likely to return, heightening the potential for skill losses.

Data on the transition from temporary work to residence visas reflect a high retention rate of Fijian workers in New Zealand. Of Fijians in New Zealand on Essential Skills visas that ended between July 2006 and June 2012, three quarters remained in New Zealand on residence visas five years later, while only 22 per cent had left the country (New Zealand, 2018b). Between 2016 and 2017, 58 per cent of Fijians who transitioned from temporary work visas to permanent residence in 2016–2017 did so through the skilled migrant category (New Zealand, 2018a). Fifty-eight per cent of Fijians who transitioned from temporary work visas to permanent residence in 2016–2017 did so through the skilled migrant category (New Zealand, 2018a).

New Zealand’s Essential Skills work visa links work permit duration with a worker’s skill level. Workers with the lowest skill level are granted one-year visas, while those with the highest skills could be granted a visa for up to five years.⁶⁵ Until 2017, visas for less skilled workers could be renewed indefinitely, leading many to stay on for years. However, these rules were changed in 2017 to encourage return, so less-skilled migrants are now required to leave New Zealand after three years and not reapply for a work visa for a further year. They were also restricted from bringing dependent family members with them (Friesen, 2018). Those with higher skills and thus longer initial visa durations, may be more likely to remain overseas after their initial visas end as they build up personal and professional ties. In fact, “temporary work visas are a means of transitioning to permanent residence, an option actively promoted by the New Zealand immigration system for highly skilled migrants” (Friesen, 2018). Particular concern has been raised through academic studies over the movement of doctors, nurses and other trained medical workers, and teachers (Friesen, 2018).

Maximizing benefits

For Fiji to realize the benefits of labour emigration it is critical to invest in workforce planning, including matching skills development with forecasted demand (Chand, 2019). This can include improving the domestic Technical and

⁶⁵ Visa durations varies. Workers admitted to the lowest (4–5 level) skilled jobs obtain one-year visas. Those admitted to skilled (2–3 level) jobs are granted three-year permits. Finally, those admitted to the highest skill jobs may be granted permits for five years (Immigration NZ 2015b: in World Bank, 2017a:18).

Vocational Education Training (TVET) system and prioritizing accredited training programmes that match demand sectors in Fiji and overseas, such as the Australia Pacific Training Coalition (APTC) (formerly Australia Pacific Technical College). Established with Australian Government funding in 2007, the APTC aims to link skills creation with labour demand in the Pacific region by building technical and vocational skills at Australian qualification standards⁶⁶ to match employment needs in PIC domestic labour markets and abroad. Certificates and diplomas are offered in the automotive, manufacturing, construction, electrical, tourism, hospitality, education, management, health and community services sectors. APTC has campuses in five countries, including Fiji. As of November 2019, 4,700 Fijian students had graduated from its programmes.⁶⁷

The APTC aligns with Objective 18 of the Global Compact for Migration “to invest in skills development and facilitate mutual recognition of skills, qualifications and competencies.” As stated specifically in the Global Compact for Migration:

“We commit to invest in innovative solutions that facilitate mutual recognition of skills, qualifications and competences of migrant workers at all skills levels, and promote demand-driven skills development to optimize the employability of migrants in formal labour markets in countries of destination and in countries of origin upon return, as well as to ensure decent work in labour migration.”

APTC has had mixed results, particularly with regards facilitating skilled emigration. While many students enrol to migrate abroad, in reality few manage to. An independent evaluation of the APTC in 2014 found that despite its emphasis on promoting regional and international labour mobility, APTC had not pursued this objective for several complex reasons including the need to allay “brain drain” concerns. It also found poor matching of skills training with requirements for migration to Australia and New Zealand, concluding that “less than half of APTC graduates (46%) are in an approved occupation or appropriate qualification level to be eligible to gain skilled migrant entry to Australia or New Zealand” (Johanson et al., 2014:17). Matching the number of APTC migrants as a proportion of all its graduates eligible for skilled migration to gauge the extent to which the labour mobility objective had been achieved showed that 6.9 per cent of eligible APTC graduates who could have migrated did so (ibid). The current stage 3 of APTC, launched mid-2018, has a renewed focus on labour mobility⁶⁸

⁶⁶ APTC is also assisting national TVET institutions to deliver internationally recognized training.

⁶⁷ See: <https://corporate.southpacificislands.travel/2019-aptc-graduations-conclude-with-fiji-graduation/>.

⁶⁸ See www.dfat.gov.au/sites/default/files/investment-concept-australia-pacific-technical-college-aptc-stage-3.pdf.

and together with establishment of the Pacific Labour Scheme (PLS) which opens up a pathway to low and semi-skilled mobility, these migration outcomes should improve. The third stage also began piloting an “international track” (or “away track”) and a “domestic track” (or “home track”) to guard against skill loss through emigration. The intention is that students wishing to pursue employment in their home country opt for the domestic track, while those who intend to work abroad select the international track and receive specific support related to migration. This approach assumes applicants have already decided whether they intend to emigrate or not and supposes incentives to remain home will be sufficient enough to attract students to the domestic track.

Costly processes for qualification recognition in Fiji may also hinder labour mobility, particularly restricting access for those in remote locations of the country.⁶⁹ Other factors hindering labour migration abroad are the requirement to already have a job offer, and costs of applying for visas.⁷⁰

As regards temporary skilled and seasonal migration visas, Pacific Islanders face steep competition from other nationalities (mainly European and North American) who are on working holiday visas in Australia and New Zealand, because many employers find it preferable to recruit someone who is already in-country (Johanson et al., 2014:19). Curtain et al. (2016) noted the challenge to identify and nurture employer demand for direct recruitment from the Pacific, while enhancing opportunities for Fijians to travel abroad.

B.3.3 Protection against exploitation of workers

Migrant workers, particularly those in temporary positions linked to employers, are vulnerable to exploitation. While the governments of Australia and New Zealand have screening and registration requirements for employers and conduct inspections of work sites, exploitation remains an ongoing challenge. In 2016, Australian unions reported to the Senate that seasonal workers were subject to long work hours, excessive deductions for food and board and were housed in substandard accommodation (Munro, 2018). In September 2019, New Zealand announced reforms to its employer-assisted temporary work visas, with employers required to be accredited to support a migrant’s application. That same month, the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment launched a multi-year review of temporary migrant worker exploitation.⁷¹

⁶⁹ Recognition of skills for Pacific Islanders migrating to Australia has been considered costly. However, there has been some progress. From February 2016, it has been possible for carpenters and bricklayers in Fiji to get their trade skills assessed for the 457 visa in Suva (World Bank, 2017a:20).

⁷⁰ Information provided by APTC for the purposes of this report, July 2020.

⁷¹ See www.mbie.govt.nz/immigration-and-tourism/immigration/temporary-migrant-worker-exploitation-review/.

During research for this Migration Profile, Fiji's Director of Labour Standard Services noted the main issues that occurred with overseas employment contracts were, namely, that contracts failed to include proper repatriation clauses, employers failed to disclose correct wages and pay structure(s), and deductions for wages were not properly included.⁷² The Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations' Workmen's Compensation Unit keeps data on work-related injuries and deaths, but does not distinguish between those occurring overseas or in Fiji.⁷³ Enhancing real-time information exchange systems between the Fijian Government and Fijian seasonal workers overseas could be explored to enable timely responses to exploitation and worker concerns.

Legislation relating to the protection of workers in Fiji applies regardless of whether a person is a migrant or Fijian citizen, but data do not allow for analysis of labour infractions faced by immigrant workers specifically. Cases before Fiji's Employment Tribunal do not record if those involved are migrants or not. However, there have been known issues related to conditions and contracts of Bangladeshi workers, including wage, inadequate living and working conditions, and improper contracts.⁷⁴ The Fiji Commerce and Employers Federation advocates against exploitation of workers in its capacity as Fiji's employer representative to the Employment Relations Advisory Board. Moreover, the federation conducts information sessions and awareness trainings on the subject with its members.

B.3.4 Impacts of migration on education sector in Fiji

Migration has had a significant impact on the education sector in Fiji. Among the Fijian professionals who left the country between 1987 and 2001, teachers are estimated to be the single most dominant group (Fiji, 2002). Iredale et al. described an oversupply of teachers in Fiji among new graduates and less qualified teachers, but a shortage of those experienced and highly qualified, especially in particular subject areas at secondary school level, such as mathematics and science (Iredale et al., 2015). Because qualification requirements are stringent in key emigration destinations like Australia and New Zealand, only the most qualified teachers tended to leave for work abroad, exacerbating shortages in Fiji.

⁷² Meeting between IOM Fiji and Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations, and written communication September 2019.

⁷³ Ibid.

⁷⁴ Ibid.

Researchers Iredale et al. described an “emigration mentality” among Fijian teachers. In their 2005–2006 survey of more than 400 teachers in Fijian primary and secondary schools, 40 per cent said they intended to live in another country permanently (Iredale et al., 2015). The main reasons cited were “better opportunities for [their own] children [elsewhere]” followed by “better health care [elsewhere]” and “poor job, low pay, poor working conditions [in Fiji]”, as well as discrimination, political persecution and crime at the time for Indo-Fijian respondents (ibid). As this research was carried out more than a decade ago, these attitudes may have changed.

Other countries in the region are actively recruiting Fijian teachers or adjusting points-based systems to attract teachers. In January 2018, New Zealand began offering cash payments of NZD 5,000 (FJD 7,190) to attract teachers from abroad.⁷⁵ The Government simplified the qualification recognition process for nationals from some countries, including Fiji (those with USP qualifications only).⁷⁶ Between 2004 and 2017, some 220 Fijian educational professionals held non-seasonal work visas in New Zealand (Friesen, 2018). Throughout the 1990s, Australia refined its selection points system to attract teachers (Iredale et al., 2009). Within the Pacific region, some Fijian teachers migrate to other PICs to work on contracts of six months to several years. These are mostly teachers who have retired at the compulsory age of 55, and some movements have been within the framework of Fiji’s volunteer service. (Underhill-Sem et al., 2019). The scheme supports PICs to address skills shortages in health, education and other key areas and is intended to serve as a “win-win” for all parties.

Despite the reported shortage of experienced teachers in Fiji, there are few foreign-born educators working in primary and secondary schools. Dos Santos (2019) described the challenges of recruitment and retention of foreign staff at international schools in Fiji. His research highlighted negative experiences with administrative management styles and the lack of support for positive classroom environments as some of the most important factors influencing turnover rates among foreign teachers. Research found it can be challenging to attract and retain highly qualified teachers in remote and rural areas, which could have implications for internal migration of Fijians (Dos Santos, 2019).

Foreign volunteers are a regular presence in Fiji’s primary and secondary schools. Between 2016 and 2019, there were 40 to 100 each year, mainly from

⁷⁵ www.nzherald.co.nz/nz/news/article.cfm?c_id=1&objectid=11981974.

⁷⁶ www.nzqa.govt.nz/qualifications-standards/international-qualifications/international-qualifications-assessment/teaching-iqa-exemptions/.

the United States, followed by the Republic of Korea and Japan, according to data collected by the Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts.⁷⁷

Attracting academic staff can also be a challenge at tertiary level, although institutions like USP are especially popular among academics from the region. In 2019, there were 89 international academic staff working at FNU and 150 at USP's campuses across the region.

International academic staff at FNU included teachers and senior university management, according to data from the staff database. Roughly half were from India, while 14 were from Australia, and small numbers of staff from other countries. More than 70 per cent were male.

At USP, foreign staff made up just over a quarter of those employed across its 14 campuses in the region, including academic and non-academic positions. Of the 438 foreign nationals working there in 2019, 83 per cent were from the other regional member countries of the university.

In the preparation of this Migration Profile, FNU noted the most challenging staff to recruit were senior academic staff, academics in the fields of medicine and engineering, and senior executives. Other universities also reported difficulties obtaining work permits for academic and professional staff due to lengthy processes and pressure from the DoI to recruit national or regional staff.

B.3.5 Migration impacts on medical sector in Fiji

Along with teachers, emigration of skilled health-care workers is a concern for Fiji. In 2011, the World Bank ranked Fiji as one of the top 10 countries with the highest emigration rates of physicians.⁷⁸ There were nearly as many Fijian-born doctors working in Australia and New Zealand as there were in Fiji in 2006, and more Fiji, Samoa and Tonga-born nurses and midwives there than in the domestic workforces in their home countries (Negin, 2008). Data from New Zealand showed around 3,000 Fiji-born health workers were granted visas by New Zealand during 2004–2017 (Friesen, 2018). Fijian health workers have also moved to the United States, Canada and other countries, although less research is available on the impacts of these migrations.

Emigration may be motivated by low pay, lack of training opportunities and poor working conditions in Pacific Island countries (Negin, 2008). A study

⁷⁷ Figures do not include international secondary (Suva) and international primary (Nadi).

⁷⁸ Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011, page 11: <https://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLAC/Resources/Factbook2011-Ebook.pdf>.

in Fiji found reasons for emigration of doctors were less to do with pay than they were with working conditions, career progression and political instability in Fiji at the time (Oman et al., 2009). The research suggested the availability of local or regional post-graduate training opportunities may increase retention of specialist doctors (ibid).

Emigration of health-care workers can lead to shortages in Fiji that negatively impact health outcomes of the population (see Section B.5). Data on medical doctors per 10,000 members of the population show Fiji far behind main destination countries of Australia and New Zealand – with just 8.4 doctors per 10,000 people in Fiji compared to 35.9 in Australia and 30.3 in New Zealand (WHO, 2019). Density of nursing and midwifery personnel is also far lower (ibid). While imbalances are still large, there has been an improvement in these ratios over the past decade in Fiji from just four doctors per 10,000 in 2008.⁷⁹

Furthermore, emigration of health workers – especially those trained in sending States – carries a financial burden due to training additional professionals and hiring expatriates to replace those who have left (Negin, 2008).

Recruitment of foreign-born doctors and medical professionals in Fiji is seen as one way to fill shortages.⁸⁰ In 2011, foreign doctors filled 25 per cent of health centre medical posts run by the Ministry of Health and Medical Services (Roberts et al., 2011).

SDG 3 towards good health and well-being, recognizes the importance of training and retention of skilled health workers in developing countries and small island States. This is articulated in Target 3.C: “Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing States”.⁸¹ The World Health Organization’s (WHO) Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel adopted in 2010 aims to correct imbalances in health care mobility, recruitment and retention. However, even in the absence of active recruitment of health workers, various factors still drive migration to wealthier States, and may even be exacerbated by aid programmes and labour mobility schemes intended to assist developing States (Bray, 2019).

While often framed as a “brain drain”, however, research points to the nuanced and complex effects of skilled migration and suggests emigration does

⁷⁹ See: <https://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.main.SDG3C?lang=en>.

⁸⁰ See for instance: www.pressreader.com/fiji/the-fiji-times/20190906/281535112673375.

⁸¹ See: www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/health/.

not necessarily entail net losses to sending countries (Gibson and McKenzie, 2014). For example, there is evidence in migration and remittance-oriented countries that more people may be motivated to receive training in health professions in the first place as it enables a career that gives scope for migration (Brown, 2008). Because not all those who are trained will in fact emigrate, domestic skill supply may actually be enhanced. Governments may also invest more heavily in training to increase “human capital exports”, as illustrated by the Philippines (ibid). In a WHO-funded survey, Brown and Connell investigated the migration status and motivations of Pacific Island skilled health professionals from Fiji, Samoa and Tonga. A significant proportion of the sample stated that a major reason for entering the health-care profession was to enhance their income earning potential through migration” (Brown and Connell, 2004 in Brown, 2008).

There are also opportunities through migration for Fijian doctors and nurses to train abroad and return home, or to gain skills through exchange programmes, including for medical students.

B.4 Migration and social development

Fiji is considered an upper-middle income country, with correspondingly low levels of extreme poverty (World Bank, 2017b). According to the latest estimates, 34 per cent of Fijians live below the national basic needs poverty line, and 2.5 per cent live in extreme poverty (World Bank, 2017b). Economic growth in the past decade has been inclusive of these populations with real per capita consumption increasing more strongly among the bottom 40 per cent in the first decade of the 2000s (World Bank, 2017b). While poverty reduction has occurred in rural and urban areas since the turn of the century, urban poverty began to rise again from 2008. As such, poverty rates were becoming more similar across urban and rural areas as of the last available estimate in 2013, leading to a reduction in national inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient. The increasing poverty in urban areas may be in part due to rural-to-urban migration, but not entirely (World Bank, 2017b).

The impact of migration – particularly through remittances – on welfare, poverty reduction and development of human capital has been a central topic of investigation for several decades. Studies around the world have found numerous positive effects on household welfare through increased per capita incomes, savings, access to durable goods and improvements in education and health outcomes. Many of these results have been replicated in the Pacific region. Negative migration impacts must also be taken into account, including

skill losses, falls in productivity and income from the absence of able workers, increased responsibilities for family members left at home, family strains and marital problems due to prolonged separations and increased earnings and consumption leading to changes in relationships between family, land and community. In estimating the impacts of migration on income and poverty, calculating this net effect has been a key focus of research internationally over the past several decades.

Fijian migration – internally and internationally – may often be understood as part of a household strategy to diversify livelihoods and “modes of production”, particularly in response to the lack of employment in rural communities (Weber, 2017). Family members may engage in subsistence agriculture as well as “urban capitalist high-tech production”, with those who migrate providing those who stay with remittances (ibid).

Research in Fiji shows that remittances have helped to achieve poverty reduction, particularly during times of domestic shock by helping the poor diversify income sources (Brown et al., 2014; World Bank, 2017b). Not only do remittances increase consumption, but research suggest they lead to greater long-term wealth of receiving households in Fiji (Brown, 2008).

Fiji’s latest Household and Income Expenditure Survey found that families were increasingly reliant on remittances, with remittances as a share of total household income rising from 4 per cent in 2002–2003 to 10.5 per cent in 2013–2014 (FBoS, 2015). Remittances were particularly important for the poorest recipients, equivalent to as much as 82 per cent of all other sources of incomes (Brown et al., 2014). Brown’s research in 2008 found that 42 per cent of Fijian households received international remittances: not only households with a family member abroad (86%), but also 20 per cent without any family member overseas (Brown, 2008). In Tonga, a country with a much more developed history of migration, 80 per cent of non-migrant families had received remittances, suggesting that as migration and remittances become more commonplace in an economy, non-migrant households can benefit more from direct access to them (ibid).

A study looking at the impacts of New Zealand’s seasonal workers scheme on Tongan and ni-Vanuatu households found large positive effects on sending households (Gibson and McKenzie, 2014). These included a rise in per capita income, expenditure and savings, evidence of increased school attendance, and positive impacts on communities as reported by community leaders (ibid). There were also increases in the share of households holding bank accounts and purchases of durable goods. The results showed greater positive development

impacts through seasonal migration than other common development initiatives like microfinance, conditional cash transfers, and business training for micro-enterprises.

Research in the Pacific region has revealed positive remittance impacts on school attendance. In the above-mentioned study, 40 per cent of Tongans and 28 per cent of ni-Vanuatu indicated school expenses as the most important use of the money earned during seasonal work in New Zealand (Gibson and McKenzie, 2014). This translated into higher rates of school attendance for 16 to 18-year-olds in Tonga, although there was no discernible effect in Vanuatu. In Fiji, thanks to free access to primary and secondary education, virtually all primary age children enrol in school, while dropping-out becomes more of a problem in upper secondary and tertiary-level education (World Bank, 2017b). Remittances have been found to have a positive effect on school attainment after free primary education, with some differences based on rural/urban, gender and ethnicity (Gounder, 2014; Brown, 2008). Brown also found that attainment of tertiary level education was more likely in Fiji among individuals who had a household member who intended to migrate in the near future (Brown, 2008).

Furthermore, remittances can play an important role in recovery from natural disasters and adaptation to climate change. In 2016, remittances increased following Tropical Cyclone Winston, as Fijians abroad sent more cash and gifts to friends and relatives in Fiji (Fiji, 2016). Various other examples can be found in the region, including in Samoa following a tsunami in September 2009 (Le De et al., 2015).

While not Fiji-specific, research on social impacts of temporary migration around the world has found a range of benefits and drawbacks for families and individuals – including greater autonomy, self-esteem and family bargaining power for women, although these effects may be temporary. Other research has found a backlash towards changes in gender roles. However, significant research has also pointed to negative social impacts on relationships and families. When women emigrate (and leave families behind), daughters and grandmothers often take on increased childcare responsibilities, and children may suffer negative socio-psychological effects from the absence of their mothers. When husbands migrate (and leave families behind), women tend to have greater responsibilities and duties. Migration of either partner can have potentially negative impacts on intimate relationships (World Bank, 2018). Emigration of whole families leads to different impacts, which are not covered here.

Research on the impacts of Tongan and ni-Vanuatu participation in Australia's SWP found the prolonged absence of male family members often led

to “issues of neglect and failure on the part of men/husbands to provide regular financial support for the families back home” (World Bank, 2018). It also found couples were affected by an erosion of trust and commitment. Participation of men or women was reported to sometimes cause conflict between couples due to a lack of communication, extramarital affairs and, in the case of men abroad, wasteful spending of money earned. When men departed, women were also left with increased responsibilities at home leading to stress. Participation of women, albeit low in the SWP, showed some signs of a temporarily loosening in gender roles with men taking on more childcare and household duties while female family members were away (World Bank, 2018). Female participants in the SWP reported greater financial literacy and leadership – for instance in managing household finances – due to their migration (ibid).

Similar impacts may be generated by participation in other temporary work schemes, keeping in mind they tend to involve longer periods overseas. Most categories of essential skills visas to New Zealand, for instance, allow for family members to accompany the principal migrant on work or student visas. However, this is not the case for low-skilled workers or those in certain jobs.⁸² Australia’s new PLS raises concern because it allows for up to three years in Australia, yet does not permit immediate family to join primary migrants. The age range for participation in the programme is 21–45 years, so while many workers will likely be single, some may be married with children. PLS does permit some flexibility, allowing workers to take leave after one year, for instance, and Fiji’s Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations is able to negotiate contract conditions. However, there is concern it could lead to prolonged separations of families. Seasonal work schemes, although lasting just six months, may produce somewhat similar impacts because many participants are rehired for the following season, meaning they are repeatedly away for half the year. In the World Bank’s study on Tonga and Vanuatu, 90 per cent of men and 75 per cent of female participants indicated their intention to continue working as seasonal workers for “as many years as possible” (World Bank, 2018:28).

A growing number of families have become reliant on remittances from family members abroad. This can leave them vulnerable if remittances cease due to the ending of a relationship, for instance, or divided loyalties with new partners in destination countries. The Ministry of Women, Children and Poverty Alleviation has seen cases of families who relied on remittances and became destitute when a spouse stopped sending.

⁸² See details on eligibility here: www.immigration.govt.nz/new-zealand-visas/apply-for-a-visa/about-visa/essential-skills-work-visa.

Seasonal work abroad gives participants and their families greater access to the cash economy. In Tonga and Vanuatu, per capita incomes of households with a member participating in New Zealand’s RSE rose by 30 per cent, according to research mentioned earlier (Gibson and McKenzie, 2014). Researching the effects of increased income on male RSE participants from Port Vila, in Vanuatu, Maggie Cummings suggested there was a need to support the creation of “exit plans” for a post-RSE life, “such that men can envisage a future that does not rely on endless migration that undermines local understandings of place and personhood”. Her research explored the influx of relatively large sums of money and the uncertainty of returning workers between using their earnings to support communities and families or for their individual gain. Cummings writes:

“The RSE aims to increase ni-Vanuatu access to and engagement with the cash economy; it is then hoped that the cash will be infused into local communities, encouraging further development from the grassroots level. However, there is a paradox at the heart of these schemes – ideally, they work best when people remain loyal to their traditional communities, kin networks, and church congregations. But being a part of the RSE not only demands the cultivation of an individualistic sensibility and work ethic, at least temporarily; it often cuts short relationship networks and challenges conventional loyalties and relationships” (Cummings, 2016:31).

B.4.1 Impacts of internal migration

Accelerating migration from rural to urban areas has contributed to a reduction in national level poverty and inequality, in part through the redistribution of jobs from agriculture to the less volatile service sector (World Bank, 2017b) and the circulation of goods and money among households split between rural and urban areas.⁸³ However, this migration has increased urban poverty and inequality, as evidenced by the expansion of squatter settlements (World Bank, 2017b). The 2017 census estimated as many as one quarter (24%) of Fiji’s urban population was living in informal housing (120,494 people). This included 28,000 people in Suva and another 18,400 in neighbouring Nasinu. Up to 19,000 people were estimated to live in informal housing in Lautoka, and 18,700 in Nadi (FBoS, 2018b). More than a third of the poor now live in the Central Division, where Suva is located, with cases of extreme poverty (World Bank, 2017b). The population growth rate of greater Suva is double the national rate, and urban infrastructure is unable to keep pace (ibid).

⁸³ Eberhardt Weber, senior lecturer at University of the South Pacific. Communication for this Migration Profile.

Social changes brought about by internal migration are varied, including increasing productivity and opportunities for individuals, as well as negative impacts of leaving older people and children isolated in rural areas, and increases in crime (Naidu and Vaik, 2016). Underhill-Sem et al. also noted shifts in ethnic relations and orientation of Fijian politics. Because the processes of internal migration and urbanization have led to more ethnically mixed communities, and an increasing number of people living on low wages and in precarious employment, they suggested this had contributed to shifting the nature of politics in the country from one based primarily on ethnicity, towards one based on economic interests (Underhill-Sem et al., 2019).

B.5 Migration and health

Fiji has made some progress against key health indicators, with a slow increase in life expectancy and a decrease in the maternal mortality rate; however, many indicators actually worsened in recent decades. Fiji's maternal mortality rate decreased from 51 in 2000 to 34 in 2017, while the infant mortality rate increased slightly from 19.3 to 21.4 and the under-5 child mortality slightly worsened from 22.7 to 25.4 during the same period (UNICEF, 2020). Life expectancy has risen slightly, but is still relatively low at about 70 (FBoS, 2020b).

The incidence and prevalence of non-communicable diseases (NCD), such as diabetes, cardiovascular and respiratory diseases is high in Fiji. Data show that a 30-year-old in Fiji has almost a one-in-three chance of dying from an NCD before its 70th birthday (30.6%), well above the global average of 18 per cent (WHO, 2019). At least one-in-three people in Fiji is diagnosed with diabetes.⁸⁴

Migration impacts on health have largely been related to emigration of health personnel, exacerbating shortages of health professionals, including specialists (Roberts et al., 2011). Staff shortages are well recognized as a key factor undermining progress towards health-related SDGs (Wisemen et al., 2017). Lack of specialized care means some Fijians need to travel overseas to receive tertiary treatment. Health worker shortages are pronounced in rural and remote areas largely due to internal migration to cities. Numbers of doctors are especially low, with nine of Fiji's provinces having fewer than 10 doctors each, according to a 2017 assessment (Wiseman et al., 2017).

⁸⁴ See Fiji's Ministry of Health and Medical Services www.health.gov.fj/?page_id=377 and 2019 research plotting 28 countries, which found Fiji had the highest incidence of diabetes <https://journals.plos.org/plosmedicine/article?id=10.1371/journal.pmed.1002751#pmed.1002751.s008>.

The degree to which international migration is responsible for workforce shortages in Fiji is difficult to measure. The prospect of migration may encourage more of its population to train in health professions in the first place and improve the quality of training available (see Section B.3.5).

Another consideration is the impact of remittances on health outcomes of family members remaining in Fiji. Research found that remittances are likely to make an important contribution to household health outcomes due to their large positive impacts on household wealth (Brown, 2008).

There has been little or no research on health outcomes of immigrants in Fiji, nor the effects of immigration on health of the wider Fijian population. A person suffering from a contagious or infectious disease can be prohibited from entering Fiji, according to the Immigration Act 2003 (see Section C.1.1).

PART C. GOVERNANCE OF MIGRATION

Fiji National Development Plan and migration

Fiji's 2017 National Development Plan (NDP), for five and 20 years, strives for inclusive development to ensure the socioeconomic rights enshrined in the Constitution are upheld for all Fijians. The NDP also promotes strategies aimed at stimulating green growth, boosting international connectivity, investment, productivity and human capital development. It is aligned with Fiji's global commitments, including the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the Paris Agreement on Climate Change.

The NDP is centred around the principle of leaving no one behind, although neither nationality nor citizenship is explicitly mentioned in this equation. It focuses on generation and retention of qualifications in the domestic labour market, but also mentions development opportunities enabled through remittances from overseas employment. It also notes the possibilities of seasonal migration to reduce pressures on the domestic labour market and lower unemployment. The plan aims to improve Fiji's business environment, including through encouraging foreign direct investment, such as through development of specialized economic zones.

In the short term, the NDP calls for a review of immigration rules to remove obstacles for foreign nationals, encompassing the issuance of work permits and to accommodate extended stays by visitors to stimulate tourism growth. Most of the migration-related focus is on strengthening border security. Strategies are included to prevent irregular migration into Fiji, reduce threats of transnational crime, establish an integrated passport issuance system and improve management and monitoring of migration. Key performance indicators include the aim to reduce the number of trafficking in persons victims and enhance the Integrated Border Management System.

C.I Immigration and citizenship: Legal and policy framework

Three main acts regulate migration and citizenship in Fiji: the Immigration Act (2003) and subsidiary legislation Immigration Regulations 2007, Citizenship Act (2009) and Passport Act (2002).

C.1.1 Immigration to Fiji

The *Immigration Act 2003* was revised and enacted by Parliament in October 2003. The Act regulates migration to Fiji, covering entry and departure, prohibited immigrants, anti-trafficking and smuggling of persons, refugee determination, deportation and appeals. It also sets out designation, appointment and powers of immigration officers. The Act repeals the Immigration Act (Cap 88), Deportation Act (Cap 90) and Aliens Act (Cap 91).

The *Immigration Regulations 2007* set out provisions for implementation of the Act.

The following is an overview of the system governing immigration to Fiji as contained in the *Immigration Act 2003* and *Immigration Regulations 2007*.

Entry to Fiji

Entry and departure from Fiji must be at a declared port or authorized airport. A person who is not a citizen of Fiji may not enter Fijian territory unless they have a permit, visa or are exempt from requiring a visa or permit. The countries exempt from requiring a visa may be altered by the Minister responsible for immigration through publication in the *Republic of Fiji Islands Government Gazette*.

Visitors

At the time of writing, citizens of 110 countries were permitted to enter Fiji for up to 14 days without a visa (visa-exempt).⁸⁵ Visitors who obtain a visitor visa can also stay in Fiji for a maximum of four months within one year from the date of issue of the visa. Visitors can extend their stay for two months following an application process. Alternately, visitors can apply for a multiple entry visa valid for 12 months which allows multiple entries to Fiji for stays not exceeding four months on any one stay.

Other permits for entry and stay in Fiji

Anyone who is not a citizen or exempt from requiring a permit, and who wishes to work, study, conduct research, claim asylum or reside in Fiji must obtain an appropriate permit.

⁸⁵ For a list of visa-exempted countries as of publication, see: www.immigration.gov.fj/travel-requirements/visa-exempted-countries

Work: Non-citizens may obtain a work permit for up to three years if either:

- they have a signed employment contract and their job cannot be filled by a citizen of Fiji;
- they are a church minister or religious worker;
- they will teach in a Fijian educational institution and their employment has been approved by the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education, Heritage and the Arts;
- they will work in the medical field and their employment has been approved by the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Health and Medical Services;
- they are a qualified professional who will work in their field and whose skills are deemed beneficial to Fiji by the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration;
- they are a volunteer who the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration is satisfied will engage in charitable work beneficial to Fiji.

Work permit recipients must not engage in other employment, or – if their work is tied to a contract – work for any other employer. The *Immigration Regulations* include a provision that the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration may require an employer of a non-citizen to implement a training programme for Fijian citizens to acquire the skills for which it was deemed necessary to hire a foreign national.

- Working on a visitor permit: the Immigration Act 2003 contains provisions to allow business, work, investment study or research by a foreign national for 14 days while on a visitor permit (Section 9(3)(a)). At the discretion of the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration, this time period can be extended.

Immigration legislation is currently being reviewed with the intention to create a range of new permits. One of these new permit types will be for skilled spouses of primary permit holders to allow the spouse to work on a partner's permit without applying for a separate work permit.⁸⁶

Study: Non-citizen students may obtain a permit for up to three years to study at a secondary or tertiary educational institution in Fiji. They must already be enrolled or have a letter of acceptance and agree *inter alia* to attend 80 per cent of course hours, to achieve a satisfactory academic result, and not change

⁸⁶ Information shared during Migration Profile Technical Working Group meeting, 6 November 2019.

educational institutions without prior notification. Students are not permitted to work during their studies, although they can apply for a permit to do an internship upon termination of their course. Should they wish to obtain a work permit, they must leave Fiji and apply from abroad.

Investment: A foreign investor may obtain a seven-year permit if they invest and maintain at least FJD 500,000 in a business, trade or undertaking approved by Investment Fiji. A permit of three years may be obtained with an investment of any amount that is also approved by Investment Fiji. These regulations were changed in 2013: previously there was a minimum investment of FJD 250,000 required for any investment permit length. Regulations were under review at the time this Migration Profile was drafted. The Foreign Investment Act (FIA) and the 2009 Foreign Investment Regulation regulate foreign investment in Fiji.

Residence: There are two primary categories of residence permits:

- a. Permanent residence valid for five years and allows the recipient to work or study. Applicants must have been living in Fiji lawfully for at least five years before they apply.
- b. Assured income residence valid for three years and does not allow the recipient to work or study. Recipients must prove they can financially care for themselves and are not likely to engage in work and are retired.

Two additional categories allow for immediate and extended family of either permanent or assured income permit holders to obtain residence permits (co-extensive and special purpose). Holders of these permits are not allowed to work or study.

Research: Researchers can obtain permits for up to 18 months, provided their application is approved by the Minister of Education, Heritage and Arts. As noted above, short periods of research may also be conducted while on a visitor permit.

Asylum: People applying for asylum in Fiji must obtain a provisional protection permit upon notifying the government of their intention to seek asylum. If the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration determines the person ought to be recognized as a refugee, the claimant will be granted a protection permit valid for three years and may be extended upon payment of a fee.

Other: Special purpose permit allows entrance for a certain period as determined by the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration.

No person who is unlawfully in Fiji, in lawful custody, or a patient in a mental hospital may be issued any of the above permits.

Cancellation, prohibited immigrants, removal and deportation

Cancellation of a permit: Any permit may be cancelled should the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration be satisfied the person holding the permit ought not to have been granted it, or if the person has breached the conditions of the permit, or if the permit was obtained through fraud or misrepresentation. The permit holder has a right to respond to the grounds on which the decision is based, and is granted a right of appeal should the cancellation process proceed.

If a permit is cancelled because the holder has overstayed by more than seven days, they will be prohibited from entering Fiji as a visitor for 12 months after the date of their departure. Length of overstay and time prohibited from entering may vary. The period during which entry is prohibited may be removed by the Minister responsible for immigration following application and payment of a fee.

Prohibited immigrants: Anyone requiring a permit to enter, but who does not acquire one, is prohibited from entering. There is also a range of prohibited classes. These include *inter alia*: any person who enters Fiji by virtue of trafficking or smuggling; a person suffering from a contagious or infectious disease or mental disease or disorder that makes their presence dangerous to the Fijian community; a person who has been convicted of an offence in another country that if committed in Fiji would carry a minimum penalty of two years' imprisonment or a minimum fine of FJD 5,000; a person who is a member of a terrorist group. Immediate family members and dependents of the prohibited immigrant are also prohibited from entry unless they have been approved by the Minister responsible for immigration as not themselves being part of a prohibited class. For a complete list of prohibited classes, see Part 4 of the *Immigration Act 2003*.

If a prohibited immigrant enters Fiji on a ship or aircraft, whether or not with the knowledge of the owner, owner's agent or commander, the owner, the owner's agent or the commander each commits an offence. They may also need to cover the costs incurred in connection with the removal of the prohibited immigrant (the State will incur all or some of the costs if at the time of entry,

the prohibited immigrant was in possession of a permit or visa purporting to authorize entry).

Fiji is part of information sharing agreements with Australia, New Zealand and members of the Pacific Immigration Development Community to detect and prevent entry of people with links to criminal activity, and to minimize impacts of transnational crime on Fiji and other countries.⁸⁷

Removal: The Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration may issue a removal order requiring a prohibited immigrant to leave and not return for a specified period.

Deportation: A deportation order may be issued to a non-citizen who has been convicted of an offence in Fiji or another country. If the person has been in Fiji for less than 10 years, a deportation order could be issued after an offence carrying a sentence of at least two years' imprisonment or a fine of at least FJD 5,000. Any non-citizen who is convicted of a crime carrying a sentence of 20 years or more or a fine of at least FJD 20,000 can be issued a deportation order, irrespective of how long they have been in Fiji. Or, finally, any non-citizen who is deemed to constitute a threat to the security of Fiji, regardless of convictions or time in Fiji.

C.1.2 Social protection of migrants in Fiji

Non-citizens have limited access to social protections in Fiji.

Education: Children of foreign permit holders in Fiji can attend public schools and do not need to apply for an additional permit. Children of primary permit holders who are 18 or over are considered adults and therefore must apply for a student permit.

Health care: Non-citizens can access public health care free of charge.

Unemployment, pension, poverty benefits and other social protection schemes: non-citizens are not required to join the Fiji pension scheme, but may do so under certain circumstances.

Labour rights: Fiji ratified the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87) in 2002. The Fijian Constitution also ensures that all workers have the right to fair employment practices, including

⁸⁷ IOM meeting with Fiji Department of Immigration, 31 October 2019.

to join a trade union and participate in its activities, and guarantees the right to freedom of association. Non-citizens are allowed to join trade unions, and workplace safety laws and regulations apply equally to citizens and migrant workers.⁸⁸

C.1.3 Citizenship

Fiji citizenship regulations are specified in the *Citizenship of Fiji Decree 2009* (Fiji, 2009), which came into force on 10 April 2009. The decree replaces citizenship criteria formerly contained in the now abrogated 1997 Constitution.

The decree allows for possession of multiple citizenships (Section 14) prohibited in previous legislation.

Fijian citizenship can be acquired by birth, registration or naturalization.

Birth: Every child born in Fiji becomes a citizen of Fiji upon birth. An infant found without parents, is presumed to have been born in Fiji and therefore deemed to be a Fijian citizen.

Registration:

- Children: (a) a child born outside Fiji on or after 10 April 2009 can acquire citizenship by registration if either parent was a citizen at the time of the child's birth, (b) a foreign child adopted by a Fijian citizen, can acquire citizenship by registration, (c) if a parent becomes a Fijian citizen before their child turns 18, the child may acquire citizenship as well. If an application in the above three scenarios is not made before the child turns 18, the individual can only acquire citizenship if they have been residing lawfully in Fiji for three out of the five years immediately before the application is made.
- Spouses: Foreign spouses of Fijian citizens can acquire citizenship by registration if they have resided lawfully in Fiji for three out of five years immediately before the application is made.
- Former citizens: Former Fijian citizens must be granted citizenship unless the Minister responsible for immigration is not satisfied the applicant is of good character.

⁸⁸ www.parliament.gov.fj/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/Act-No-4-Employment-Relations-Amendment.pdf.

Naturalization:

An adult can acquire Fijian citizenship through naturalization if they have resided lawfully in Fiji for five out of 10 years immediately before the application is made. An application may be refused if the applicant is deemed not to be of good character, does not have sufficient “knowledge” of the English language or does not intend to continue to reside in Fiji.

A person who obtains Fijian citizenship by registration or naturalization may be deprived of it, if that citizenship was obtained by fraudulent means or if the person engages in an activity deemed incompatible with the oath or the allegiance taken upon acquisition of citizenship.

Fijian citizens may renounce their citizenship voluntarily if they are at least 18 years of age and citizens of another country.

C.2 Labour migration: Legal and policy framework

Immigration

Fiji acceded to the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers in May 2019, becoming the first PIC to do so.^{89,90} The convention protects human rights and freedoms of migrant workers and their families. National labour laws also provide some protection, including the *Employment Relations Act 2007* under review at the time of writing.

A number of foreign workers in Fiji are employed for international organizations, foreign embassies and governments, and international non-governmental organizations. These workers are not all subject to the same national labour regulations nor considered “migrant workers” under the convention (Sloan, 2019).

Work permits must be obtained prior to entry and usually require the applicant to already have a job offer in a position that cannot be held by a Fiji citizen (see Section C.1.1 for a full list of work permit types and criteria).

⁸⁹ Palau signed the Convention in 2011, but has not ratified it.

⁹⁰ The Government of the Republic of Fiji declares that it does not consider itself bound by provisions of Article 92(1) concerning dispute resolution.

Emigration

None of the five principal countries of destination (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States) for Fijian emigrants has adopted the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers. Hence, protection of migrant workers in those countries depends on national legislation.

Fiji has adopted steps to protect its migrant workers. Section 37 of the *Employment Relations Act 2007* requires that all contracts for overseas work be approved by the Permanent Secretary for Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations. Recruitment agents must be registered in accordance with the Employment Agencies Regulation of 2008. The recruitment agent must deposit a FJD 20,000 bond as a part of the registration process, and must disclose recruitment fees for approval by the Permanent Secretary for Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations.

Section 37(4) of the *Employment Relations Act 2007* includes the following criminal offence in relation to employing migrant workers:

37(4) No person shall enlist or recruit any person for employment under any foreign contract of service unless the person is authorised in writing by the Permanent Secretary for Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations.

37(5) A person who contravenes subsection (4) commits an offence and is liable on conviction to a fine not exceeding FJD 20,000 or to a term of imprisonment not exceeding 4 years or both.

The long-term strategic planning framework for labour markets in Fiji is grounded in the *National Employment Centre Act 2009* (Decree No. 54 of 2009). This legislation commits to securing improved livelihoods for people throughout the country, including through creating the National Employment Centre, Fiji Volunteer Service, and facilitating foreign employment.

National Employment Centre

Fiji's National Employment Centre (NEC) was established in 2009 under the *National Employment Centre Act 2009* with a core mandate to facilitate employment abroad. The NEC is the central registration base for all jobseekers in Fiji for domestic and international labour opportunities. The NEC's Foreign Employment Service facilitates temporary emigration of Fijians, mainly to

Australia and New Zealand, through their seasonal workers programmes. The focus has been on lower-skilled migrants due to concerns about excessive emigration of Fiji's skilled workforce, such as nurses and teachers. Anyone who is unemployed in Fiji and aged 15–45 years must register with the NEC and can indicate their desire to work abroad. For participation in seasonal work schemes, workers are typically recruited from rural areas and by nomination from village leaders. Following medical and physical screening they are placed in a “work-ready pool” for selection by employers. For participation in the PLS, recruitment is demand driven and employers are provided with a list of potentially suitable workers from the work-ready pool. Employers then conduct interviews and make selections. Many employers in seasonal and non-seasonal schemes choose to employ the same people they worked with in the past. Processes of recruitment are slow, which may partly explain why employers prefer to take returning workers over new ones to avoid repeating the whole process.⁹¹

The NEC has seven centres concentrated in Viti Levu (five) and Vanua Levu (two). The NEC runs pre-departure trainings which take place over three days following recruitment.

The NEC also runs Fiji's Volunteer Service which facilitates international and domestic volunteer opportunities. It aims to boost intraregional mobility and skills transfers. Mainly teachers and nurses near or post-retirement are placed as professional volunteers in other PICs to share skills and experience within the region. In 2018, Tonga's Minister for Education and Training met with Fijian officials to study the volunteer service's legislative and operational framework with a view to establishing a similar scheme for retired teachers in Tonga (Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations, 2018 in ILO, 2019).

C.2.1 Regional labour mobility agreements

Seasonal Worker Program (Australia)

Launched in 2012, the SWP is open to workers from Pacific Island countries and Timor-Leste for temporary employment in the agriculture sector and, as of 2018, the accommodation sector. Workers can stay for up to nine months in a 12-month period. Fiji's participation is governed by a MOU with Australia, signed in April 2015.

⁹¹ www.employment.gov.fj/images/Media/PublicNotice/SEASONAL%20WORK%20SELECTION%20CRITERIA.pdf.

Pacific Labour Scheme (Australia)

The PLS was launched in 2018 to complement the SWP by allowing participants to work in all sectors across rural and regional Australia. The scheme is open to countries participating in the SWP and allows for workers to stay a maximum of three years rather than nine months under the SWP. Fiji's participation is governed by an MOU with Australia, signed in April 2019.

Recognised Seasonal Employer scheme (New Zealand)

The RSE scheme was launched in 2007 to help fill seasonal labour shortages in New Zealand's horticulture and viticulture industries. The scheme is open to nationals of nine PICs with an annual cap of 14,400 in 2019, up from an initial 5,000. New Zealand employers can apply for RSE status and fill seasonal positions for which there are no qualified New Zealanders. The scheme allows recipients to stay in New Zealand for seven months in an 11-month period. Workers may be re-employed through the scheme in subsequent years. About 70 per cent of those participating in the scheme are from Tonga and Vanuatu (Gibson and McKenzie, 2014). Fiji's participation is governed by an MOU with New Zealand, signed in December 2014.

Skills Movement Scheme (Melanesia)

Fiji participates in the Skills Movement Scheme (SMS), as a member of the Melanesian Spearhead Group (MSG). Introduced through a MOU between MSG members Fiji, PNG, Vanuatu and Solomon Islands in 2012, it allows the temporary movement of 400 skilled workers from each member country to work in another member country. The quota is a minimum number and may be increased by receiving States at their discretion. Each member State provides a list of professions which may enter through the scheme. Potential workers must apply directly through departments of labour in the receiving States. The MOU also provides for the development of common standards and recognition of qualifications within MSG members based on the Mutual Recognition Arrangement. However, utilization of the scheme is low.

Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations Plus, side agreement: Labour Mobility Arrangement

Fiji is notably absent from the Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations (PACER) Plus, a free trade agreement between Australia, New Zealand and nine Pacific Island countries covering goods, services, investments and

labour mobility. While the PACER Plus includes a binding agreement on labour mobility, it only concerns high-skilled workers and largely mirrors existing access arrangements. A separate Labour Mobility Arrangement⁹², that is non-legally binding, aims to enhance and improve existing temporary labour mobility schemes between PICs, Australia and New Zealand. Within the framework of the arrangement, an annual meeting was established – Pacific Labour Mobility Annual Meeting (PLMAM). The PLMAM brings together PACER Plus signatories, observers, industry and civil society representatives. Fiji participates in the meetings, although is excluded from certain sessions.

Fiji–Australia Vuvale Partnership⁹³

While not a labour mobility agreement, the Fiji–Australia Vuvale Partnership highlights the importance of mobility between the two countries. Signed in September 2019, the partnership includes an intention to expand participation of Fijians in Australia’s labour mobility programmes, including the PLS. The partnership recognizes that “enhanced labour mobility is a shared priority in the economic relationship, providing direct benefits to both countries.” It states an intention to expand Fiji’s participation in Australia’s mobility schemes, including the PLS, monitor the welfare of Fijian workers, and ensure the smooth transition and reintegration of workers and their families.

C.3 Counter-trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling: Legal and policy framework

Fiji acceded to the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime and its two protocols on counter-trafficking and smuggling in September 2017. The main national sources of legislation covering counter-trafficking and smuggling are the Immigration Act 2003 (Part 5), and the Crimes Act 2009 (Part 12).

The Immigration Act defines trafficking in persons as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a person for the purposes of exploitation” (Part 5, Section 17(1)). The Act also defines the crime of exploitation of a person not entitled to work: namely, it is an offence to employ someone not lawfully allowed to work in Fiji while taking action that intends to: (a) prevent the person from leaving Fiji, (b) to prevent the person from seeking lawful entitlement under the law, or (c) prevent the person from disclosing to

⁹² <https://dfat.gov.au/trade/agreements/not-yet-in-force/pacer/fact-sheets/Pages/labour-mobility-arrangement.aspx>.

⁹³ <https://dfat.gov.au/geo/fiji/Pages/fiji-australia-vuvale-partnership.aspx>.

any other person the circumstances of their employment. For any of the above three offences, consent or belief of consent, of the person trafficked or exploited is not a defense.

Smuggling of migrants is defined in the Immigration Act (Part 5, Section 17(1)) as: “the arranging or assisting of an unauthorised migrant’s illegal entry into any country.” Smuggling for material benefit is an offence whether or not the attempt is successful. Aggravated smuggling involves knowingly smuggling a migrant: (a) who is intended to be or is being exploited, (b) subjecting the migrant to torture or other inhumane or degrading treatment, or (c) where the life or safety of the migrant is endangered or is likely to be endangered. As such, it has potentially broad application.

It is also an offence to knowingly facilitate the continued stay in Fiji of an unauthorized migrant by unlawful means and for material benefit or to make, obtain, give, sell or possess a fraudulent travel or identity document for the purposes of facilitating trafficking or smuggling. Related crimes are aiding and abetting, incitement to commit an offence, conspiring to commit an offence and attempting to commit an offence.

In line with the Palermo protocols on counter-trafficking and smuggling, victims of trafficking in persons, labour exploitation or migrant smuggling are not liable to criminal prosecution for the crimes of trafficking, smuggling, unauthorized stays and other associated offences.

The Crimes Act 2009 (Part 12) defines the offences of trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling, trafficking of children, slavery and debt bondage. These crimes are punishable by imprisonment, with trafficking carrying a sentence of 12 years, aggravated trafficking (20 years) and child trafficking (25 years). While most forms of trafficking are criminalized in the Act, it does not criminalize all forms of trafficking in persons as it requires international or domestic movement in the definition of trafficking not consistent with international law (United States Department of State, 2020). While the Crimes Act includes provisions for debt bondage, the penalties are low (12 months if the victim is an adult and 24 months if the victim is a child).

The Constitution of the Republic of Fiji protects the right to “freedom from slavery, servitude, forced labour and human trafficking” in the Bill of Rights, Section 10.

Falsification of documents is addressed in the Passports Act 2002, and Passports (Amendment) Bill 2016.

Fiji has yet to ratify the ILO Work in Fishing Convention No.188 that sets out binding requirements to address work conditions and provides for regulations concerning labour recruitment and investigation of complaints by fishers aimed to reduce forced labour, trafficking and other abuses in commercial fishing.

Fiji was ranked as a Tier 2 Watch List country in the annual United States Department of State Trafficking in Persons Report 2020.

Policies

Fiji is a pathfinder country for Alliance 8.7, a global partnership for eradicating forced labour, modern slavery, trafficking in persons and child labour around the world, in line with SDG Target 8.7. Nominating itself for the role in 2018, Fiji has committed to moving faster to achieve this target, trying new approaches and sharing best practices with alliance members. The Fijian Government is currently developing a roadmap for achieving these goals.⁹⁴ One action is ongoing work to review and revive its National Plan of Action to Eradicate Trafficking in Persons and Child Trafficking.

There is ongoing concern in government and civil society regarding the protection of migrant workers in Fiji, some of whom may be victims of trafficking. Some workers are housed in poor conditions without sufficient food. Some employers terminate contracts prior to expiration and before full salaries and benefits have been paid. Employers notify the DoI they have terminated the contract of a worker, and the DoI then issues a removal notice. Workers who are not removed remain in the country without access to income as they have not been paid their full wages and are not allowed to work in Fiji. The DoI, Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations and trafficking taskforce in the Fiji Police Force are working to address this – for instance by allowing some migrants and victims of trafficking to extend their stays in Fiji, and by ensuring regulations around cancellation of permits are upheld (14 days for the migrant to explain why its permit should not be cancelled).

⁹⁴ See National Strategic Planning Forum to develop a joint roadmap for Fiji as a pathfinder country to achieve SDG Target 8.7, August 2019: www.ilo.org/suva/events-and-meetings/WCMS_714762/lang--en/index.htm.

C.4 Asylum seekers and refugees: Legal and policy framework

Fiji has played a leadership role for other Pacific Island countries in the region, despite the small number of people who seek asylum there. Fiji became party to the 1951 United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol in 1972. In 2003, with the passage of the Immigration Act, provisions governing refugee status determination were entered into domestic law. The Immigration Act 2003 contains a definition of refugee essentially the same as that contained in the convention, however, it includes more grounds for exclusion. For instance, applicants would be excluded from refugee protection in Fiji if they were “at present receiving protection and assistance from a third country or international agency in Fiji”.

The first instance decision of the Permanent Secretary to the Minister responsible for immigration can be appealed. However, the legislation is not clear on whether the Minister’s decision is subject to judicial review. In a case before the High Court in 2017, it was ruled the applicant had no right to appeal the Minister’s decision (Song, 2018).⁹⁵

Fiji’s legislation respects the fundamental international legal principle of *non-refoulement*, which guarantees that no individual be returned to a country where they would face torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment and other irreparable harm.

Process

People applying for asylum in Fiji must obtain a provisional protection permit upon notifying the government of their intention to seek asylum. If the Permanent Secretary responsible for immigration determines the person ought to be recognized as a refugee, the claimant will be granted a protection permit valid for three years and may be extended.

Asylum seekers waiting for a decision on their refugee claim are not permitted to work. Once they have been recognized as refugees and obtained the proper permit, they are able to work. Asylum seekers and refugees are not entitled to welfare assistance.

⁹⁵ Judgement: www.paclii.org/fj/cases/FJHC/2017/519.html.

C.5 Institutional framework

C.5.1 Government entities dealing with migration

Fiji Department of Immigration, Office of the Prime Minister

The Fiji Department of Immigration (DoI) sits under the Office of the Prime Minister. It is responsible for managing the flow of people across Fiji's borders, particularly through the administration and enforcement of the Immigration, Passport and Citizenship Acts. The DoI is comprised of six divisions (Compliance and Investigation; Passports and Citizenship; Permits and Visas; Border Control; Research and Development; and Corporate Services).

Compliance and Investigation covers the location, apprehension and removal of persons who have breached the conditions of entry or stay in Fiji, or who are of concern to Fiji for health, security or character reasons. Collaborates with Fiji Police on trafficking in persons investigations.

Passports and Citizenship is responsible for the processing and issuance of Fijian passports and processing applications for Fijian citizenship. The Permanent Secretary of Office of the Prime Minister is responsible for granting Fijian citizenship.

Permits and Visas deals with processing of applications and issuance of all permits and visas to foreign nationals entering or changing the conditions of their stay in Fiji.

Border Control is responsible for protecting and controlling the sovereignty of Fiji's borders. This includes clearance of aircraft, ships and yachts at Fiji's ports of entry, and prevention of unauthorized entry to Fiji in accordance with the Immigration Act 2003. It also covers issuance of exemption status for work or residence to eligible persons, extensions for visitors from visa-exempt countries, processing and upholding of prohibited immigrant notices, and the processing of people from visa-exempt countries entering Fiji to join yachting or shipping vessels.

The border control division engages in information sharing with the Pacific Immigration Development Community, Australia and New Zealand to identify potential threats arising through immigration to Fiji.

The Republic of Fiji Military Forces Naval division is responsible for maritime surveillance and represents the border control agencies at sea.

Research and Development deals with information analysis and dissemination, policy formulation and reviews, technological development to improve service delivery and external communications of the DoI. Some data are shared with the FBoS for analysis, while other data are kept in-house and analysed by the research and development team. The division also has focal points for refugee status determination, trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling.

Corporate Services provides administrative and financial support services to the DoI.

Ministry of Economy

The **Fiji Bureau of Statistics (FBoS)**, within the Ministry of Economy, collects and disseminates data on migration through the census, and other household and labour surveys. It also receives data for analysis from some government departments. FBoS has an MOU with the DoI which allows the latter to share weekly reports of raw data extracted from the Integrated Border Management System (IBMS) database. FBoS is in the process of amending the Statistical Act (Cap. 71), which will allow the bureau to take greater leadership in promoting data sharing between agencies and data users, avoiding duplication in data collection, promoting the use of common statistical standards, classifications and definitions, and ensuring maximum use of statistical data and information to support evidence-based government policies and programmes. FBoS also aims to develop a National Strategy for the Development of Statistics.

The ministry's **Climate Change and International Cooperation Division** is the leading government body addressing the mobility dimensions of climate change at policy level. In 2018, it coordinated the production of Fiji's National Adaptation Plan, and developed Planned Relocation Guidelines. It also produced Fiji's National Climate Change Policy 2018–2030, which recognizes human mobility as a priority human security and national security issue.

Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations

The ministry houses the National Employment Centre which facilitates government-to-government overseas employment of Fijian workers, including the Seasonal Workers Programme, Pacific Labour Scheme (Australia) and Recognised Seasonal Employer scheme (New Zealand) (see Section C.2). The ministry is also involved in tackling forced and child labour, including through trafficking, runs the Child Labour Unit, and is the lead ministry in Fiji's efforts

under Alliance 8.7 to achieve the SDG target of eliminating modern slavery, forced labour, trafficking in persons and child labour.

Ministry of Commerce, Trade, Tourism and Transport

Investment Fiji, within the Ministry of Commerce, Trade, Tourism and Transport, is responsible for reviewing foreign investment proposals and issuing Foreign Investment Registration Certificates. The certificate is a prerequisite to apply for an investor permit to enter Fiji.

The **Department of Tourism**, within the ministry, oversees the promotion and management of tourism in Fiji.

Ministry of Defence, National Security and Policing

The Ministry of Defence, National Security and Policing oversees the service of Fijian peacekeepers internationally, and high-level international dialogue relating to anti-trafficking in persons. The ministry is responsible for the National Action Plan on Human Trafficking and related policies.

Fiji Police Force maintains a Human Trafficking Unit and provides training to other police units on counter-trafficking in persons. The Police also collaborate with Australian Federal Police to combat potential child sex tourism by Australian nationals in Fiji.

Ministry of Disaster Management

The ministry's **National Disaster Management Office** leads the operational aspects of planned community relocations in Fiji and other mitigation and adaptation measures, as well as assisting communities and people displaced by national disasters.

Ministry of Health and Medical Services

The ministry approves foreign medical professionals seeking permits to work in Fiji.

Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts

The ministry oversees the education sector in Fiji, including approval of foreign teachers and researchers seeking permits to work or conduct research in Fiji, and maintaining a database of students and teachers (including international students).

Ministry of Women, Children and Poverty Alleviation

The work of the **Department of Social Welfare** within the ministry is aligned to international instruments, namely the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) which Fiji ratified in 1993, and the Hague Conventions on Protection and Cooperation in Respect of Intercountry Adoption that Fiji signed in 2012, as well as domestic legislation to protect children. The department has significant legal responsibilities as stipulated in relevant legislation – such as the Child Welfare Act, Adoptions of Infants, and the Juveniles Act – that generally covers the protection of children, including those trafficked. Any abuse of a child or trafficking of children will be reported under the Child Welfare Act and casework will be guided by the Juveniles Act.

In addition, the department has been working with providers of Fiji's nine certified children's residential homes housing children at risk and in need of care and protection. Eight of the homes belong to and are managed by faith-based organizations. The ninth home, namely Homes of Hope, provides shelter for women, girls and mothers with children who are victims of domestic violence and child sexual exploitation. The ministry provides care and protection allowance and grants to these nine homes.

Reserve Bank of Fiji

The Reserve Bank of Fiji monitors inflow of remittances from Fijians living and working abroad, as well as assesses the impacts that migration has on the economy.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

The ministry is responsible for maintaining and promoting diplomatic relations and international cooperation with foreign nations through its headquarters in Suva and its embassies and high commissions abroad. The ministry, through its overseas missions, also engages with diaspora communities and provides consular support.

C.5.2 External actors working on migration-related issues in Fiji

A number of international organizations and regional secretariats are based in Suva. The following list includes those engaged in migration-related work.

International Organization for Migration

Fiji became a member State of IOM in 2013 and signed a cooperation agreement with IOM in 2015. In 2017, IOM opened an office in Suva. IOM works with the Fijian Government on various aspects of international and internal migration, including labour mobility, border management, counter-trafficking, climate change and migration, emergency preparedness and response, and regional cooperation. The Suva office also provides some support to other governments in the region.

International Labour Organization

The ILO is one of the longest-standing international organizations in Fiji, opening its Suva office in 1975. As per its tripartite structure, ILO partners with the Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations, Fiji Commerce and Employers Federation and Fiji Trades Union Congress. ILO's mandate includes labour mobility and it continues to be an active partner to the Fijian Government and other organizations in Fiji on research, policy, and practical initiatives on a range of labour migration-related issues.

There are various other UN and international organizations based in Fiji whose work may touch on certain areas of migration, but do not have migration-specific mandates.

Non-governmental organizations

At the time this Migration Profile was drafted there were few NGOs explicitly working on migration issues in Fiji. Save the Children has carried out work on counter-child trafficking, including offering training. Homes of Hope supports women and girls who have experienced forced sex, including as a result of domestic trafficking. Other NGOs, whose work encompasses migration, include the Pacific Council of Churches, PIANGO, Fiji Council of Social Services, National Women Crisis Centre and Pacific Dialogue.

C.6 International cooperation

C.6.1 Bilateral agreements

Fiji–Australia Vuvale Partnership

In September 2019, Fiji and Australia signed a partnership agreement designed around five core pillars: strengthening people-to-people links, enhancing security cooperation, deepening the economic relationship, cooperating on international and regional issues as well as fostering closer institutional linkages for strong and inclusive societies.

Also see Section C.2.1 for bilateral and regional labour mobility agreements.

C.6.2 Membership in regional organizations

Pacific Islands Forum

Fiji is a founding member of the Pacific Islands Forum (PIF), established in 1971.⁹⁶ Made up of 18 Pacific Island Country members, including Australia and New Zealand, the forum aims to achieve deeper regionalism in the Pacific through enhancing cooperation between governments and international agencies, and representing the interests of forum members. Decisions agreed on by forum leaders are coordinated by the Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (PIFS), which sits in Suva, and implemented through the Council of Regional Organisations of the Pacific (CROP). Fiji is a member of all CROP organizations, including PIFS, Pacific Community (SPC), University of the South Pacific, Forum Fisheries Agency, Pacific Aviation Safety Office, Pacific Power Association, Pacific Islands Development Program, Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme (SPREP) and South Pacific Tourism Organisation.

The forum's work is guided by the Framework for Pacific Regionalism, endorsed in July 2014. The framework defines Pacific regionalism as: "The expression of a common sense of identity and purpose, leading progressively to the sharing of institutions, resources, and markets, with the purpose of complementing national efforts, overcoming common constraints, and enhancing sustainable and inclusive development within Pacific countries and territories and for the Pacific region as a whole."⁹⁷

⁹⁶ Fiji's membership was suspended between May 2009 and October 2014.

⁹⁷ www.forumsec.org/pacific-regionalism/.

Pacific Islands Development Forum

The Pacific Islands Development Forum (PIDF) was founded in 2013 and launched in 2015, with the mission of “Enabling Green–Blue Pacific Economies through Inclusive Strategies, Multi-stakeholder Governance, and Genuine Partnerships.” The PIDF draws together civil society, the private sector and governments to be action-oriented to promote sustainable development and poverty reduction. PIDF is the regional counterpoint to Pacific small island developing States UN Missions, and is the Pacific’s link to the High-Level Political Forum platform for follow-ups on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. It is also a platform for South–South and triangular cooperation in the Pacific. The Secretariat of the PIDF is based in Suva.

Pacific Immigration Development Community (PIDC)

This forum enables the heads of participating States’ immigration agencies to discuss issues of mutual interest and foster multilateral cooperation. The ultimate goal is to build and enhance quality immigration and border management practices across the Pacific region. Membership is governed by an MOU and has been signed by 17 PICs, Australia and New Zealand. The forum was chaired by Fiji through its DoI for the year prior to June 2019, when the rotating chair was handed over to the Cook Islands.

C.6.3 International and regional dialogues and processes

Fiji is active in international forums in pursuit of global and regional aims. It has taken particular global leadership on the cause of climate change, which it recognizes as the single greatest threat to its national security. It is part of several initiatives to strengthen cooperation on climate change, including through its participation in the PIDF, PIF and SPREP. Fiji is a signatory to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), and served as the President of Conference of the Parties (COP) 23 to the UNFCCC in 2017. Also in 2017, Fiji co-chaired with Sweden the first United Nations Ocean Conference. Mobility dimensions remain a concern in these processes.

Fiji is a member of the Human Rights Council for 2019–2021, and is active in international platforms against trafficking in persons, migrant smuggling, slavery and child labour, including the Bali Process on People Smuggling, Trafficking in Persons and Related Transnational Crime. Fiji is a Pathfinder Country for Alliance 8.7, a global partnership for eradicating forced labour, modern slavery, trafficking in persons and child labour around the world, in line with SDG Target 8.7.

In 2018, Fiji adopted the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Approved by the majority of UN member States, the Global Compact for Migration reflects an unprecedented global will and recognition of the importance of achieving well-managed, safe migration for the benefit of societies. The Global Compact for Migration aims to support international cooperation on the governance of international migration, provide proactive policy options to address pressing issues around migration, while giving space for States to pursue implementation of the agenda within their own migration realities.

Fiji is part of the small island developing States Accelerated Modalities of Action (SAMOA Pathway), which sets out sustainable development priorities of small island developing States. It builds on several other programmes of action and is consistent with international commitments to development, climate change action and urban resilience. In September 2019, the UN General Assembly held a high-level review of progress under the SAMOA Pathway, and adopted a political declaration reaffirming the international community's commitment to supporting the priorities of the SAMOA Pathway and outlining a call for action.⁹⁸

Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement

Although Fiji is a party to the Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement (PICTA), it has not signed on to its Trade in Services Protocol opened for signature in 2012. Other parties to the PICTA are the Cook Islands, Federated States of Micronesia, Kiribati, Nauru, Niue, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu.

⁹⁸ Seventy-fourth session of the United Nations General Assembly. "Political declaration of the high-level meeting to review progress made in addressing the priorities of small island developing States through the implementation of the SIDS Accelerated Modalities of Action (SAMOA) Pathway". A/74/L.3, 2 October 2019. Available at www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/74/L.3&Lang=E.

PART D. RECOMMENDATIONS

The preceding sections of the Migration Profile deliver a strategic overview of migration into, out of and within Fiji and its positive and negative impacts on the economy and society, as well as the situation relating to migration data collection, sharing and analysis. Members of the Technical Working Group and IOM have developed the following recommendations for future actions by the government and other stakeholders based on the Migration Profile's findings to guide improvements to Fiji's approach to managing aspects migration, migration data and migration-related policy. An overarching theme of these recommendations is the need to improve collaboration and data sharing between various ministries, as well as to continue policy-related discussions on migration beyond the scope of this Migration Profile.

1. Enhance collection and analysis of data on migration to and from Fiji, with a particular focus on return migration

Data capacity – including through IT and technical solutions – must be enhanced to allow for regular collection, monitoring and analysis of important migration indicators across all government ministries and institutions. To better understand migration in Fiji, migration modules or individual questions could be incorporated in surveys currently conducted or planned in Fiji (such as the census, household and labour force surveys). It would be particularly meaningful to enhance monitoring of returning Fijian migrants and their outcomes in the domestic labour market, and better understand the skills gaps in the domestic labour market which could be filled by foreign migration or returning Fijian migrants.

2. Improve collaboration on the collection and use of migration information and data across government ministries and institutions in Fiji

Fiji would benefit from minimizing or eliminating the duplication of data collection and reducing inconsistencies in data categorization across government ministries and institutions, as well as increasing access to currently available data. This should also involve closer collaboration between the Fiji Bureau of Statistics and relevant ministries in Fiji, as well as with government agencies, public sector organizations and State institutions that collect and maintain records

needed for compilation of official statistics, negotiated access and development of processes for collection of information. Data collected by the Department of Immigration and Fiji Revenue and Customs Service through the Integrated Border Management System and shared with the Fiji Bureau of Statistics for analysis should be reviewed and improved to ensure data is purpose to fit and relevant to Fiji's statistical needs into the future.

The Technical Working Group, formed to guide this Migration Profile, should commit to developing a data sharing and dissemination protocol with technical advice from the Fiji Bureau of Statistics. MOUs between ministries, departments and agencies should be reviewed or developed to facilitate regular data and information sharing.

3. Take a strategic approach to labour migration as a tool for development

Fiji should consider creating a short- and long-term labour mobility strategy that is coherent with the country's 20-year National Development Plan. This would allow for a more strategic approach to harness the development benefits of labour migration, while mitigating negative outcomes, with consideration to utilizing migration to benefit the domestic labour market, economy and community in step with meeting obligations of relevant international conventions.

4. Encourage skills development that benefits the domestic labour market while meeting overseas qualification standards and sectors of labour demand

Continue working with the Fiji Higher Education Commission and other relevant stakeholders in Fiji to refine methods or mechanisms to identify current and future demand areas in the domestic labour market and abroad as well as promote quality and accredited training in these areas. Efforts should be made to ensure Fiji experiences a net skills increase in its domestic labour market.

5. Explore initiatives to support and incentivize productive reintegration of returning Fijian migrants into the domestic labour market

Fijians returning from employment or study abroad may need assistance reintegrating into local labour markets, including through self-employment or investment. Greater information on reintegration and employment outcomes for returning migrants is needed to inform initiatives in this area. This would include involvement of government, communities and private sector.

6. Promote circular labour mobility as a means to reduce dependence on social protection programmes in Fiji while ensuring protections for families staying behind

Circular labour mobility could be used as a means to reduce poverty and encourage independence from social protection programmes. However, policy development and legislation reviews must consider the different impacts of labour migration on women, children and men as well as families remaining in Fiji and those living with a disability. This would require enhanced collaboration between key stakeholders as well as government ministries and further research to ensure the protection of families that remain in Fiji.

7. Address irregular migration in Fiji

Identify and address the causes of irregular migration in Fiji. Initial information presented in this Migration Profile suggests most irregular migrants are visa overstayers or people violating visa terms. However, others are awaiting decisions on visa applications or work permit renewals. Remedies could include working more closely with relevant stakeholders to promote visa compliance and clarify immigration pathways.

8. Harness the benefits of immigration for Fiji's sustainable development and ensure protection of migrants' rights

Extend social protections to migrants, asylum seekers and refugees in Fiji to the extent they can maintain a good standard of living and more effectively contribute to the development of Fiji. This could involve international partners and relevant stakeholders in the provision of services for vulnerable migrant communities.

9. Increase services and protections for victims of trafficking in persons

Attention should be focused on labour migrants who have been exploited and/or trafficked and victims of other forms of trafficking in persons to ensure they receive appropriate legal, immigration and financial protections, including the right to extend their stay if appropriate to enable prosecution of perpetrators.

10. Align national legislation on counter-trafficking in persons

Ensure coherence between trafficking provisions in the *Immigration Act 2003* and *Crimes Act 2009*. Amendments should adhere to international conventions on migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons to which Fiji is a signatory, such that all forms of trafficking are criminalized in Fiji's domestic legislation.

11. Enhance implementation of policy, legal and institutional frameworks addressing climate change and disaster-related migration, displacement and planned relocation

Policy, legal and institutional frameworks that address climate change and disaster-related migration, displacement and planned relocation should be implemented fully. This includes expediting the implementation of key actions and priorities related to addressing drivers of human mobility issues and creating equitable solutions included under the National Climate Change Policy 2018-2030, the National Disaster Risk Reduction Policy 2018-2030 and the National Adaptation Plan. Ministries working on climate change, disaster

preparedness and management, environmental degradation, rural development and migration issues should coordinate more effectively and recognize mobility as an effective adaptation strategy.

In addition, Fiji should:

- develop relevant legal frameworks, divisional or subnational level strategies and programmes, and standard operating procedures to support vulnerable communities that are impacted by climate change and disaster events;
- establish mechanisms to improve coordination of services and protection for displaced people living in communal settings (e.g. evacuation centres);
- strengthen community resilience to help prevent risks of climate change and disaster-induced migration by building on the Integrated Rural Development Framework, including market-oriented skills development and livelihood support for communities that are vulnerable and exposed to the impacts of climate change and disaster events and at risk of being displaced; and
- develop a monitoring, evaluation and learning framework which applies a Pacific approach to ensure that lessons learned from implementing these activities are captured, and innovative ways forward for future programmes are identified that could be shared across all sectors.

In recognition of the Fijian Government's ongoing commitment to climate change leadership and track-record supporting international climate ambition, Fiji should seek to support and facilitate the regional cooperation required to address climate-induced and disaster-driven human mobility issues in the Pacific region.

12. Continue forward-looking, and cross-sectional approaches to migration

Transform the Technical Working Group, created as part of this Migration Profile, into a standing working group, going forward. The Fiji Bureau of Statistics is in the process of amending the Statistical Act (Cap. 71) to establish the bureau's role as the national statistical clearinghouse, and its mandate to facilitate statistics coordination and collaboration, including inter-agency data sharing across Fiji's national statistics system. This role makes the bureau the obvious convenor of this group, in partnership with the Fiji Department of Immigration and Ministry of Employment, Productivity and Industrial Relations. Membership

of the group and tasks could evolve in line with the migration needs of Fiji. Tasks could include coordinating statistics-focused activities across government, with representation from the public, private and NGO sectors. The group could be tasked with meeting on a regular basis to:

- encourage ongoing coordination between stakeholders engaged in national migration-related matters;
- review and update this Migration Profile report at least every five years;
- contribute to better statistical governance as reflected in increased data sharing between agencies and data users;
- avoid duplication in data collection;
- encourage the use of common statistical standards, classifications and definitions in statistical compilation; and
- ensure maximum use of statistical data and information to support evidence-based migration policies and programmes.

ANNEXES

Annex I: International glossary

Term	Definition	Source
Asylum seekers	Persons who have applied for asylum or refugee status, but who have not yet received a final decision on their application.	UNHCR, see www.unhcr.org/45c06c662.html#asylum-seekers
Availability of data	Data that have been collected, filed, processed and stored in each system, thus civil registration and vital statistics are accessible in a user friendly format to users upon request.	UN DESA, 2001
Circular migration	A form of migration in which people repeatedly move back and forth between two or more countries.	IOM, 2019
Citizenship	Legal nationality of a person.	UN DESA, 2001
Development	A process of improving the overall quality of life of a group of people, and in particular expanding the range of opportunities open to them.	IOM, 2010
Environmental migrant	A person or group(s) of persons who, predominantly for reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are forced to leave their places of habitual residence, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move within or outside their country of origin or habitual residence.	IOM, 2019
Foreign students	Persons admitted by a country other than their own for the specific purpose of following a particular programme of study in an accredited institution of the receiving country.	UN DESA, 1998
Foreign-born population of a country	All persons who have that country as a the country of usual residence and whose place of birth is located in another country.	UN DESA, 1998
Foreigners in transit	Persons who arrive in the receiving country but do not enter it formally because they are on their way to another destination.	UN DESA, 1998
Human Development Index	The Human Development Index (HDI) is a summary composite index that measures a country's average achievements in three basic aspects of human development: health, knowledge and income. It was first developed by the late Pakistani economist Mahbub ul Haq with the collaboration of the Nobel laureate Amartya Sen and other leading development thinkers for the first Human Development Report in 1990. It was introduced as an alternative to conventional measures of national development, such as level of income and the rate of economic growth.	UNDP, see http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-index-hdi

Internal migration	The movement of people within a State involving the establishment of a new temporary or permanent residence (e.g. rural to urban migration).	IOM, 2019
Internally displaced persons	Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or man-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.	UN, 1998
Irregular migrants	Non-citizens, excluding refugees or asylum seekers, who have no valid leave to enter and/or remain within a State.	The Human Rights of Irregular Migrants in Europe. Commissioner for Human Rights, Council of Europe, CommDH/IssuePaper(2007)1 ⁹⁹
Irregular migration	Movement of persons that takes place outside the laws, regulations, or international agreements governing the entry into or exit from the State of origin, transit or destination. There is no clear or universally accepted definition of irregular migration. There is, however, a tendency to restrict the use of the term “illegal migration” to cases of smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons.	IOM, 2019
Long-term migrant	A person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months), so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence. From the perspective of the country of departure, the person will be a long-term emigrant and from that of a country of arrival, the person will be a long-term immigrant.	UN DESA, 1998
Migrant workers	Persons admitted by a country other than their own for the explicit purpose of exercising an economic activity remunerated from within the receiving country. Some countries distinguish several categories of migrant workers, including: (i) seasonal migrant workers; (ii) contract workers; (iii) project-tied workers; and (iv) temporary migrant workers. All these subcategories or any others that may exist should be added up and reported under “migrant workers”, making the appropriate distinctions with regard to duration of stay.	UN DESA, 1998
Migrants for family reunification or family formation	Foreigners admitted because they are immediate relatives of the fiancé(e)s of citizens or other foreigners already residing in the receiving country. Foreign children adopted by citizens or foreign residents and allowed to enter the country are also included in this category. The definition of immediate relatives varies from one case to another, but it usually includes the spouse and minor children of a person.	UN DESA, 1998

⁹⁹ Council of Europe: Commissioner for Human Rights, The Human Rights of Irregular Migrants in Europe, 17 December 2007, CommDH/IssuePaper(2007)1. Available at www.refworld.org/docid/479849842.html (accessed 14 December 2020).

Migrants for settlement (“permanent migrants”)	Foreigners granted the permission to stay for a lengthy or unlimited period, who are subject to virtually no limitations regarding the exercise of an economic activity. Some countries grant settlement rights to foreigners on the basis of certain criteria.	UN DESA, 1998
Net migration	Net number of migrants, that is, the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants. It is expressed as thousands.	UN DESA glossary, see https://population.un.org/wpp/GlossaryOfDemographicTerms/
Net migration rate	The number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants over a period, divided by the person-years lived by the population of the receiving country of that period. It is expressed as net number of migrants per 1,000 population.	UN DESA glossary, see https://population.un.org/wpp/GlossaryOfDemographicTerms/
Persons admitted for other humanitarian reasons	Foreigners who are not granted full refugee status but are nevertheless admitted for humanitarian reasons because they find themselves in refugee-like situations.	UN DESA, 1998
Population	(1) All the inhabitants of a given country or area (province, city, metropolitan area, etc.) considered together; the number of inhabitants of a country or area. (2) In sampling, the whole collection of units (persons, households, institutions, events, etc.) from which a sample may be drawn.	UN DESA, 2001
Quality of data	In the civil registration system or in the vital statistics system, quality of data is measured according to their degree of completeness, correctness (accuracy), timeliness and availability.	UN DESA, 2001
Refugee	A person who owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable, or owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.	Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, Art. 1A(2), 1951 as modified by the 1967 Protocol.
Remittances	Defined as the sum of workers’ remittances (i.e. current private transfers from migrants staying in a country for a year or longer to households in another country), compensation of employees (i.e. the entire income of a migrant staying in the host country for less than a year) and migrants’ transfers (i.e. the transfer of household effects and financial assets that arise at the time when a migrant changes her of his country of residence).	Ratha, 2003
Returning migrants (or citizens)	Persons returning to their country of citizenship after having been international migrants (whether short-term or long-term) in another country and who are intending to stay in their own country for at least a year.	UN DESA, 1998
Seasonal migrant workers	Persons employed by a country other than their own for only part of a year because the work they perform depends on seasonal conditions. They are a subcategory of “foreign migrant workers”.	UN DESA, 1998

Short-term migrant	A person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least three months but less than a year (12 months) except in cases where the movement to that country is for the purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends or relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage. For purposes of international migration statistics, the country of usual residence of short-term migrants is considered to be the country of destination during the period they spend in it.	UN DESA, 1998
Smuggling of migrants	The procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other materials benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident.	Art. 3(a), United Nations Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, Supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000
Trafficking in persons	The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.	Art. 3(a), United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000
Tourists	Persons who do not reside in the country of arrival and are admitted to that country under tourist visas (if required) for purposes of leisure, recreation, holiday, visits to friends or relatives, health or medical treatment, or religious pilgrimage. They must spend at least a night in a collective or private accommodation in the receiving country and their duration of stay must not surpass 12 months.	UN DESA, 1998
Visitors	Persons who do not reside in the country of arrival and who are admitted for short stays for the purposes of leisure, recreation, holidays; visits to friends or relatives; business or professional activities not remunerated from within the receiving country; health treatment; or religious pilgrimages. Visitors include excursionists, tourists and business travellers.	UN DESA, 1998

Annex 2: National data sources

The following lists the major national data sources used to generate the statistics reported on in this Migration Profile. Information in this table is extracted from the Fiji Migration Data Collection Toolkit, published separately, which was developed to support future reviews and updates of Fiji’s Migration Profile.

Source	Collecting agency	Types of data captured	Publicly accessible?	Disaggregated by
Population and Housing Census	Fiji Bureau of Statistics (FBoS)	Immigrant stocks (by country of birth and citizenship); remittances; persons who changed their residence within the country	Partially	Country of birth, province of residence in Fiji. Internal migration data differentiates between past, recent, one-time, multiple, return and other multiple migrants. ¹⁰⁰
Integrated Border Management System (IBMS)	Department of Immigration (DoI)	Immigrant stocks (by country of birth and citizenship); immigration flows (labour, education, health care, etc.); stock of return migrants; flow of foreign students (tertiary/non-dependents); stock of irregular immigrants in Fiji	No	Citizenship, age, sex, permit type and validity, sector
Arrival and departure cards	DoI/FBoS	Immigration flows; flows of return migrants; flows of emigrants; visitor arrivals (flows)	No	Citizenship, country of residence, sex, broad sector of employment, destination, skill level (FBoS determines based on data collected), purpose of absence or visit
DoI manual registers	DoI	Citizenship acquisitions; stocks/flows of refugees and asylum seekers; flows of irregular migrants to Fiji (denials at the border, removals and voluntary departures from Fiji)	No	Type of application, other citizenship

¹⁰⁰ These categories are defined as follows: “Past” migrants moved between birth and five years before the census; “recent” migrants moved during the five years before the census; “one-time” migrants moved only once during the five years before the census; “multiple” migrants moved more than once, during the five years before the census and earlier; “return” migrants returned to their place of birth during the five years before the census; and “other multiple” migrants moved to a place other than their birthplace during the five years before the census.

Source	Collecting agency	Types of data captured	Publicly accessible?	Disaggregated by
Enrolment data	Individual education or tertiary institutions	Stock of foreign tertiary students	No	Nationality. Some institutions capture sex, college of enrolment and programme level.
Fiji Education Management Information System (FEMIS)	Ministry of Education, Heritage and Arts	Stock of foreign students (primary/ secondary)	No	Unique identifiers for individual students, citizenship, sex, age, school, region. Available in FEMIS, but not published
Balance of payments. Overseas Exchange Transactions Report	Reserve Bank of Fiji	Personal remittances sent to Fiji	Yes	Category of personal remittances
Household and Income Expenditure Survey	FBoS	Personal remittances sent to Fiji	Yes	
Formal indictments for trafficking in persons filed in Fiji High Courts	Office of the Director of Public Prosecutions	Number and characteristics of trafficking victims in Fiji; persons convicted of trafficking in persons in Fiji; persons convicted of migrant smuggling in Fiji	Yes	Data (on crime in Fiji, not specific to migrants) disaggregated by crime type, number of accused persons, number of victims, incidents involving family members
Records from government-supported community relocation	National Disaster Management Office	Environmental migrants ((internal) government planned relocations)	Partially	Villages involved, numbers of individuals, numbers of households, sex of community members, children (in age groups)
International Visitor Survey	Ministry of Commerce, Trade, Tourism and Transport	Visitor flows	Yes	Country of residence, age, party size, purpose of visit, length of stay

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