

Migration in Jamaica

A COUNTRY PROFILE 2018



International Organization for Migration (IOM)
The UN Migration Agency



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A COUNTRY PROFILE 2018

by
Elizabeth Thomas-Hope
with the assistance of
Suzette Martin-Johnson and Zelris Lawrence



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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BOJ	Bank of Jamaica
CaPRI	Caribbean Policy Research Institute
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CASS	CARICOM Agreement on Social Security
CDA	Child Development Agency
CENUK	Caribbean Enterprise Network
CSME	CARICOM Single Market and Economy
EGC	Economic Growth Council
ESDEDC	Effective and Suitable Diaspora Engagement for Development in the Caribbean
ESSJ	Economic Social Survey of Jamaica
FDI	Foreign direct investment
FRS	Facilitated Reintegration Services
GMG	Global Migration Group
HDI	Human Development Index
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IADB	Inter-American Development Bank
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMD	International Migration and Development
IMDP	International Migration and Development Policy
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
JAMPRO	Trade and Investment Jamaica
JCF	Jamaica Constabulary Force
JCLO	Jamaica Central Labour Organisation
JMD	Jamaican dollar
JNB	Jamaica National Bank
JNBS	Jamaica National Building Society
JRRAP	Jamaica Reducing Re-Offending Action Plan
JSLC	Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions
KMA	Kingston Metropolitan Area
KNOMAD	Global Knowledge Partnership in Migration and Development
LGU	Local government unit
MDAs	Ministries, departments and agencies
MDP	Meylersfield Development Programme
MFAFT	Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade

MLSS	Ministry of Labour and Social Security
MNS	Ministry of National Security
MOH	Ministry of Health
MOJ	Ministry of Justice
MOU	Memorandum of understanding
NATFATIP	National Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons
NCU	Northern Caribbean University
NELM	New Economics of Labour Migration
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NIB	National Intelligence Bureau
NIS	National Insurance Scheme
NLA	National Land Agency
NODM	National Organization of Deported Migrants
NWGIMD	National Working Group on International Migration and Development
OCR	Office of the Children's Registry
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ONS	Office for National Statistics
OWP	Overseas Work Programme
PATH	Programme of Advancement Through Health and Education
PICA	Passport Immigration and Citizenship Agency
PIOJ	Planning Institute of Jamaica
RRP	Reintegration and Rehabilitation Programme
SAWP	Seasonal Agricultural Workers' Programme
SME	Small and medium enterprise
SPS	Social Protection Strategy
STATCAN	Statistics Canada
STATIN	Statistical Institute of Jamaica
TFWP	Temporary Foreign Workers' Programme
TIP	Trafficking in persons
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USD	United States dollar
UTECH	University of Technology, Jamaica
UWI	University of the West Indies
VMBS	Victoria Mutual Building Society

JAMAICA: MAP

Map of Jamaica highlighting parish boundaries



Source: OpenStreetMap (and) contributor CC-BY-SA.

Jamaica: Basic facts	
Surface area (sq. km, 2016) ⁱ	10,945
Population (millions, 2016) ⁱⁱ	2.73
Population density ⁱⁱⁱ (people per sq. km, 2016)	249.5
High Human Development (HDI 2015)	0.73
Stock of emigrants (in millions, 2016)	1.23
Stock of emigrants as percentage of population (2016)	45
Stock of immigrants as percentage of population (2013)	1.3

ⁱ Forestry Department, 2016.

ⁱⁱ Statistical Institute of Jamaica (2016) Demographic Statistics – End of Year Population Estimates.

ⁱⁱⁱ Ibid.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Context of migration

Background

Migration has become increasingly recognized to be closely connected to development, and features prominently in global development discourse. In Jamaica, the National Policy on International Migration and Development, 2017 establishes the framework for migration and development management. Supported by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the Swiss Development Cooperation and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), this country report will update the previous Extended Migration Profile (EMP) conducted five years previously, and will highlight the continuing, or new trends in migration over the five-year period of 2011–2015. This is Jamaica’s second publication of a Migration Profile, which is essentially a pertinent body of research that will allow for the monitoring and evaluation of migration and development policy and programme-related socioeconomic impact on Jamaica.

First, the historic trends in migration are outlined to provide background and a framework to the recent migrations, which are the focus of this country report. In order to evaluate the development issues facing Jamaica, and which are impacting and being impacted by migration, the demographic and socioeconomic contexts within which recent migration has occurred are examined. This is followed by the identification and analysis of the migration pattern of the past decade, with particular attention paid to comparing these with those of the previous decade and paying special attention to 2011–2015.

The overall objective of the Extended Migration Profile is to provide a descriptive analysis of the main migration characteristics and trends for Jamaica. Therefore, it gives an evidence-based foundation to the following: (a) enhance the knowledge base relating to migration and its interconnectedness with socioeconomic development; (b) identify the data gaps; and (c) provide the basis for coherence in the development of policies to effectively manage migration in the interest of national development. This descriptive analysis of recent and changing migration trends is intended to be a tool that can be used to update the Government of Jamaica, private sector, civil society and international partners, to better understand, measure and to be aware of the connections between the current migration trends and socioeconomic indicators of development. The

Migration Profile also recommends strategic ways to promote policy coherence with enhanced migration governance with the view to increasing the human welfare outcomes and protection against risk for migrants, their families and communities at origin and destination. The overall intention of the Extended Migration Profile is, therefore, to provide support to the Government of Jamaica in promoting the integration of migration into policymaking. This involves policies for specific sectors and industries as they relate to particular aspects of migration, as well as for the overall process of mainstreaming migration into development strategies at the national and local levels.

Methodology

The work commenced with a mapping of the overall situation and recent progress as currently understood by the migration stakeholders. This was facilitated by a series of consultative exercises with the members of the National Working Group on International Migration and Development (NWGIMD), who brought their perspectives from their different roles and portfolios. Discussions were guided by the thematic areas of special concern communicated by the NWGIMD, namely: (a) Data, Research and Information Systems; (b) Public Order, Safety and Security; (c) Return, Integration and Reintegration; (d) Labour Mobility and Development, Human Rights; (e) Social Protection and Family, Migration and Development; (f) Diaspora and Development; (g) Remittance and Development. Gender, Governance and Policy Coherence were integrated across the other priority areas. The consultative cluster meetings facilitated the sharing of insights and information on migration data sets, analysis of gaps, as well as on the ways in which various aspects of migration impacted each of the thematic areas of concern, the existing strengths and weaknesses, as well as the challenges faced in achieving the desired objectives for the forthcoming medium term.

Information sources

Supporting information was obtained from reviewing the existing literature, including the 2012 Migration Profile. Data were sourced from government ministries, departments and agencies, as well as civil society partners, within the private sector and in non-governmental organizations. Where data were not available through national agencies, external sources, such as the main destination countries of Jamaican migrants, the World Bank and other sources of global data sets were consulted by electronic communication and via the World Wide Web. Data sources are elaborated in Annex II. Gaps were encountered in the data relating to the core and non-core indicators included in the template

for the Migration Profile. These were filled, as far as possible, by accessing external data sets. Critical remaining gaps that should be addressed are outlined in the recommendations with which this report concludes. The relevant data were collated to present a concise representation of the main characteristics and trends in migration and development variables and indicators, as well as the policy and legislative framework of migration and the social protection of migrants and their families.

Scope of the Extended Migration Profile

The scope of the EMP was guided by the core and non-core indicators of migration provided by the “Template for the Migration Profile for Jamaica” in the IOM’s Terms of Reference (TOR) for this study. These determined the table of contents for this report. Likewise, the definitions used for different types of migrants were based on those provided in the TOR.

The different types of migration included are as follows: (a) immigration of foreign-born nationals and return of Jamaican nationals; (b) permanent or long-term emigration of persons in various categories; and (c) international outward and inward movement of students, refugees and asylum seekers, and irregular migrants. The 10-year period under review is 2007–2016, with special emphasis on the latter part of the decade, 2012–2016. A 10-year span is provided in examining each of the indicators so that any trend can be discerned, but the actual years selected vary, as this was determined by the availability of data up to 2015, 2016 or even 2017.

Migration trends

Immigration

Immigrants refer to returning Jamaican nationals or residents and to foreign-born nationals – Commonwealth citizens and “aliens” or non-Commonwealth citizens. There was an overall increase of approximately 11,700 in the recent five years (2012–2016) than in the previous five-year period.

The largest numbers of immigrants were foreign-born, with “aliens” (non-Commonwealth citizens) accounting for 41 per cent of the total, and Commonwealth citizens accounting for 31 per cent. This was in contrast with the pattern in the previous decade (2000–2010), when Commonwealth citizens were in the larger numbers. The foreign-born immigrants enter on the basis of work permits or work permit exemptions (in the case of citizens of the Caribbean

Community Single Market and Economy Member States and naturalized Jamaicans). They are selected on the basis that they have required skills not available in the domestic labour market. The countries of origin of foreign-born immigrants has changed greatly in recent decades, though the trend of the main country of origin being China and in second place, India, has continued since 2011 to 2017.

The returning Jamaican nationals included two groups: (a) voluntary returnees; and (b) forced returnees deported by the authorities in the destination countries, principally the United States, the United Kingdom and Canada and in small but increasing numbers from Caribbean destinations. The forced returnees accounted for 20 per cent of the total immigrants in 2007–2016, exceeding the voluntary returnees that amounted to a mere 8 per cent of the total number of immigrants to the country over the past 10 years. Besides, the deported migrants require considerable assistance in their rehabilitation in Jamaican society. Voluntary return migrants contribute in many ways to the labour force and/or investment, including housing, and many engage in voluntary activities in local communities, assisting both materially and socially.

Emigration

Emigration continues to be greatly in excess of immigration. Nevertheless, in the decade 2006–2015, there was an overall trend of decreasing numbers of permanent emigrants from Jamaica. The United States continued to be the destination of the largest number by far. Among the permanent emigrants is a continuing trend of large numbers from the young and working age population cohorts. Students at different levels of secondary and tertiary education and tertiary-educated professionals are important components of this movement. There is also high female labour migration linked to this – the high incidence of absentee mothers from households. This is generally economically positive for the household, but of mixed impact in terms of the care of children and the elderly who are left behind. This presents as a significant resource demand for the protection of the rights of migrants and of their families.

Temporary Workers Programmes negotiated by the Government of Jamaica with the United States and Canada have expanded from farm and hospitality work to include factory and low-skilled employment in Canada since 2014. The overall numbers of persons on these programmes has increased over the past decade: the farm programmes take the largest numbers of workers and especially the programme in Canada, which with 8,565 employed in 2016, was twice that of the United States' farm programme in that year. The obligation to

provide social protection of migrants and families is especially high with regard to the government-managed temporary contracts abroad.

Trafficking in persons

Jamaica is a country of origin, transit and destination of trafficked persons. Most persons trafficked into the country are documented migrants, but the activities associated with commercial sex and forced labour of various kinds are in most cases either illegal or exploitative, contravene the human rights of the trafficked workers or are linked to international criminal networks.

Jamaica was downgraded from a Tier 2 to Tier 2 Watchlist by the United States' Department of State in 2014 on the evaluation that the Government of Jamaica had not taken adequate measures to counter the movement. Thereafter, the Government demonstrated increasing efforts, and in 2016, Jamaica's status was restored to Tier 2. Despite recent efforts to identify and restrict trafficking in persons, the perpetrators and demand side have continued, and the ongoing economic, social and educational deficiencies among some sectors of the population is associated with their vulnerability to exploitation by traffickers.

Diaspora

The Jamaican diaspora is heavily concentrated in the three main destination countries of Jamaican permanent emigration: (a) the United States; (b) Canada; and (c) the United Kingdom, with much smaller numbers in other parts of the Caribbean and other countries. An estimated number of some 1.3 million Jamaican-born persons reside abroad, and to these are added the foreign-born second and third generations who associate their identity with Jamaica, bringing the total number that comprise the diaspora to a size equivalent to that of the population of 2.8 million in Jamaica itself.

The Jamaican diaspora is highly educated overall, with an estimated 85,100 tertiary-educated recorded in the Population Censuses of OECD1 countries in the year 2000.

¹ OECD refers to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, an organization that acts as a meeting ground for 35 countries that believe strongly in the free market system. It includes most West European countries, Canada and the United States.

Remittances

Remittance receipts have trended upwards over the years 2011–2016. According to the Bank of Jamaica, estimates for 2016 amounted to USD 2,291 million, representing an increase of USD 327.2 million over the USD 19.64 million remitted 10 years previously, in 2007. Remittances contributed some 14 per cent to the national GDP each year over the 10 years 2006–2015, and was 16.1 and 16.3 per cent in 2015 and 2016, respectively.

Remittances are mostly used for household and living expenses, while the amounts directed into saving and investment are generally low. The poorest population quintile receives the least remittances, but the situation improved since 2011 and in 2015, almost 40 per cent of households in the poorest quintile were in receipt of some remittances.

Possible future trends in migration

The need for replacement labour – therefore, immigrants to fill gaps in certain fields due to insufficient local human capacity for a variety of reasons, chiefly the emigration of nationals – will continue in the short and medium term. The high immigration from Asia can be expected to continue in the short term, and is likely to increase as the first arrivals become settled, apply for extended stay or naturalization and are joined by family members and others.

With regard to emigration, the evidence would suggest that in the short-to medium-term: (a) permanent emigration of Jamaicans to the United States will continue to decrease overall; (b) that the emigration to Canada, though relatively small, will increase with disproportionate numbers in the tertiary-educated and professional/highly skilled groups; and (c) the United Kingdom will remain negligible as a destination for Jamaicans. With an overall lessening of emigration to the traditional destinations, the movement to new destinations, for example, in the Middle East, will increase and become more diversified in the migrant profile.

Temporary overseas migration will continue at its present rate and characteristics in the short term, but given the dynamics of labour supply and demand between Jamaica and North America, it is unlikely to be maintained at present levels in the medium term.

Data gaps and limitations

Data gaps relating to migration is partly due to the inherent difficulty of capturing information on migrant flows because of the fluidity and circularity of many movements. But there is also information that could be improvements in coverage and level of detail. Data are not, in all cases, accessible in disaggregated form to provide the level of detail that is required. A collective national migration database has been established that is hosted by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica;² however, there is no consistent process of populating it.

Policy framework governing migration

Policy framework

The most significant policy initiative in relation to international migration that occurred as one of the outputs of the Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Project – which was launched on 5 May 2011 – is the formulation of a White Paper: National Policy on International Migration and Development Policy (IMDP) (Government of Jamaica, 2017). The National Policy establishes the framework for migration and development management and is set within the context of the development road map of Vision 2030 Jamaica– National Development Plan in making “Jamaica, the place of choice, to live, work, raise families and do business”. Further, a diaspora policy was formulated to complement the IMDP and facilitate the development of a coordinated strategy for engagement with the diaspora (Ying, 2014).

Legislative framework and governance

The legislative framework underpinning Jamaica’s policies relating to migration includes 11 statutes currently in force, which were enacted specifically to deal with migration. There are now three inter-agency coordinating committees, two of which are convened and chaired by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security: (a) Work Permit Committee; (b) Free Movement of Persons Committee; and the other convened and chaired by the Ministry of Justice: (c) National Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons.

² See http://statinja.gov.jm/Demo_SocialStats/Newpopulation.aspx

A NWGIMD was established to coordinate inter-agency and non-governmental actions in relation to migration and development. This committee is co-chaired by the Planning Institute of Jamaica and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade.

Recommendations on data production and migration management in Jamaica

Data production

The collection and management of accurate and comprehensive data relating to the core and non-core indicators of migration and development would be ideal. Therefore, regularity and reliability in collecting data in aggregate and disaggregated forms and populating the national database according an agreed format, should be required from all contributing agencies and organizations. Where data cannot be reliably collected in Jamaica, such as for permanent/long-stay emigrants leaving, this information should be consistently obtained from the destination countries or systematically through their population censuses, and entered into the national migration database.

Recommendations

In addition to the essential role of reliable data in successful migration management, other recommendations relate to the need for enhanced human resource capacity management – both relating to emigration and immigration. The adequate protection of migrants and migrant households and return migrant reintegration programmes place major demands on financial and human resources, for which the current capacity needs to be increased.

As a general recommendation, the Government needs to take cognizance of the highly dynamic nature of international migration. Historically, it has been observed to change significantly over time, conditioned by the complex mix of social, economic and political priorities that influence the policies of both destination and source countries of the migrants themselves. Therefore, it is recommended that national migration policies and management objectives be based not solely on the current trends, but also guided by future projections for the medium term, in order that the mainstreaming of migration for development can be sustained.

PART A: BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION TRENDS FOR JAMAICA

A.1. Historical overview

A.1.1. Population, labour force and migration

Jamaican society, like that of other Caribbean countries, was shaped by migration. From the sixteenth until the twentieth century, a series of immigrations from Europe replaced the indigenous populations of Amerindians, followed by arrivals from Africa, Asia and the Middle East.

Immigration

The earliest immigrants to Jamaica were the Spaniards who colonized the Greater Antilles of the Caribbean, where the motivating factor was the search for gold. There being no gold found, small-scale farming was developed and the population remained sparsely settled by people from Spain, together with gradually diminishing numbers of Amerindians. Once the British had overcome the Spanish in a final battle of 1655, Jamaica became a colony of England. The economy soon after became based on sugar production within a plantation system, established by England's mercantile interests that provided the organizational framework for the entire social order. Workers were imported in huge numbers as slaves from West Africa. By 1703, there were 3,500 British to 45,000 Africans, a ratio of 1 to 12.9; by 1778, there were 18,420 British to 2015,261 Africans, a slightly reduced ratio of 1 to more than 11 (Williams, 1970:104). Following the end of the slave trade in the British colonies (1833), the emancipation of slaves (1834) and a period of Apprenticeship when slaves had to continue working on the plantations (1838), a replacement workforce was sought in Asia and brought to Jamaica under a system of indenture. Between 1838 and 1917 (when indenture was legally terminated), 36,412 Indians were landed in Jamaica (Lawrence, 1971:26). One shipload of Chinese contract labourers took place to Jamaica in 1854 direct from Hong Kong, adding to the 800 who went to Jamaica in 1853 after working in Panama in railroad construction (ref. cited in Thomas-Hope, 1977).

Small numbers of free immigrants from the United Kingdom, Germany and Africa also came after 1834, on the offer of three- to five-year contracts. The total number amounted to only around 4,500. Other free immigrants later

arrived from the Levant (Middle East) – Syrians, Lebanese and Palestinians – after the 1880s, fleeing from the religious persecution and antagonism of the Ottoman-dominated regimes. The role they created for themselves was initially in trading miscellaneous dry goods as hawkers, and later from formal stores and, ultimately, branching out to establish a wide range of business activities in which they prospered.

The era of major immigrations to Jamaica came to an end by the mid-nineteenth century. Almost immediately thereafter, emigration began from among the descendants of the slaves and other groups, and continued throughout the succeeding century.

Emigration

Emigration from Jamaica to the Caribbean coast of Central America began in the 1840s, almost immediately after the abolition of Apprenticeship. By the mid-1850s, the overall emigration rate from Jamaica was very significant (Thomas-Hope, 1977). From the late nineteenth and into the early twentieth centuries, there were major migrations to Panama and Costa Rica to work in the construction of the trans-Isthmian railway, the cutting of the Panama Canal and in railway construction and agricultural operations of the United Fruit Company; then to Cuba to provide labour for the expansion of sugar production in the early twentieth century. In addition to the major emigrations, there were several less important ones. Jamaicans had been going in small numbers to the Caribbean coastlands of Nicaragua and Guatemala since the 1870s and in the 1900s, the numbers increased, especially to the banana plantations on the Bluefield coastal area of Nicaragua. Between 1911 and 1921, at least 2,000 went to British Honduras (now Belize), and others to forestry projects in Honduras (op. cit.).

The emigration of Jamaican labour from the region occurred with increasing momentum by the mid-twentieth century and to new destinations. United States and British requirements for labour and manpower in the First and Second World Wars led to the recruitment of workers from Jamaica and other Caribbean colonies. Post-Second World War reconstruction in Western Europe also required labour, much of which was obtained from Jamaica. Large numbers of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers were recruited for hospital services, industry and transport.

Restrictive immigration policies in the United Kingdom from 1962 coincided with legislation in the United States of America, which altered regulations of migrant entry in favour of selectivity according to required skills, rather than on previous grounds of nationality or race. Canadian legislation in

1962 stipulated the entry of foreigners on the basis of education and occupation, while in the United States, an amendment in 1965 to the Immigration and Nationality Act had a similar effect. In addition to allowing the entry of relatives and dependants, specified skills and occupations were also allowed on a quota basis. These changes to immigration legislation made in the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada had important implications for Jamaican emigration. Firstly, the trend in the direction of migrant flow shifted from Western Europe to North America. The United States became the chief destination, followed by Canada, of skilled migration from the Caribbean in the second half of the 1960s and continued during successive decades (Thomas-Hope, 2002). Secondly, the selectivity of migrants on the basis of occupation led to a marked increase in the migration of skilled labour and professionals. It was estimated that during the 1970s, some 14,000 skilled personnel per year were migrating to North America from the Anglophone Caribbean as a whole (Maingot, 1999). The number of technical and professional workers from Jamaica entering the United States with permanent visas rose from 176 in 1965 to 1,777 by 1968 (Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ), 1972). Not all Jamaican emigration has been of labour. There has been a wide variety of movements for education and, progressively, of persons joining relatives already abroad. Besides, a single migrant would invariably engage in more than one type of migration in his or her lifetime, and certainly a single household could have members engaged in any combination of types of migration at the same time.

A culture of migration

A number of historical and societal factors led to the establishment of a migration tradition in the Caribbean, and this has contributed to the high propensity for migration that has persisted to the present time (Thomas-Hope, 1978). Other institutional structures, such as those associated with land tenure and the family, have also facilitated and encouraged emigration. A culture of migration based on reciprocity between migrants and their families thus developed in Jamaica, with the migration image of successfulness embedded in the psyche of most sectors of the society. Building on this, international capital has played a decisive role in influencing the direction of labour movement; and immigration policies in the destination countries have controlled numbers moving through the migration corridors, thus conditioning both the volume and directions of flow. These factors are critical to an understanding of the current trends and characteristics of migration, as they are also significant in understanding the interrelationships between migration and development in Jamaica in the past one and a half centuries and still in the twenty-first century (Thomas-Hope, 1998 and 2002).

A.1.2. Jamaica's post-colonial economy

Jamaica gained constitutional independence from the United Kingdom in 1962. The former dependence on sugar was giving way to a more diversified agricultural system but, nevertheless, with production still focused upon crops for export. The largest proportion of workers was employed in the sugar industry, and rural livelihoods were primarily built on relatively reliable resources of small-scale agriculture. Primary commodities, such as sugar and bananas, accounted for more than 30 per cent of the export earnings during the 1950s. However, this contribution declined to approximately 9 per cent by 1970, partly as a result of the increase in the relative contribution of bauxite mining and the decrease in export-driven agricultural activity resulting from the negative impacts of globalization (Duncan, 1984). The agricultural sector experienced marginal revival in the mid-1970s with support derived from preferential agreements established with European Union markets. These trading preferences were largely due to agreements such as the Lomé Convention and Cotonou Agreement, which provided guaranteed markets to Caribbean farmers and commodity prices higher than the world market. The multiplier effects of a comparatively stable (relative to current conditions) agricultural sector facilitated higher levels of predictability and security among rural households, but did not stem the flow of migrants to urban centres and the capital city of Kingston, in particular (Clarke, 2006; Duncan, 1984).

Bauxite exports began in 1952; and in the 1950s and 1960s, agriculture and bauxite mining contributed significantly to economic growth. Annual increases in GDP hovered around 5–6 per cent and, by 1970, Jamaica was third among Latin American and Caribbean countries with regard to per capita GDP (Duncan, 1984). By the early 1970s, Jamaica was the second largest exporter of bauxite and alumina in the world. The economic gains of bauxite mining contributed significantly to the development of some rural communities and, by extension, national development. Employment in the bauxite industry was associated with higher wages that had implications for the circulation of capital, growth of retail activity and general expansion of urban infrastructure. At the same time, land identified for bauxite mining led to the displacement of many rural residents, and this became part of the dynamic of the emigration of large numbers of Jamaicans who responded to the opportunity of the post-Second World War labour demands in the United Kingdom.

Jamaica was increasingly challenged through the 1970s by internal tensions compounded by transformations in political ideology on which changing models of development were based. Many of the “industrialization by

invitation” initiatives, which fuelled investment in earlier decades, were negated by the embrace of democratic socialism (op cit.). The situation was exacerbated by a host of externalities, and one of the most significant exogenous shocks impacting Jamaica was associated with the global oil crisis of the 1970s, which highlighted the country’s critical dependence on foreign exchange flows (Erikson and Lawrence, 2008). This period of the 1970s marked the genesis of continuing and far-reaching problems of severe national debt. These had dire consequences for the post-colonial development of the state, and caused uncertainties among the class which owned most wealth, leading to their emigration in large numbers to the United States and Canada.

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, globalization had significant negative implications for Jamaica’s economy. The agricultural sector experienced significant decline when free trade precipitated the dismantling of the preferential relationships with European markets. Although the transition was gradual, the net result was a significant decline in both commercial and small-scale agriculture (Beckford and Campbell, 2013). At the national level, although the bauxite industry facilitated intensive capital injection, it was not sufficiently labour intensive and, in the face of a challenged agricultural sector, was unable to neutralize the migratory magnetism of the new opportunities that had opened up for migrating to the United States and Canada.

A.2. Migration trends

A.2.1. Net population movement since the mid-twentieth century

By the mid-twentieth century, the dominant trend was one of net outward movement, as the five-yearly figures from 1955 demonstrate (Table 1). The net migration is calculated as the rate of inflow³ minus the outflow, with higher levels of outflow than inflow signalled by negative figures. Net outward movement from the 1950s and 1960s can be explained by the previously mentioned post-Second World War emigration to the United Kingdom, and increased emigration to the United States and Canada from the 1970s to 1990. This was then followed by a trend of continued net outward movement to the present, but at a lower level, with migration rates reduced to 5.8 by 2000, similar to that of the early 1950s.

³ Rate of movement is calculated as the number of persons moving per 1,000 of the population.

Table 1: Net migration rates for Jamaica

Years	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020*
Net migration	-5.1	-19.0	-17.5	-18.7	-10.7	-11.0	7.4	-13.8	-9.3	-5.8	-5.8	-7.4	-5.8	-5.6

Source: World Bank statistics, 2017.

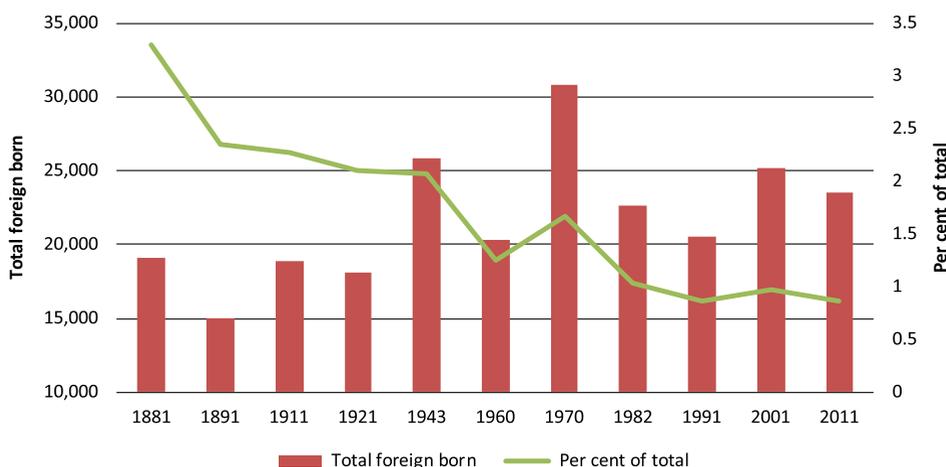
Note: *estimated

A.2.2. Immigration trends from the 1970s

Immigration of foreign nationals

The number of immigrants residing in Jamaica, or the immigrant stock, is measured by the number of non-Jamaican born persons living in Jamaica at the time of successive population censuses. Censuses since the late nineteenth century show increasing numbers of foreign-born persons but, at the same time, a declining trend of foreign born as a percentage of Jamaica’s total population. The foreign born accounted for 3.29 per cent of the population in the 1881 Census, decreasing to a mere 0.87 per cent in 2011 (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Foreign-born population to total population, decades 1881–2011



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011, (Vol. 5) Kingston: Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN), 2013.

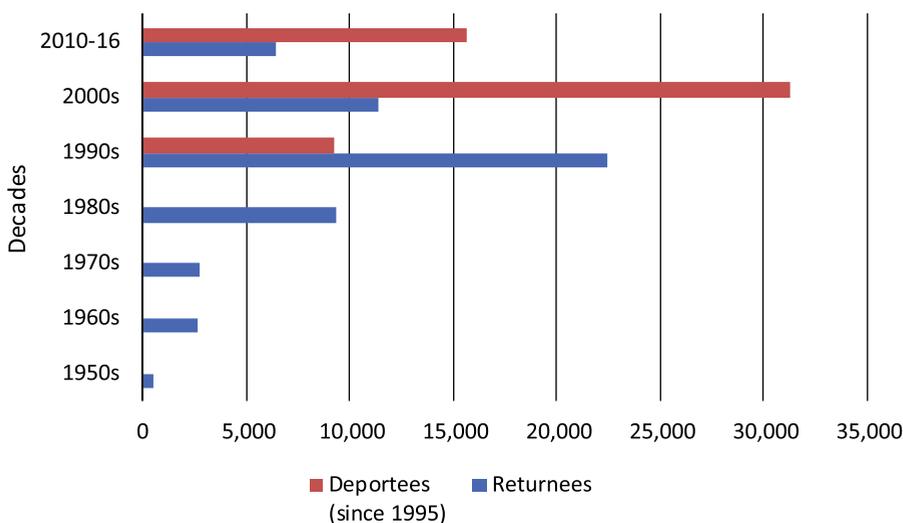
Returned migrants

As was the migration pattern in the major early twentieth century movements to the Hispanic Caribbean, so in the late twentieth century, there was always a return movement, either voluntarily or forced. The voluntary

returnees, referred to as “returning residents” or “returning overseas migrants” are defined as any resident of Jamaica (local or foreign born), who at the time of returning had lived overseas for one year or more continuously.⁴ Forced returnees or “deportees” are also a group of returning migrants.

The comparative flows of voluntary returning residents and forced returnees/deportees show the increasingly large numbers of deportees since the 1990s. By the decade of the 2000s, the annual flow greatly exceeded that of the voluntary returning residents. Because of the years when these movements began to be monitored – 1993 and 1995, respectively – reliable data are not available for all years (Figure 2; Annex III – Table A1).

Figure 2: Returning residents and deportees by annual average annual flow for each decade



Sources: Economic Social Survey of Jamaica (ESSJ) and Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF) Information Gathering and Storage Unit (IGS) National Intelligence Bureau (NIB); 2001 Census of Population and Housing; and Jamaica Customs and Excise.

The actual numbers of voluntary returnees for the 1990s was higher than indicated, as the data only includes years 1992/3–1999. Therefore, the annual average flows, rather than the total absolute numbers of arrivals recorded, are useful in comparing the volume of flows across the decades (Table 2).

⁴ The definition of returning residents by Jamaica Customs and Excise for purposes of duty-free importation of personal goods, is a three-year minimum stay abroad. This also affects the number of returning residents that have been recorded.

Table 2: Returning residents and deportees by annual average annual flow for each decade

Decade	Average annual arrivals by decade	
	Returning residents	Forced returnees*
1950s	47	-
1960s	266	-
1970s	272	-
1980s	937	-
1990s	2,249 +	1,856
2000s	1,224	3,138
2010–2016	916	2,232

Source: ESSJ, multiple years.

Note: + The actual numbers of the 1990s was higher than indicated as the data only includes years 1992/3–1999.

*Data figures only exists from 1993 as forced returned migration was not monitored or recorded prior to this period.

Returning residents

There was a trend of increasing voluntary return of former Jamaican nationals or residents since the 1950s. The voluntary return of residents was monitored only after 1992 when the volume of flow had become noticeable, its potential for national development began to be recognized and efforts therefore were made to encourage the movement. A Returning Residents Unit was established in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT) in 1993 to offer assistance in reintegrating where it was needed. Tax exemptions on the importation of personal and household goods were also put into effect, thereby facilitating the monitoring of numbers of households applying for these tax exemptions. Total numbers per household were not captured, this resulted in an underestimation of volume of flow when used as data on the inflow of voluntary returning residents. Recent population censuses have provided another source of data for this.

Numbers peaked in the 1990s, when 22,485 arrivals were recorded, amounting to an average 2,250 per year. The number of arrivals again decreased significantly in the decade of the 2000s, dipping to almost half that of the previous decade but still at an annual average of some 1,140. The trend in decreasing numbers has continued into the present decade, and although there are still three years to go to the end of the decade, with the current figure at 610, the total will predictably be much lower than in the past decade.

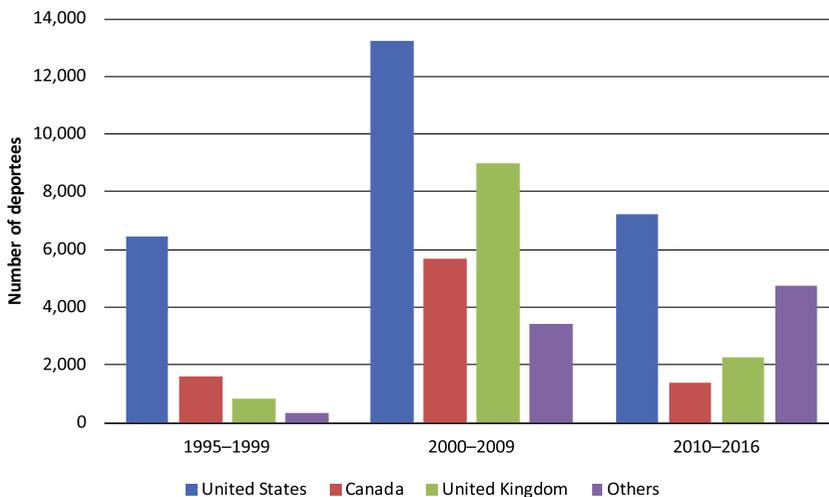
There was also a change in the demographic profile of the returning residents over the time frame under discussion. Most notable was the very high percentage (94% and 90%) of the returnees who were aged 65 and over in

the decades prior to 1950 and in the 1950s. There was then a reduction in the proportion of retired persons to 73 per cent of the total in the 1960s, followed by further reduction in the elderly and a commensurate increase in the proportion of working age group returned, especially in the 45–64 ages. The 65 and over age group continued to account for just more than half the number of returned in the 1970s and then dipped to 40 per cent in the 1990s as the working age groups of the 25–44 and 45–64 age cohorts increased to account for more than 30 per cent of the total numbers.

Returning residents by last country of residence

Of the total number recorded for 1993–1999, 43.4 per cent returned from the United Kingdom, 38.4 per cent from the United States, 12.1 per cent from Canada and 6.1 per cent from a combination of all other countries. This highlights the significant shift in the distribution of nationals returning, with the largest numbers from the United Kingdom in the 1990s and before. Thereafter, the numbers from the United States increased, and the trend of the United States as the country of last residence for the majority of migrants returning continued through to the present decade.

Figure 3: Source countries of returning residents arrivals, by decade, 1990s–2010s



Sources: 2001 Census of Population and Housing; and Jamaica Customs and Excise.

Note: + signifies that numbers for the 1990s was higher than indicated as the data only include years 1995–1999.

Forced returnees/deportees

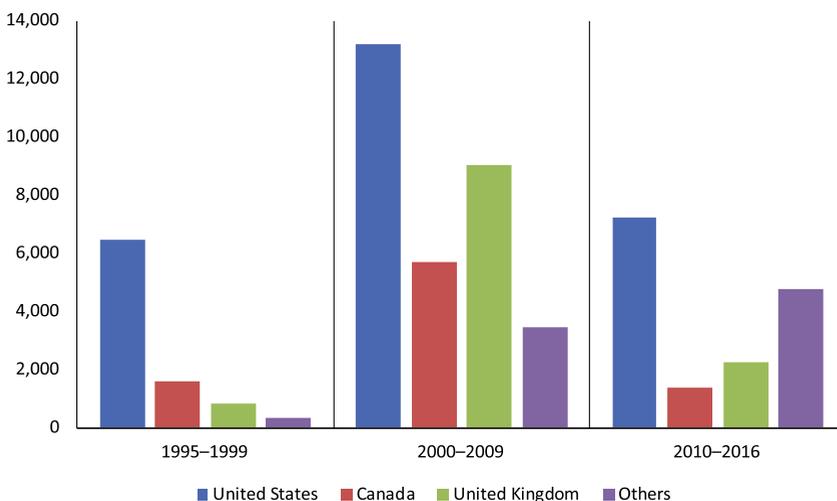
Deportees refer to those Jamaican nationals abroad who are involuntarily returned to their country of birth following charges for offences committed (criminal and civil) in a country overseas and in which they have no citizenship status, although they may have lived there for many years.

So new was the trend of large-scale deportee arrivals in the 1990s that it was not recognized as significant, and not monitored until 1995, at which time the Police Department documented the arrivals. In each year from 1995 to 2002, at least 1,699 deportees arrived in Jamaica, and the numbers have risen through this eight-year period, with 1,582 arriving in 1995 and 3,306 in 2002, reflecting an increase in excess of 100 per cent (PIOJ, ESSJ 1995–1999). This increase was due to the rising numbers arriving from the United Kingdom, which increased dramatically, especially in 2002, when 1,462 were returned.

Forced returnees by last country of residence

Overall, there has been a predominance of the arrival of deportees from the United States. Over the period 1995–2002, the United States was the source of 63.5 per cent of the total number of deportees to Jamaica. The United Kingdom deported 19.69 per cent of all those returned to Jamaica over the same period, Canada deported 12.45 per cent and other countries, 4.36 per cent (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Source countries of forced returnee arrivals by decade, 1990s–2010s



Source: PIOJ/ESSJ; JCF Information Gathering and Storage Unit NIB.

A.2.3. Emigration trends from the 1970s

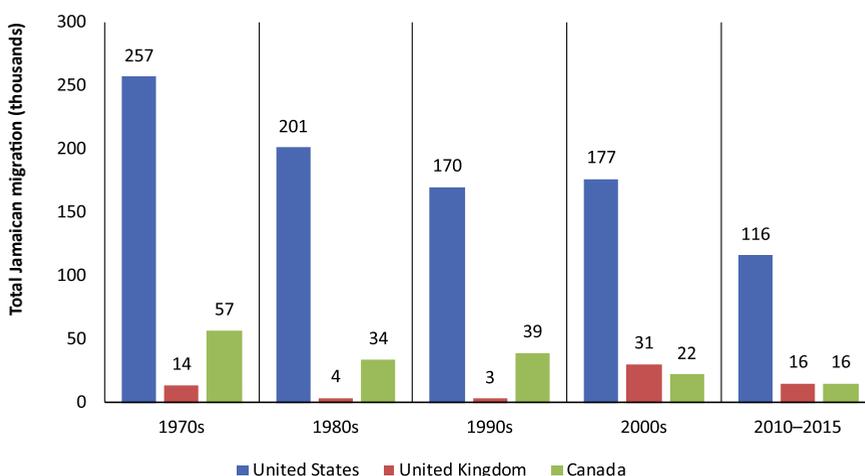
Volume of emigrant flow to the main destinations

The main migration corridors of the mid-twentieth century to the present have been the United Kingdom, United States and Canada.

The total volume of emigration for each successive decade through these corridors showed an overall trend of decreasing numbers from the 1970s to the 2010s (to 2015). The number of permanent emigrants recorded was over 300,000 for the 1970s, followed by a steep decline to just over 225,000 in the 1980s and dropping further to around 200,000 in the 1990s, 229,623 in the 2000s and 147,265 for the first five years of the present decade.

From the 1970s to 2016, the total number of permanent legal emigrants to the United States accounted for 80.33 per cent of Jamaica's overall recorded emigration over those decades. Emigrants from Jamaica to Canada over the same period accounted for 16.96 per cent of the total, and the United Kingdom, for 2.71 per cent. The trend was one of declining volume of flow to all three of these extraregional destinations. The average number of those going to the United States in the 1990s fell by approximately one third of the average for the 1970s. Meanwhile, numbers to Canada also declined significantly in the 1980s as compared to the 1970s. There was a slight increase in the 1990s. Migration to the United Kingdom, which had already declined dramatically by 1970, continued to decline through the decades of the 1980s and 1990s, and this trend continued into the first decade of the present millennium (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Jamaican emigration to the main migration destinations, by decade, 1970s–2015 (in thousands)



Compiled from data in PIOJ, ESSJ, various volumes for the 1970s to 2015.

Source:

A.2.4. Other migration trends

Short-term labour migration

Despite this overall downward trend in long-term or permanent emigration, there have been opportunities for the migration of persons without professional training or tertiary education or the financial means to migrate on seasonal labour contracts of less than six months duration. These contracts are negotiated and managed through bilateral agreements between the Governments of Jamaica and the host governments – the United States and Canada.

The definition of “migrant” as guided by the International Organization for Migration’s (IOM) Template for this Migration Profile does not include this group of labour migrants, as the definition is based on a minimum duration of one-year residence abroad. Although short-term migrant labour contracts are generally for a maximum of six months, the associated circulation of workers between Jamaica and North American destinations are an important aspect of Jamaican migration. Since the initiation of the programme in the 1943 and its expansion in the 1960s, it has been negotiated bilaterally managed and administered by the Government of Jamaica through the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS), as follows:

- (a) Farm Worker Programme to the United States;
- (b) Hotel Worker Programme in the United States, to include waiters and chambermaids;
- (c) Farm Worker Programme to Canada;
- (d) Factory Worker Programme to Canada; and
- (e) Low-skilled Worker Programme to Canada (since 2014).

In the first four decades since the initiation of the seasonal labour programme in the 1960s, the contracts were chiefly for agricultural workers on the Farm Worker Programmes to the United States and Canada (Government of Jamaica, MLSS). This later changed, with an increased trend in the number of contracts issued for the hotel industry in the United States and Canada.

The shift in work from being predominantly in agriculture to the hotel industry was accompanied by a significant change from the workers being entirely male to a more mixed gender distribution. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the number of men recruited on the Farm Worker Programme in the United States was, for example, 12,051; 13,881; and 10,818, for 1989, 1990 and 1991 respectively, (compiled from Government of Jamaica, MLSS statistics).

Thereafter, numbers declined to just over 4,000 each year, which was also the average number recruited annually for the farm programme in Canada. By the end of the 1990s, there was an increase in contracts for hotel workers (mostly women) for the United States and factory workers (mostly men) for Canada. For example, in 1999, short-term migrants on these programmes amounted to 2,462 to the United States and 5,075 to Canada. After 2003, the Canadian Low-Skilled Worker Programme came into effect and included skilled workers (mostly men), such as carpenters, masons and drivers, resulting in a significant increase in the overall numbers of persons on short-term labour contracts.

A.2.5. Trafficking in persons

Overview of the trend

Trafficking in persons to, from and within Jamaica became evident as an aspect of migration in the 1990s. Adults and children who are trafficked are subjected to various forms of exploitation. Sex trafficking of Jamaican women and children reportedly occurs on streets and in night clubs, bars, massage parlours and private homes. Traffickers increasingly use social media platforms to recruit victims. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and other local observers report child sex tourism is a problem in Jamaica's tourist resort areas (Ricketts and Dunn, 2007; Thomas-Hope, 2006b). Communities vulnerable to sex trafficking and forced labour include young women and girls from poor households, and communities controlled by criminal leaders or *dons*. Child domestic workers may be subject to domestic servitude, and many children are reported missing in Jamaica; some of these children have become victims of forced labour or sex trafficking. Jamaican citizens have also been victims of sex trafficking and forced labour abroad, including in other Caribbean countries, Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom. Foreign nationals are also trafficked in Jamaica and aboard foreign-flagged fishing vessels operating in Jamaican waters.

With regard to child trafficking, for the period 2007–2015, the Office of the Children's Registry (OCR) reports revealed that a total of 140 children⁵ were alleged to have been victims. Preliminary data obtained for 2014 indicate that the most prevalent forms of trafficking cases reported are sex and labour (Table 3).

⁵ A feature of many of the reports received by the OCR is the occurrence of two or more forms of trafficking. Thus, the figures shown in Table 1 reflect the reported incidences of each category of report and may not add to the total number of children.

Table 3: Total number of reports of trafficking received by the OCR by year and type, 2007–2015

Type of trafficking	Total	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014 ^R	2015 ^P
Sex	0	2	4	1	1	1	4	47	60	120
Labour	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	1	5
Drugs	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Other	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	1	6
Unspecified	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	4	3	11
Total children	0	2	5	2	1	5	5	55	65	140

Notes: R – Revised data for 2014.

P – Preliminary data for 2015.

Source: OCR.

The trends outlined above continued to the current decade, and recent trends are discussed in Part B of this Migration Profile.

PART B: CURRENT MIGRATION PATTERNS WITHIN THE DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

B. I. Demographic, socioeconomic and development context

B. I. I. Demographic context

Current migration occurs within the demographic, socioeconomic and developmental context of the present, while at the same time reflecting the migration trends of the past one and a half centuries, and a deeply embedded mindset that values international migration as a livelihood strategy and a means of achieving personal goals.

Box 1: Summary of current demographic and socioeconomic indicators, 2016

Population (2016)	2,730,900
Birth rate per 1,000 of the population (2016)	13.2
Death rate per 1,000 of the population (2016)	7.2
Infant mortality rate (2000 and 2016)	22.1 and 16.7
Annual population growth rate (percentage) (2016)	0.1
Life expectancy at birth (2016)	74.1
Urbanization – percentage of the population urban (2015)	54.0

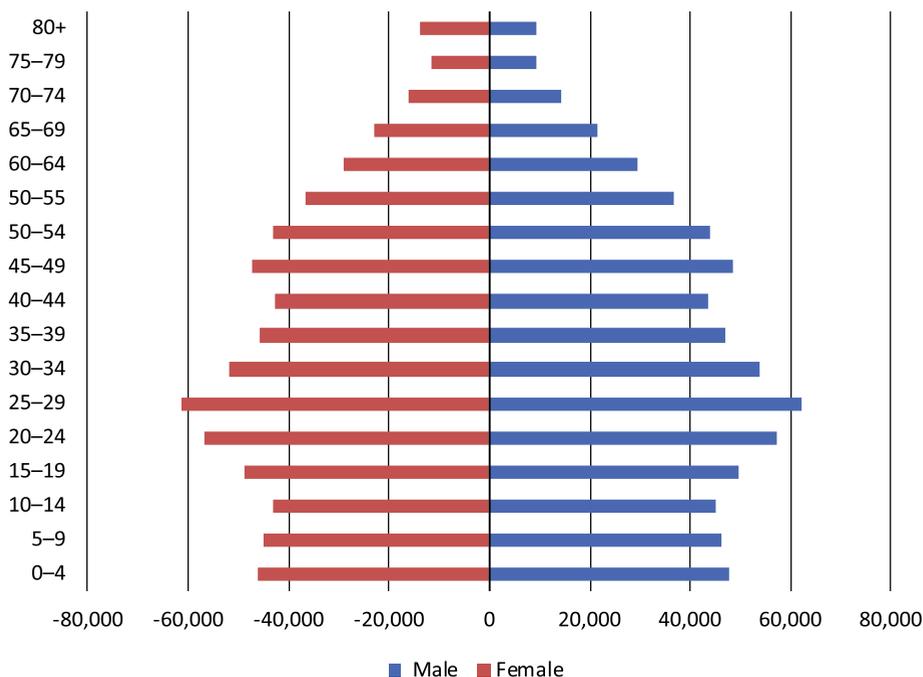
Sources: PIOJ, 2017; STATIN, 2017.

Population profile for 2016

The population profile for 2016 shows the impact of the low fertility rate and high migration from the young adult age cohorts. The largest proportion of any group was in the 25–29 ages, followed by 20–24. The 30–49 age groups were proportionately smaller (Figure 7). The change in the 2016 age distribution since 2007, 10 years previously, is discussed below, and demonstrates the stability in the numbers in the older age group (65 and over), the slight decline in the 0–14 group and the commensurate increase in the 15–64 cohort.

The sex profile is balanced with a slightly higher number of females to males, especially in the older age groups.

Figure 6: Population of Jamaica by age and sex, 2016



Source: PIOJ, ESSJ; STATIN, 2016 (2016 figures are provisional).

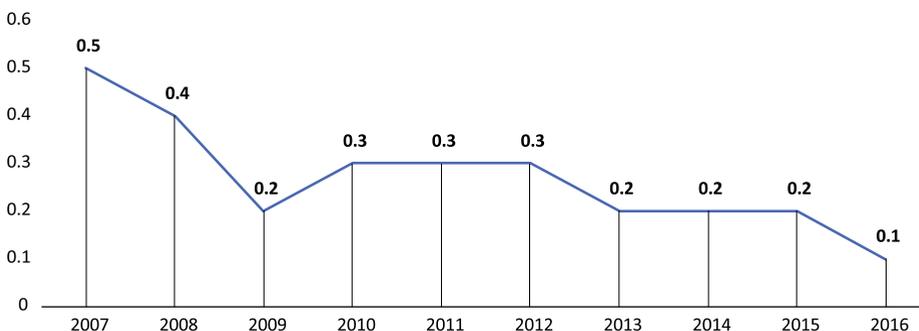
Population size and growth, 2007–2016

The size of the population of Jamaica in 2016 was 2,730,900, reflecting an increase of only 48,800 over the 10-year period 2007–2016.

The population growth rate trended downwards until 2009 when the rate was at 0.2 per cent. Following a slight increase to 0.3 per cent in 2010, it declined again in 2013 and in 2016 to 0.1 per cent (Figure 6). When comparing years over the last decade, 2009 recorded the lowest rate of growth at 0.2 per cent, while the growth rate for 2010 was again similar to that recorded in 2002. Comparing the population growth rate in the past five years (2012–2016) with the previous five (2007–2011), it is evident that annual growth rates have been generally lower and, the trend, especially after 2012, has been one of continued decline to an all-time low of 0.2 for the decade overall.

Deaths were reduced from 17,400 in 2000 to 16,100 in 2010 and 19,600 in 2016 (PIOJ). The decline in fertility also contributed to the decline in the natural growth of the population. For example, live births decreased from 56,100 in 2000 to 40,500 in 2010, and 36,000 in 2016. The crude birth rate thus went down from around 25 in the 1990s, to 13.2 in 2016. Population growth was also affected by the continued net emigration (ESSJ, 2016). Meanwhile, net emigration continued in excess of 12,000 in each year, rising to as much as 15,000 in 2012 and again to almost 15,000 in 2016, contributing to the decline in the annual rate of growth (ibid.).

Figure 7: Population growth rate, 2007–2016

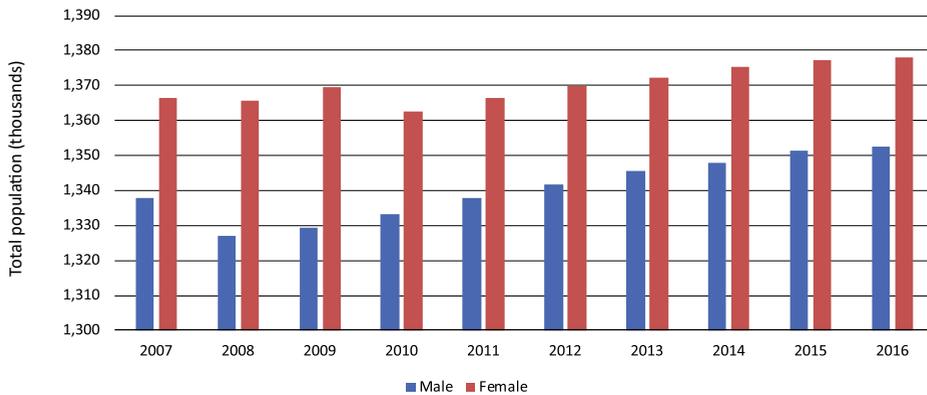


Sources: PIOJ (ESSJ); STATIN, Demographic Statistics 2016.

Population distribution by sex, 2007–2016

The size of the total population increased gradually over the decade of 2007–2016, and especially maintained an upward trend after 2008/2009. The ratio of males to females remained stable, with only a slight widening of the gap to 49.3 per cent male to 50.7 per cent female in 2008/2009, followed by a return to the former pattern of 49.5 per cent male to 50.5 per cent female from 2010 onwards (Figure 8; Annex III – Table A2).

Figure 8: Population of Jamaica by sex, 2007–2016

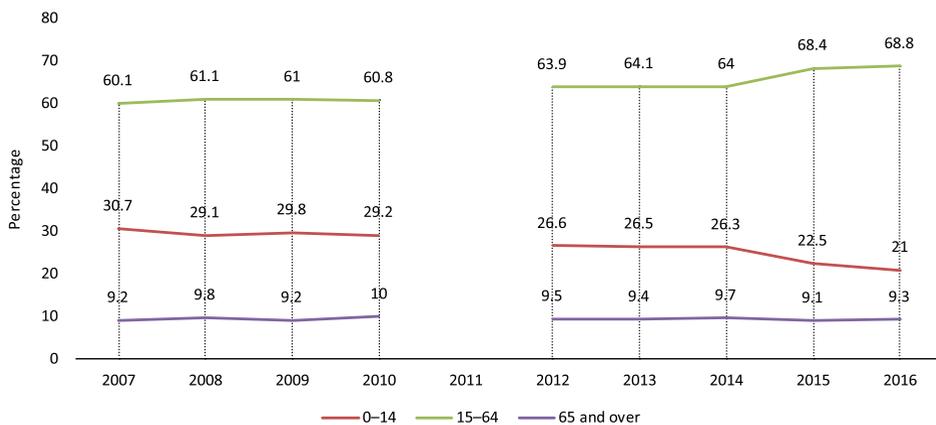


Source: STATIN, Demographic Statistics 2016, Kingston, 2017.

Population distribution by age, 2007–2016

The age distribution of the general population remained relatively stable throughout the 10-year period (2007–2016), though there was an increase in the working age cohort (15–64 years) in 2015 and 2016, with commensurately slight reductions in the young (0–14) and elderly (65 and over) age groups, improving the balance between working age and dependant age cohorts (Figure 9; Annex III – Table A3).

Figure 9: Population of Jamaica by age, 2007–2016



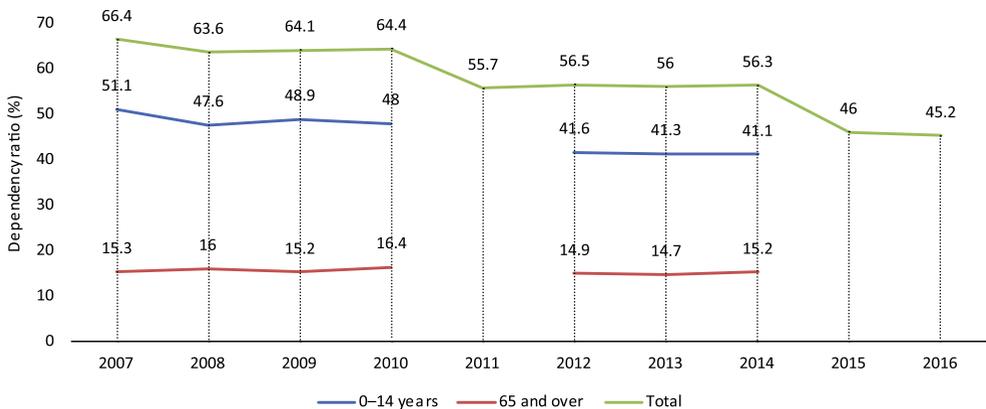
Source: STATIN, 2017a.

Note: There was no SLC fielded in 2011 as the Census of Population and Housing was taken.

Age dependency

The age dependency ratio for the 0-year period of 2007–2016 (PIOJ, 2017; STATIN, 2017a) reflects the slow population growth rate which resulted in a reduction in the proportion of children (10–14 years) and the increase in the active population (15–64 years). The age dependency ratio for children fell from 57.3 per cent in 2000, to 48.9 per cent in 2009. By contrast, the elderly dependant population fluctuated between 15 per cent and 17 per cent for the same period. The absence of data for the years after 2009 prevented the calculation of the trend in the dependency ratio for those two cohorts. However, the dependency ratio in the overall population showed the continued trend of decreased dependence, especially in 2015 and 2016 (Figure 10).

Figure 10: Age dependency ratio, 2007–2016

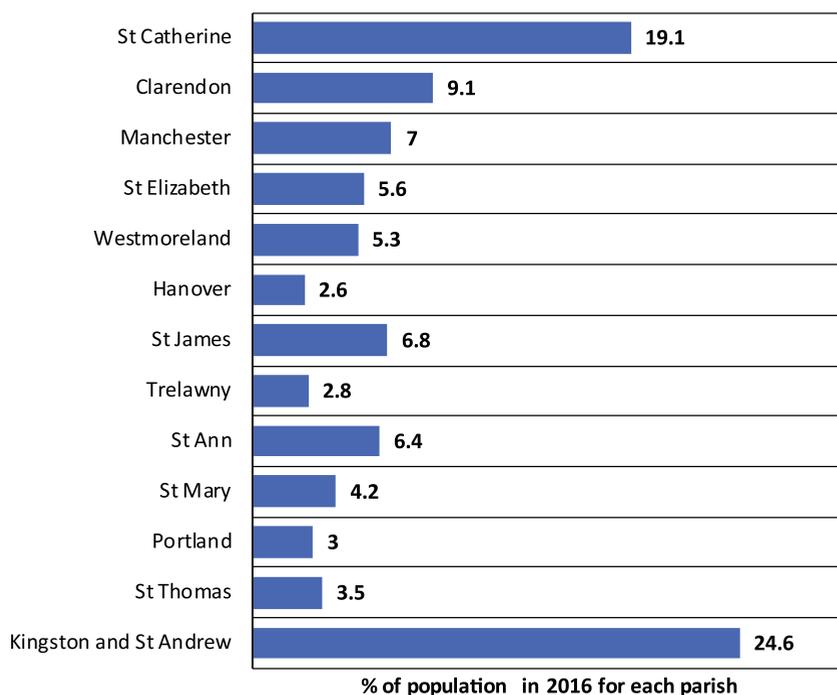


Source: STATIN, Demographic Statistics, 2016.

Population spatial distribution, by parish

The distribution of the population across Jamaica shows the dominance of the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA), which accounts for 24 per cent of the total population, followed by St Catherine – a parish adjoining the KMA. The concentration of the population in St Catherine reflects the growth of the new town of Portmore (initially a residential centre for commuters to Kingston that was granted municipal status in 2003), as well as a number of residential settlements within commuting distance to the KMA for work (Figure 11; Annex III – Table A4).

Figure 11: Population distribution by parish, as percentage of the total population, 2016



Source: STATIN, 2016, Demographic Statistics.

Population distribution, by urban–rural location

The Statistical Office of Jamaica classifies the country in terms of three geographical areas. The capital city of Kingston and its wider metropolitan area (KMA) consists of urban areas within the parishes of Kingston and urban St Andrew. Other towns refer to urban areas classified as towns by the parish councils. Rural areas refer to geographic locations that are not classified as urban.

The Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) fields the Population and Housing Census every 10 years, which is the official source of comprehensive data on Jamaica’s population size, composition and distribution. Based on data from the latest Population and Housing Census 2011, approximately 54.0 per cent of the Jamaican population resided in urban areas, reflecting a 7.2 per cent increase compared with 2001. The 2011 Census also indicated that several urban areas’ boundaries were further expanded, while two areas were reclassified as urban areas, Hayes in Clarendon and Gayle/Lucky Hill in St Mary (see Table 4).

Table 4: Population urban and rural distribution for 2001 and 2011

Population by urban/rural distribution by parish: 2001 and 2011 censuses					
		2001		2011	
Parish		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Jamaica	Total	2,697,983	100	2,607,632	100
	Urban	1,453,438	53.9	1,355,334	52.0
	Rural	1,244,545	46.1	1,252,298	48.0
Kingston	Total	89,057	100	96,052	100
	Urban	89,057	100.0	96,052	100.0
	Rural	-	-	-	-
St Andrew	Total	573,369	100	555,828	100
	Urban	495,771	86.5	483,084	86.9
	Rural	77,598	13.5	72,744	13.1
St Thomas	Total	93,902	100	91,604	100
	Urban	26,907	28.7	25,829	28.2
	Rural	66,995	71.3	65,775	71.8
Portland	Total	81,744	100	80,205	100
	Urban	19,509	23.9	18,809	23.5
	Rural	62,235	76.1	61,396	76.5
St Mary	Total	113,615	100	111,466	100
	Urban	27,533	24.2	23,153	20.8
	Rural	86,082	75.8	88,313	79.2
St Ann	Total	172,362	100	166,762	100
	Urban	49,812	28.9	44,664	26.8
	Rural	122,550	71.1	122,098	73.2
Trelawny	Total	75,164	100	73,066	100
	Urban	14,378	19.1	14,290	19.6
	Rural	60,786	80.9	58,776	80.4
St James	Total	183,811	100	175,127	100
	Urban	110,207	60.0	96,487	55.1
	Rural	73,604	40.0	78,640	44.9
Hanover	Total	69,533	100	67,037	100
	Urban	7,992	11.5	6,246	9.3
	Rural	61,541	88.5	60,791	90.7
Westmoreland	Total	144,103	100	138,948	100
	Urban	39,591	27.5	35,690	25.7
	Rural	104,512	72.5	103,258	74.3

Population by urban/rural distribution by parish: 2001 and 2011 censuses					
Parish		2001		2011	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
St Elizabeth	Total	150,205	100	146,404	100
	Urban	22,585	15.0	21,107	14.4
	Rural	127,620	85.0	125,297	85.6
Manchester	Total	189,797	100	185,801	100
	Urban	66,350	35.0	62,265	33.5
	Rural	123,407	65.0	123,536	66.5
Clarendon	Total	245,103	100	237,024	100
	Urban	85,861	35.0	71,758	30.3
	Rural	159,242	65.0	165,266	69.7
St Catherine	Total	516,218	100	482,308	100
	Urban	398,555	77.2	355,900	73.8
	Rural	117,663	22.8	126,408	26.2

Source: STATIN, 2012; Population and Housing Census 2011 General Report, Volume I.

Size and growth of the KMA

Most of the city's rapid growth occurred between 1970 and 1991, and was due to comparatively high rates of rural-to-urban migration together with natural increase (Clarke, 2006). The average annual rate of population growth in the KMA between 1970 and 2011 was 0.51 per cent per annum (STATIN, 2011a), and the most recent population estimates indicated a population of 662,426 in 2012 and 670,323 in 2015. This population was distributed across an estimated 190,864 households in the city. Overall, the parish of Kingston had the highest population density of 4,760 persons per square mile, followed by St Andrew with approximately 1,254 per square mile. Although these two administrative parishes, together, are smaller than any other single parish in the country in terms of land area, nevertheless, they housed the largest share of the national population (about 31.7%), most of which are concentrated in the KMA (cited in Kinlocke, 2016).

Although Kingston is still unquestionably the primate city of Jamaica, it has experienced the slowest population growth of all major urban centres over the last 20 years. The recent trend of declining rates of growth in Kingston is expected to continue because of the reduced internal migration to the city. This is explained by the extensive housing and commercial development that has occurred in smaller towns, in particular, nearby Portmore, as well as Old Harbour and May Pen. The construction of the South Coast Highway has also enhanced

the spatial connectivity between a number of smaller towns and Kingston, with the effect of increasing the distances from which persons commute to work in the capital. This increased accessibility, along with the rising cost of real estate in Kingston, has meant that localities outside the KMA have become attractive residential alternatives for many persons.

B.1.2. Socioeconomic and development context

Economic sectors and activities

The socioeconomic indicators, shown in Box 2, provide a general development profile of Jamaica. With a population of 2.8 million and an island State, it is classified as one of the world's small island developing States.

Box 2: Summary of current socioeconomic indicators, 2016

GDP	JMD 1,754.7 billion
GDP per capita	JMD 642,500
GDP growth rate	1.5
Gross national income per capita	USD 4,660
Percentage employed labour force in agriculture	16.7
Percentage of labour force in the informal economy (2006)	40
Expenditure on servicing debt (% of national budget, 2016)	46.4%
Expenditure on security (% of national budget, 2016)	9.3
Expenditure on education % of national budget (2016)	12.7
Expenditure on health as % of national budget (2016)	7.9
Expenditure on Social Security and Welfare (% of national budget, 2016)	1.5
Literacy (% of population)	91.7
Poverty incidence (2015)	20
Average foreign exchange rate (BOJ, 2016)	USD 1.00 = JMD 125.14

Source: Bank of Jamaica (BOJ), 2017; STATIN, 2017.

The national economy has, in recent decades, moved away from its former dependence on activities, such as agriculture, mining and manufacturing, focusing more on services. It has also been supported by the inflow of migrant remittances. The services industry, in particular tourism, became the main economic activity and the principal domestic earner of the country's foreign exchange. According to the World Trade Organization (2010), the tourism sector accounted for over three quarters of GDP in 2009 and employed two thirds of the labour force. Despite the dominance of the tourism industry, the country does have other important sectors principally: (a) food-producing industries,

agriculture, mining and quarrying, manufacturing and construction; (b) services industries, including energy, electricity and water; (c) transport, storage and communication; (d) finance and insurance services; (e) hotels and restaurants; (f) entertainment and sports; and (g) wholesale and retail trade (STATIN, 2017b).

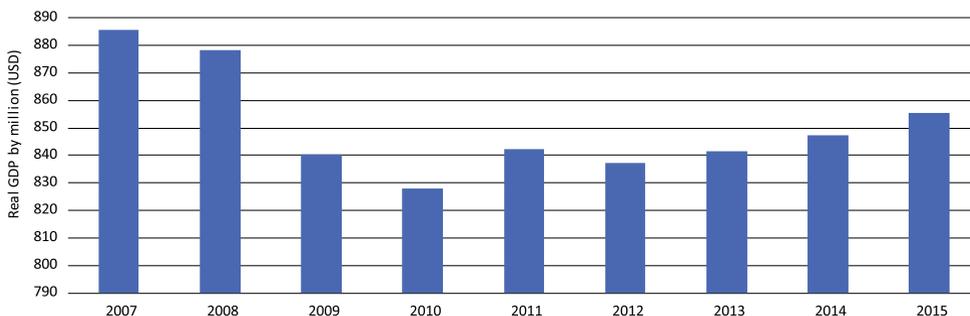
Economic growth

Jamaica’s economic development was significantly affected by the global economic downturn associated with the 2008 financial crisis and its aftermath. As a small developing economy that is integrally connected to, and dependent on, the performance of the international market, external shocks can be devastating to productive sectors that rely heavily on foreign capital investments and the demands for raw materials and natural resources (Thomas-Hope et al., 2017). However, the 2012–2015 period have seen a gradual recovery in many aspects of Jamaica’s economic performance.

Gross domestic product

The real GDP value declined considerably after 2008, but this was followed by an upward trend in subsequent years. GDP has now recovered to its 2008 level though not yet to the pre-2008 situation (Figure 12).

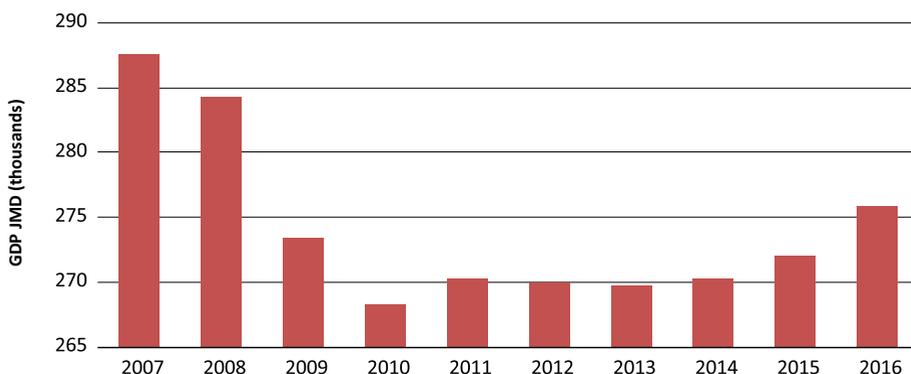
Figure 12: GDP in basic value at constant (2007) prices, 2006–2015



Source: Bank of Jamaica data, 2016.

The GDP per capita showed a steady increase from JMD 86,200 in 2000 to JMD 189,700 in 2007. Thereafter, the downward trend in GDP per capita mirrored the overall national situation of decline and then the slight recovery in 2015 (Figure 13). Throughout the period, the actual figures are low and never as much as JMD 300,000 per capita. The decline in GDP per capita was in line with the decrease of the real GDP and the slow growth of the general population.

Figure 13: GDP per capita, 2007–2016

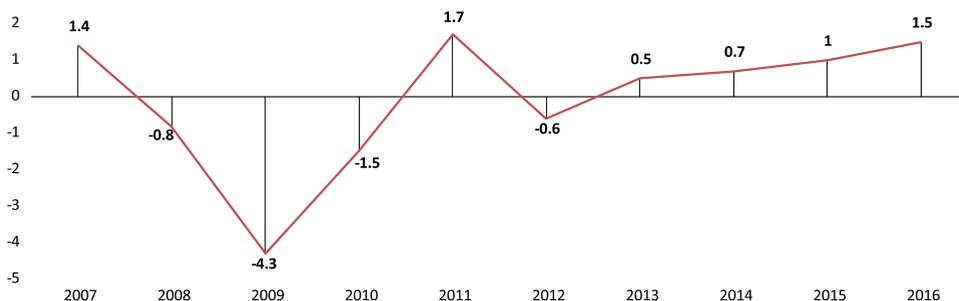


Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2016.

GDP growth rate

The GDP growth rate began to decline after 2007 (Figure 14). From a peak of 3 per cent in 2006, the GDP growth rate plummeted to -4.3 per cent in 2009, which was far below the unchanging growth rate of the general population (0.2%). There was again positive growth in 2011 at 1.7 and after a further dip in 2012, the growth remained low but in positive figures to 2016.

Figure 14: GDP growth rate, 2007–2016



Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2014–2010 and for 2008–2016, Review of Economic Activity, Quarter 1, 2017, from page 8 of National Income and Product 2015, STATIN (2016 publication) Kingston, Jamaica.

The current situation is partly the consequence of the global economic downturn, and also of pervasive structural problems. For many years, the economy has been characterized by consecutive fiscal deficits, negative balance of payments and external trade, devaluation of the Jamaican dollar, high interest

rates and high inflation rates. While there remain many challenges to economic growth, there have been important signs of improvement. For example, recent monetary policies led to the lowering of interest rates to single digits. There has been relative control of the inflation rate and a strengthened confidence in the economy. The annual inflation rate fell from 8.0 per cent in 2012 to 6.4 per cent in 2014. Additionally, the ratio of debt to GDP declined from 135.2 per cent at the end of the fiscal year (FY) 2012/2013 to 133.3 per cent at the end of FY 2013/2014 and to an estimated 130.6 per cent at the end of FY 2014/2015 (PIOJ, 2015:37). The fiscal balance also showed notable improvements, as it moved from -4.07 per cent of GDP in FY 2012/2013 to a fiscal surplus of 0.12 per cent of GDP in FY 2013/2014, while a small fiscal deficit of -0.5 per cent of GDP is estimated for FY 2014/2015 (op cit.). The net international reserves increased by 77.9 per cent from USD 1,125.58 million at the end of 2012 to USD 2,001.97 million at the end of 2014 (op cit.). At the same time, nominal GDP per capita denominated in USD declined by 7.4 per cent over the period from USD 5,460.31 in 2012 to USD 5,054.57 in 2014 (op cit.). This decline was due to the marginal growth performance of the economy over the period, combined with the 25 per cent depreciation in the annual average nominal exchange rate of the Jamaican currency from JMD 88.99 to USD 1.00 in 2012 to JMD 138.31 to USD 1.00 in 2017 (average for January–October 2017) (BOJ, 2017a).

Labour market

After 2008, employment opportunities declined in many sectors of the economy, such as mining and quarrying, manufacture, construction, wholesale and retail trade, repair and installation of machinery, transport, storage and communication (PIOJ, 2008–2011).

Box 3: Summary of the Jamaican labour force, 2012–2017

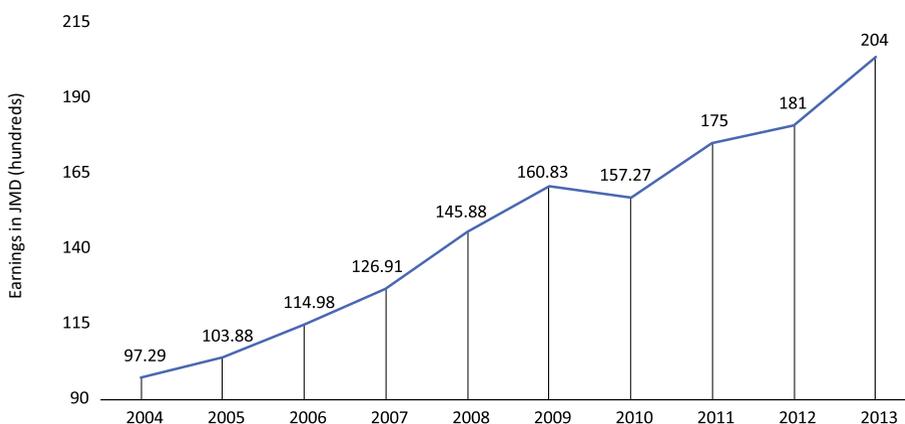
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	April 2017
Labour force	1,281,900	1,308,500	1,307,500	1,316,700	1,353,700	1,371,600
Employed labour force	1,103,400	1,108,900	1,127,800	1,138,800	1,175,200	1,204,800
Unemployed labour force	178,600	199,500	179,700	177,900	178,500	166,700
Outside the labour force	750,675	768,325	773,950	768,775	736,200	722,100
Employment rate	86.1	84.8	86.3	86.5	86.8	87.8
Unemployment rate	13.9	15.2	13.7	13.5	13.2	12.2
Job-seeking rate	8.7	9.8	9.0	9.1	8.6	7.8
Labour force as % of population age 14+	61.9	63.0	62.8	63.1	64.8	65.5

Source: STATIN, 2017b.

The MLSS has been pursuing a labour market reform process, including reviewing and amending several pieces of legislation regulating the labour market in Jamaica. Notably, it has been reiterated that companies are required to give first consideration to Jamaican nationals before seeking work permits for foreigners. They have to advertise their vacancies on the MLSS website and demonstrate that all efforts have been made to employ a Jamaican national with the required qualification before a foreigner is hired. In 2008, application fees for work permits and exemptions were greatly increased, moving from JMD 1,000 to JMD 14,000. Work permits fees were also restructured according to duration of the permit to be JMD 27,000 for three months or less; JMD 54,000 for six months or less; JMD 81,000 for nine months or less; and JMD 108,000 for one year or less (PIOJ, 2015).

In March 2016, the national minimum wage rate was increased to JMD 6,200.00 (or JMD 155.00 per hour) from JMD 5,600.00 (or JMD 140.00 per hour) per 40-hour week, and a new time and a half rate (work done in excess of 40 hours) of JMD 232.50. For work done on public holidays and rest days, a double time rate of JMD 310.00 per hour was applied (op. cit.). Additionally, the average weekly earnings for employees of large establishments (so excluding most professionals) showed a gradual increase (Figure 16).

Figure 15: Jamaica – Annual averages of wage earners in large establishments



Source: PIOJ, ESSJ 2000–2013.

Note: Figures are not available for 2014 onwards.

At another level, the Public Sector Master Rationalization Plan was tabled in the House of Representatives as a green paper in 2010. The PIOJ hosted its Third Annual Labour Market Forum under the theme “Jobs for Growth: the Contribution of the Labour Market in Economic Expansion”, which sought to

explore the contribution of the labour market to Jamaica's economic recovery and sustainable economic development (PIOJ, 2011). This forum also brought attention to the importance of labour migration to Jamaica as both a country of origin and destination.

There have been important changes in the labour market in recent decades as a consequence of both demographic changes and changes in the structure of production. The slowing down of the economy, especially following the 2008 financial downturn, resulted in the slow growth and even decline in formal sector employment (Franklin, 2010). This decline stimulated an increase in the number of self-employed persons associated and the growth of small and medium enterprises (SMEs), including those of the informal sector.

Employment

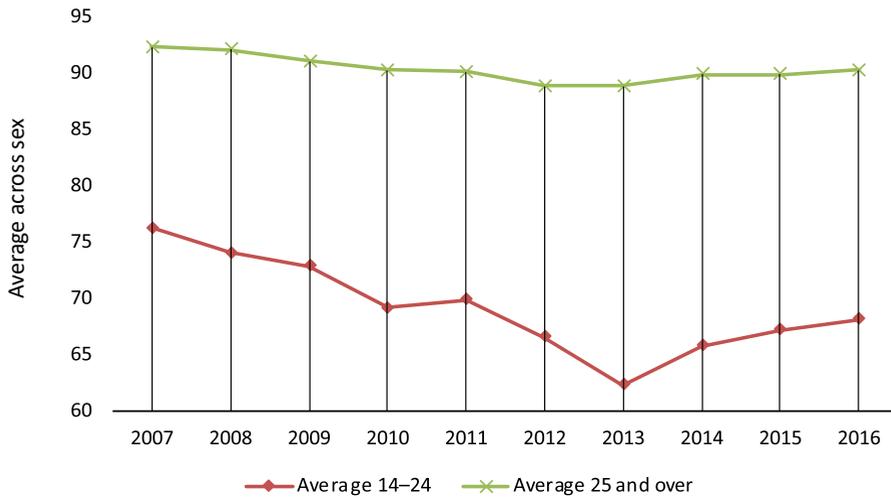
The total labour force of Jamaica comprised 1,371,600 persons in 2017 (April); of these, 716,700 were male and 588,800 were female.⁶ The number in the labour force had risen gradually since 2012 when there were 1,281,900 recorded, reflecting an increase of 89,700 over the number in 2012 (PIOJ, ESSJ 2006–2016) (see Box 3).

Employment rate

The employment rate for the younger age cohort (14–24) showed a steady decline from 2007 to 2012, followed by a rise from 65.8 per cent in 2014 to 68.2 per cent in 2016. The trend for employment of the older age cohort (25 years and over) also showed a decline throughout the 10-year period (2007–2016) but remained at higher growth levels than that of the youth, dropping from 89.2 per cent in 2007 to 88.9 per cent in 2013 and rising again to 90.3 per cent in 2016 (Figure 16).

⁶ See <http://statinja.gov.jm/>

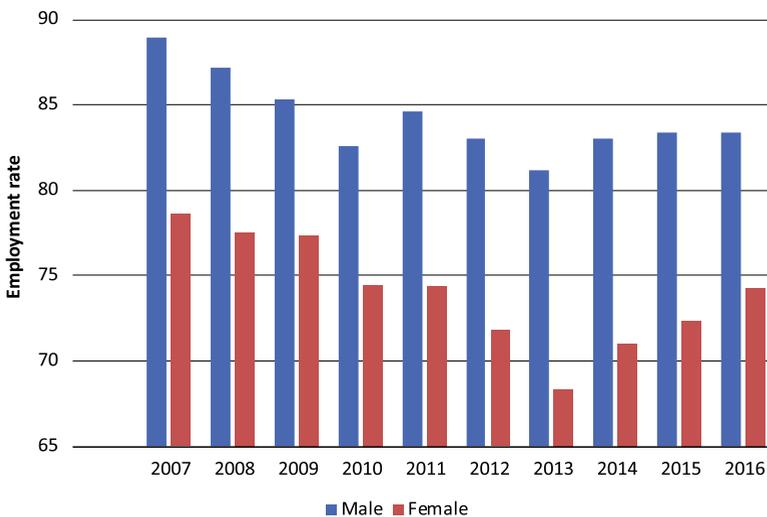
Figure 16: Employment rate by age, 2007–2016



Source: ESSJ, 2006–2016.

Throughout the decade, the male employment rate was higher than the female, with the young male employment at 70 or more over the period and the young female employment only once, in 2017, and as low as 52 per cent in 2013. Male employment was constantly higher in all age cohorts, never falling below 80 per cent in any year during the period under review (Figure 17; Annex III, Table A5).

Figure 17: Employment rate by sex, 2007–2016



Source: ESSJ, 2006–2016.

Employment by different industry groupings

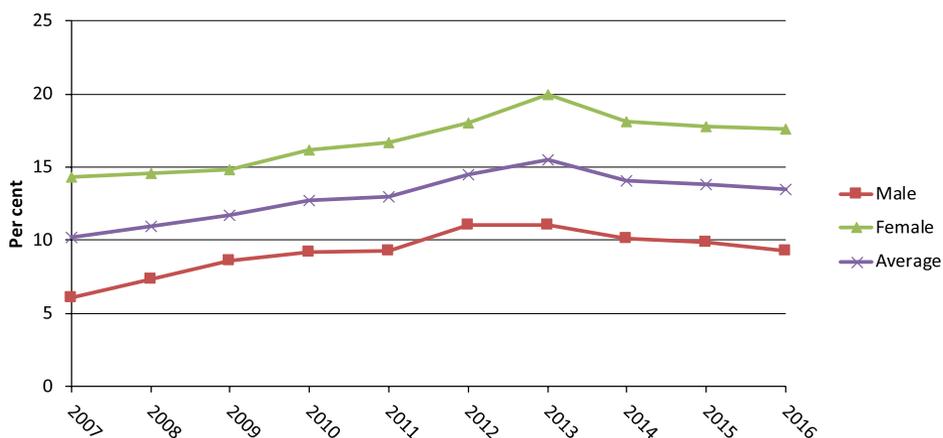
There was continued expansion of employment in the services industry, which accounted for 67.9 per cent of employment in 2014. The wholesale and retail, repair of motor vehicle and equipment sub-industry accounted for the largest share of employed persons, at 20.4 per cent, when compared with any of the other sub-industries under either the goods producing or services industries classifications. There were increases in six of the eleven services sub-industries, with the three highest increases in the sub-industries: other community, social and personal service activities (12.5%); private households with employed persons (8.2%); and hotels and restaurants (7.5%). Among the service industries that declined, the largest of these were electricity, gas and water supply (24.1%) and health and social work (8.0%) (STATIN, 2017a) (see Annex III – Table A6).

The annual average wages across sectors showed that averages were highest in the tourism sector, restaurants and trade manufacturing and financial services in 2004–2007 (the latest available years), but these sectors only employed a small proportion of the employed labour force. The second highest wages were earned in manufacturing, but then again this accounts for only a very small proportion (6.3%) of the population (STATIN, 2017b).

Unemployment

Following the economic crisis of 2008, unemployment increased, rising from 12.6 per cent in 2011 to 13.7 per cent in 2014. Unemployment rates of the 14- to 24-year-old population cohort rose from 23.7 in 2007 to 37.3 in 2013 and again declined to 31.8 by 2016. The high level of youth unemployment was accounted for by the rate for females, which was 32 in 2007, rising to 48 in 2013 and then declining to 37.8 in 2016. The 2012–2016 period also included the worse years for unemployment of the 25-and-over cohort, though the rate in any year never rose above 11.1. As in the younger group, so in the 25-and-over cohort, female unemployment was consistently much higher than for males, reaching a high of 15.3 in 2013 (see Annex III, Table A7). The overall trend in unemployment was the same for males as for females, but with males consistently experiencing lower levels of unemployment than females (Figure 18).

Figure 18: Unemployment rate by sex, 2007–2016



Source: ESSJ, 2006–2016.

Informal employment

Findings generated from the 2016 Quarterly Labour Force Surveys – which were conducted in January, April, July and October 2016 by STATIN – noted that the International Labour Organization (ILO) defines informal employment as employment conducted by persons whose main job lacks basic social or legal protection or employment benefits such as National Insurance Scheme (NIS). Therefore, for an individual whose main source of employment is not agriculture or domestic related, it is accounted for in the informal sector if his or her present job satisfies any one of the following conditions:

- All own-account workers and employers who own informal enterprises;
- All unpaid family members who contributes to the enterprise; and
- All employees or employers in jobs where no NIS contributions are deducted.

Of note, there are a variety of perspectives and definitions in the literature on what constitutes the “informal economy” in Jamaica (Witter and Kirton, 1990; Tokman and Klein, 1993; Inter-American Development Bank (IADB), 2006). There are three generally accepted methods for estimating the size of the Jamaican informal economy and its contribution to GDP: (a) direct approaches that employ household surveys or audit tax returns to extrapolate data relating to informal sector activities; (b) indirect, or discrepancy, methods that use available economic data to estimate changes in the size of the shadow economy

over time; and (c) modeling approaches, which examine the causes and effects of informal activities to estimate the size of the informal sector. Estimates vary, depending on which method is used.

According to STATIN,⁷ in 2016, averages of 478,300 persons were reported to be in informal employment, compared to 459,800 who were formally employed. With an annual average employment of 1,175,200 persons, this meant that informal employment accounted for approximately 40.7 per cent and the formal employment for 39.1 per cent of the employed. A comparison with 2015 shows that average annual informal employment increased by 31,000 (6.9%) persons, which was higher than the increase of 8,300 (1.8%) persons who were formally employed.

Human development indicators

Poverty levels

One of the major consequences of the global economic downturn for Jamaica was the increase in poverty. Research on living conditions in Jamaica has been jointly conducted every year by STATIN and the PIOJ. These studies have employed a consumption-based methodology to determine the poverty line that separates the poor from the non-poor.⁸

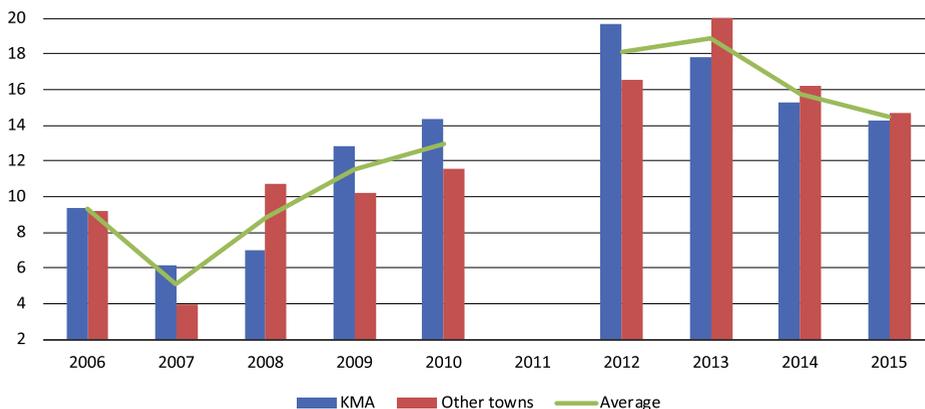
The national averages of the proportion of the population below the poverty line shows an increase across the decade rising from 14.3 per cent in 2007 to 21.2 per cent in 2015, with fluctuations below and above these figures in the years between (Figure 18; Appendix I – Table A9). However, the rise in poverty levels since 2012 represents a return to the levels experienced in the previous decade, namely in 2000–2002 (Thomas-Hope, Knight and Noel, 2012).

Poverty levels in the KMA and other towns have been consistently lower than the national average. On the other hand, poverty levels in rural areas were considerably higher than the national average. Jamaicans residing in “other towns” (category as used by STATIN) experienced less poverty than those living in KMA (Figure 20; Annex III – Table A8).

⁷ See <http://statinja.gov.jm/PublicationReleases.aspx>

⁸ The consumption-based methodology, developed by Seebohm Rowntree in the United Kingdom in 1901, is the oldest method that sought to scientifically measure poverty. The basic household budget or basket of goods poverty measure is very flexible and totally different from the USD 1.25 or USD 2.50 purchasing power parity, per day used by most international organizations (for example, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund) in determining the level of poverty worldwide. It must be noted also that poverty estimates on the latter basis are not available for Jamaica.

Figure 19: Proportion of the population below the national poverty line, 2006–2015



Source: PIOJ/STATIN, Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions (JSLC), 2010, 2011, 2015.

Note: There were no SLC fielded in 2011, which was the census year.

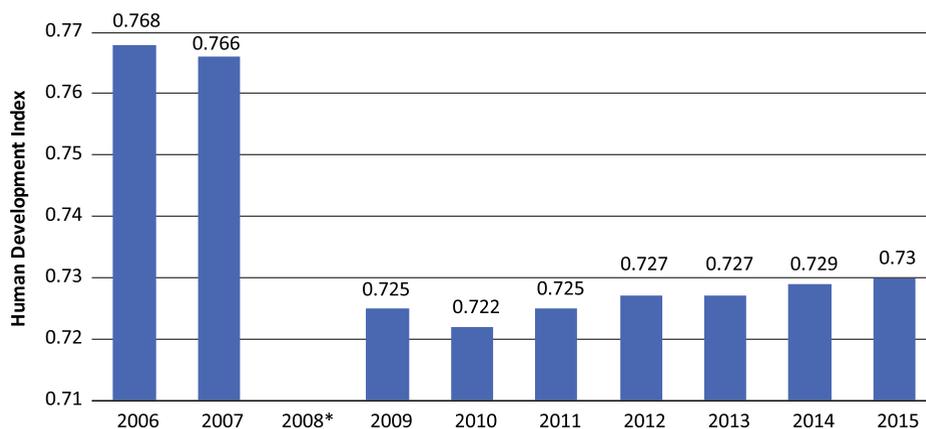
Human Development Index

Since 1990, a human development index (HDI) has been calculated to provide an index that looks beyond GDP to a broader definition of well-being. The HDI provides a composite measure of three dimensions of human development: (a) living a long and healthy life (measured by life expectancy); (b) being educated (measured by adult literacy and enrolment at the primary, secondary and tertiary level); and (c) having a decent standard of living (measured by purchasing power parity income). The index is not a comprehensive measure of human development, but it provides a broadened concept and measure of development by including the complex relationship between income and well-being (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2006).

Jamaica was classified as a “high human development” country from 2011, according to the UNDP classification. This signalled an improvement in its rank in relation to all 188 countries worldwide, for up to 2010, Jamaica had been in the “medium human development” category each year.

The country has had an HDI value ranging from 0.768 in 2006 to 0.73 in 2015 (UNDP, 2011–2017). The effects of the 2008 economic crisis were also apparent in the national measures of social and economic indicators. However, even with the dip in performance following 2008, the HDI index has been generally higher than in previous decades when it was recorded at 0.686 in 1975 (UNDP, 2008). While the HDI value rose to 0.728 in 1995, this value was not again attained after 2007 (Figure 20).

Figure 20: HDI for Jamaica, 2006–2015



Source: UNDP, Human Development Report, 2011–2017.

Note: *There was no HDI index cited for 2008.

Public order, safety and security

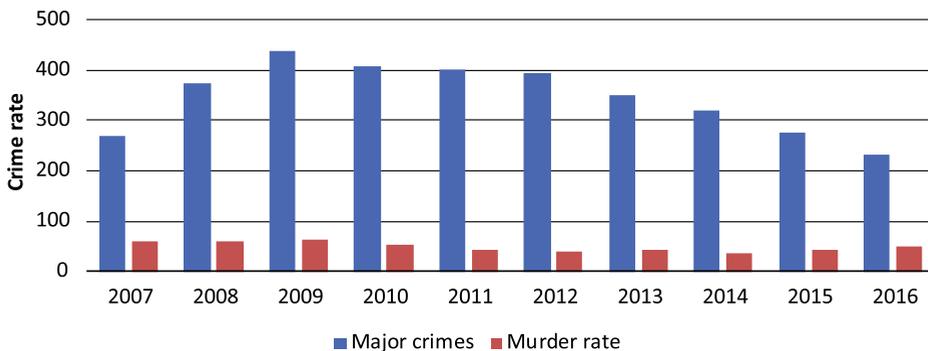
Personal safety (and security) is a major development concern for Jamaica. Current trends in the incidence of crime and violence, as well as the resulting levels of insecurity and fear of crime have been major contributors to the low levels of economic growth and threats to the achievement of inclusive development goals. It has also been a factor encouraging persons to emigrate or not to return to live in Jamaica permanently. Within this context, security and safety have been increasingly recognized as a cross-cutting issue that has significant implications for State expenditure on areas such as health and the costs borne by both the private sector and citizens to operate businesses and ensure personal safety. Jamaica has been described as having one of the highest per capita levels of homicide and violent crime in the world. This situation was assessed to be “the result of a combination of factors including imports of illegal firearms and ammunition, the supply and trans-shipment of illegal narcotics, financial frauds, including Ponzi schemes and lottery scam, and opportunities for corruption and extortion, all of which have encouraged the use of violence by criminals” (PIOJ, 2015:25).

Over the 10-year period of 2007–2016, the figures showed that there was an overall decrease in the incidence of crime and violence. The major-crime rate⁹ decreased by 19.2 per cent, from 396 in 2011 to 320 per cent in 2014. It

⁹ Crime rate is calculated as the number of crimes per 100,000 of the population.

decreased a further 28.4 per cent from 447 per 100,000 in the population in 2009. The murder rate fell to 36.9 in 2014, down 12.1 per cent from 42.0 in 2011, and down 41.2 per cent from 62.8 per cent in 2009 (Figure 21) (PIOJ, ESSJ 2006–2015). The challenge is that there has to be a much greater decline in crime rates to make any significant impact on the public perception and experience of safety and security.

Figure 21: Crime rate for Jamaica, 2007–2016



Source: ESSJ 2006–2016.

Note: The JCF made changes to its classification of crimes; “major crimes” group was changed to Category 1 crimes. The 2012 rate has been recalculated based on the new classification.

B.2. Immigrants

B.2.1. Introduction to immigrants

Definitions and types of immigrants

For the purpose of this study,

“... a long-term migrant is a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least one 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 the country of arrival the person will be a long-term immigrant” (IOM, Terms of Reference for the Country Migration Profile).

The above definition differs from that used by STATIN where “an individual must be resident in Jamaica for six months or more to be categorized as an immigrant” (PIOJ, 2011). This definition will also be reflected in the data for

labour immigrants in Jamaica and therefore for the total number of immigrants recorded. Therefore, a broader definition of immigrant will be used for this Migration Profile to ensure that all categories of immigrant are included.

Immigrants in Jamaica are classified according to five categories, namely: voluntary returnees, forced returnees, Commonwealth citizens and other foreign nationals or aliens (PIOJ, 1995–2011). The voluntary returnees (returning residents) and the forced returnees (deportees) are both groups of returning Jamaican nationals or previous residents, whereas the Commonwealth citizens and aliens (other foreign nationals) are both groups of non-Jamaican nationals. Included in the categories of Commonwealth citizens and aliens are labour migrants, students, as well as refugees and asylum seekers.

Returning Jamaicans

Voluntary returnees or returning residents

The voluntary return of Jamaicans or former residents is not systematically captured and recorded. In many cases, the final move is part of series of returns of brief duration and, for some, it becomes part of an ongoing transnational residential and livelihood pattern that includes Jamaica and the country of previous emigration (Thomas-Hope, 2002). However, nationals returning after a minimum of three years residence abroad have been entitled to the duty-free importation of personal and household goods, which has provided some statistics on their numbers. The deficiency is that the information captured in this way only included the individual who applied for the duty concession on behalf of her/his household and omitted any information on accompanying persons. Further, the three-year residence abroad as a requirement for this concession also omitted persons returning after one year as an emigrant (for example students), which is the time that conforms to the IOM and Government of Jamaica definition of a migrant. Other data on returning residents are captured by the Population Census.¹⁰

While voluntary returnees need to make their own arrangements for finding employment if they are of working age, there has been one programme of sponsored return. In the 1990s, the IOM – in association with the Government of Jamaica – launched a Return of Talent Programme to encourage qualified migrants to return by offering financial incentives for specific sectors and occupational groups (Williams, 1999; Thomas-Hope, 2006).

¹⁰ A Draft Returning Residents Policy is currently being drafted by the Ministry of Finance and the Public Service.

Forced returnees or deportees

Forced returnees are those persons who have been deported from their country of emigration destination. The reasons for deportation have included both criminal and non-criminal offences. The relative magnitude of the enforced return of Jamaicans from the United Kingdom and, to a lesser extent Canada, was partly a consequence of the large numbers of Jamaican migrants as compared with other Caribbean, and even other foreign nationals, living in those countries. It also reflected the increased involvement of Jamaicans in the transnational trade in narcotics, and of persons in breach of the immigration regulations. As a consequence of these factors, there were changes made in legislation in the destination countries primarily in relation to national security and the internal politics of immigration, as well as the demands being made on the respective criminal justice systems because of criminal offences perpetrated by immigrants (Oliveira Reis, 2016).

Foreign nationals

These groups of immigrants are required to be issued with a work permit or a work permit exemption, which is issued to persons who qualify under the Act.

The Foreign Nationals and Commonwealth Citizens (Employment) Act, known as the Work Permit Act, gives authority to the MLSS to process foreign nationals migrating to Jamaica for employment purposes (See part C of this Migration Profile). Applications are made by the prospective employer or contractor through the MLSS.¹¹ This applies to both Commonwealth citizens and other citizens (classified as aliens).

For citizens of the Member States of the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME),¹² a document called Certificate of Recognition of Caribbean Community Skilled Person (Skill Certificates) is issued to persons who qualify under the Act. Each Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Member State is required to issue this certification to qualified skilled persons entering their country to engage in any form of employment, exempted from the need of a work permit. Other categories of persons entitled to (Employment) Exemption Regulations (1964) include naturalized Jamaicans (discussed below in section B.2.5). Additionally, non-nationals married to a Jamaican national and who may apply

¹¹ See www.mlss.gov.jm/pub/index.php?artid=37

¹² Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, and Trinidad and Tobago.

for a Marriage Exemption Certificate under Part I of the Schedule of the Foreign Nationals and Commonwealth Citizen (employment) Exemption Regulations¹³).

It should be noted that persons accompanying the work permit or work permit exemption recipients were not listed as labour migrants, so that the data do not capture such persons. Therefore, while numbers issued with a work permit or exemption was a measure of the labour immigrants, it was an underestimation of the total number of foreign nationals.

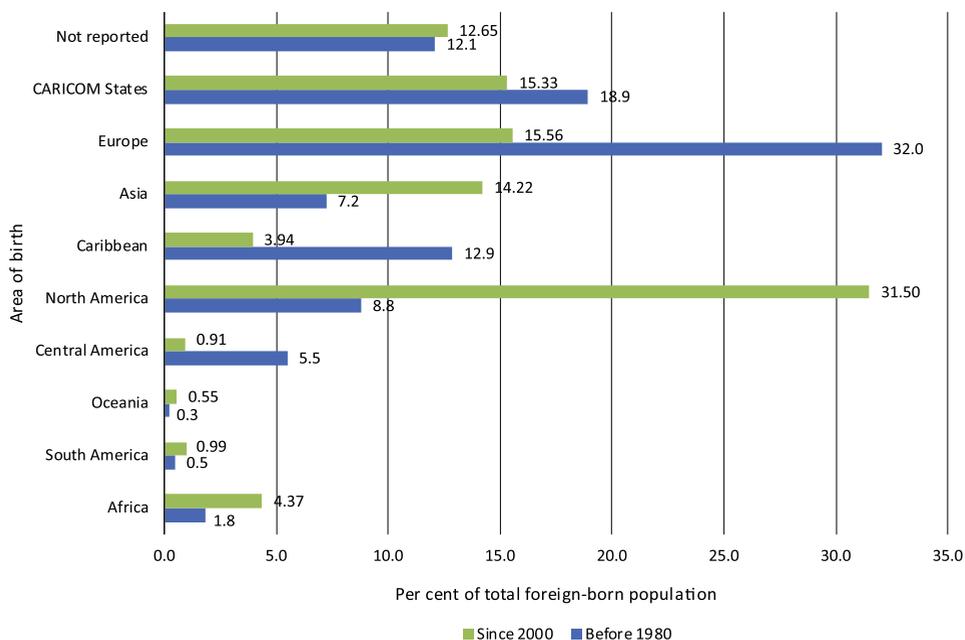
Immigrant stock: Foreign-born population in Jamaica

Data from the 2011 Census of Population and Housing recorded 23,477 foreign-born persons in Jamaica at the time, which accounted for 0.87 per cent of the total population (STATIN, 2013). The World Bank (2011) estimated the total stock of foreigners in Jamaica at 30,000, which is approximately 1.1 per cent of the total population (World Bank, 2011). On any count, the proportion of foreign-born nationals in the population was small. The immigrant stock, or number of foreign-born at the time of each census, included those who had entered both before and after the previous census, thus the number is cumulative of earlier arrivals.

The countries of birth of the foreign-born population in Jamaica in 2013 showed that most of those who had arrived before 1980 were from countries of Europe, followed by CARICOM States. There was then a dramatic shift in the source of immigrants after 2001, with the largest increase occurring in persons from North America, as well as a significant increase in those from Asian countries (Figure 22).

¹³ See <https://caricom.org/our-work/the-caricom-single-market-and-economy-csme>

Figure 22: Foreign-born population by region of birth and entry to Jamaica before 1980 and after 2001



Source: Population and Housing Census 2011, Vol. 5. Kingston: STATIN, 2013.

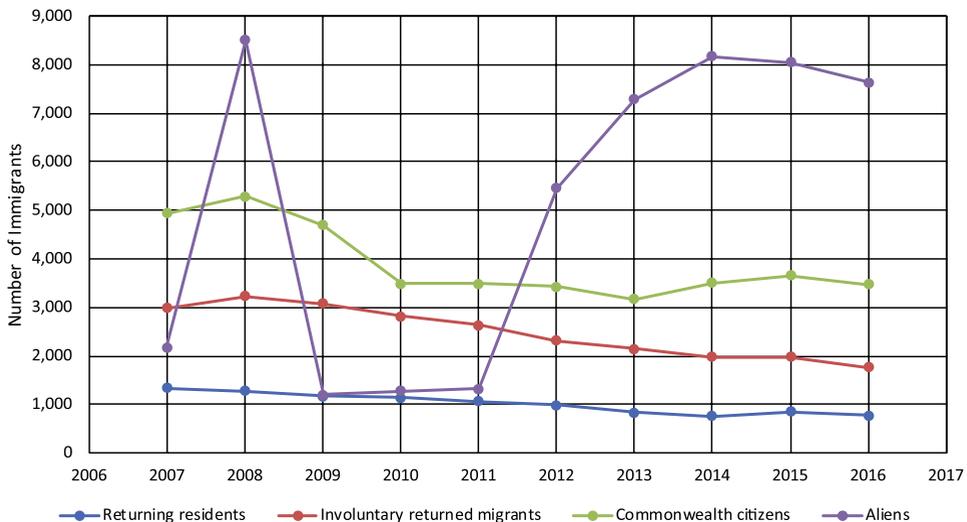
Immigrant flows

In accordance with the definition of “immigrant” indicated above, the five categories mentioned are included here. This amounted to a total flow of around 56,508 in the years 2007–2011, as compared with some 68,201 in the more recent period, 2012–2016. This reflected the sizeable increase in persons arriving in Jamaica for purposes of work and/or residence, amounting to approximately 11,700 in the later five-year period.

The pattern over the 2007–2016 decade showed that the number of immigrants arriving in Jamaica in 2008 was nearly twice the annual average of 9,918 persons from 2000 to 2010 with the category Aliens showing the greatest increase. This was followed by a decline in the number of immigrants in all categories between 2009 and 2010 (the years after the 2008 economic crisis). With the exception of deported persons, who were forced to return to Jamaica, the decline may have resulted from the effects of the global economic downturn that caused a temporary shutdown of many businesses, infrastructural projects

and industries that employed most immigrants. For example, from large numbers of aliens arriving in 2008, thereafter the numbers that were admitted in Jamaica decreased dramatically by more than 75 per cent in 2009 and 2010. In contrast, the decline in the category “Commonwealth citizens” was only a decline relative to previous years, since the annual flows for 2009 and 2010 were still above the annual average of 3,307 for 2000 to 2010 (Figure 23; Annex III – Table A9). At the same time, when the annual entry of aliens increased after 2011, the numbers of returning residents declined dramatically. The numbers of forced returnees also trended downwards throughout the 10-year period 2007–2016 and especially after 2011, when numbers never again were as high as 3,000 in any one year as it had been in previous years. Nevertheless, throughout the period, the numbers of forced returnees consistently exceeded those of the voluntary returning residents recorded.

Figure 23: Annual flows of immigrants to Jamaica by category, 2007–2016

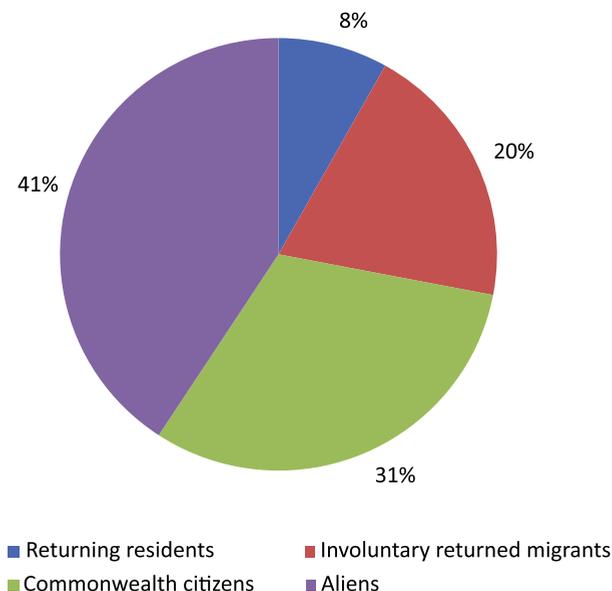


Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2010–2016.

The proportion of each immigrant group in the total number of immigrants arriving over the decade demonstrates the predominance of aliens, accounting for 41 per cent of the total, followed by Commonwealth citizens, accounting for 31 per cent. This indicates that the majority of immigrants over the decade (72%) were non-Jamaican, and would have entered as labour immigrants admitted on the basis of work permits or CSME Skill Certificates in the case of CARICOM nationals (Figure 24).

Over the 10-year period (2007–2016), of the total number of 125,297 immigrants, 41 per cent were non-nationals (referred to as aliens), and the second largest group being Commonwealth citizens, which accounted for 31 per cent of the total. As indicated above, this was in contrast with the pattern to the previous decade (2000–2010) when Commonwealth citizens were predominant, at a total of 36,381. Even though actual numbers increased to 39,126 in the later decade, as a proportion of the total number of immigrants, Commonwealth citizens decreased to 31 per cent. Of the returning nationals, the larger recorded group was the forced returnees (10,190) or deportees (24,916), accounting for 20 per cent of the total immigrants in 2007–2016, and exceeding the voluntary returnees (returning residents) who amounted to a mere 8 per cent of the total number of immigrants to the country over the past 10 years (Figure 24).

Figure 24: Total annual flows of immigrants in Jamaica by category, 2007–2016



Sources: Calculated from PIOJ, ESSJ, 2010–2016; JCF Information Gathering and Storage Unit (IGS) NIB.

Numerical impact of the immigrants

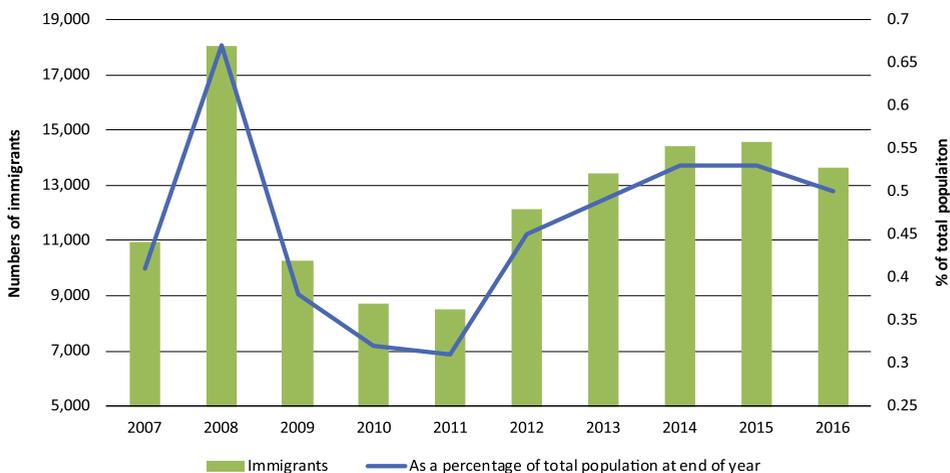
The immigrant flows as a percentage of Jamaica’s total population was at an average of 0.42 per cent per annum for the five years 2007–2011, and 0.5 per cent per annum in the later period, 2012–2016. This reflected the slight increase in the overall numerical effect of immigration in the last 10 years (Figure

26; Annex III – Table A10). As a contribution to the working age population (15–64 years), the immigrant flows accounted for an average of 0.648 per cent per annum for 2007–2011 and an annual average of 0.738 for the later years, 2012–2016.¹⁴ This reflects the trend of a gradually increasing contribution of immigrants to the labour force in recent years.

Contribution of immigrants to the size of the population

It is observed that in the three years following the economic downturn of 2008, there was also a decrease in the number of immigrants that arrived, and an even greater reduction to a mere 0.3 per cent of the national population.

Figure 25: Annual flows of immigrants (total of the four groups) as a percentage of the total population, 2007–2016



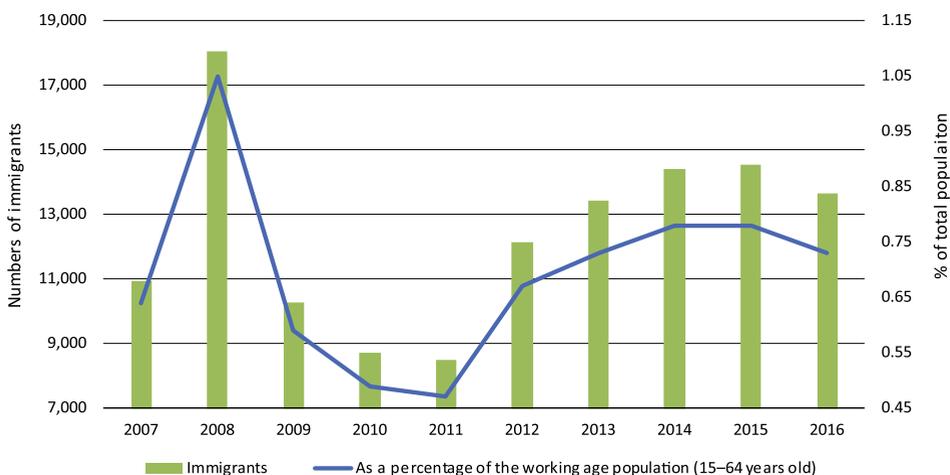
Sources: Calculated from statistics in STATIN, 2011 and PIOJ (ESSJ), 2006–2016.

Contribution of immigrants to the working age population

In 2008, when the total number of arrivals peaked, the immigrants accounted for more than 1.5 per cent of the working age population. Although the contribution to the working age population followed the same trend as for their contribution to the general population, observed above, it is evident that the percentage of immigrants to the working age population was always aligned to, or slightly greater than, the actual numbers of immigrants arriving (Figure 27; Appendix I – Table A10).

¹⁴ The working age population differs from labour force, which consists of persons aged 14 years and over, who are employed and unemployed, looking for work or willing to accept work (PIOJ, 2011).

Figure 26: Immigrants (total of the four groups) as percentage of the working age population, 2007–2016



Sources: Calculated from STATIN, 2011 and PIOJ (ESSJ), 2006–2016.

B.2.2. Returned migrants

As indicated above, return migrants included both voluntary returnees or returning residents and forced returnees or deportees. The trend in the annual flows of both these groups of persons returning to Jamaica was highlighted in the previous section.

Voluntary returnees or returning residents

There were no available data on the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the voluntary returnees. The source of the flows and the changing volumes from the different countries of last residence are outlined below.

Returning residents by country of last residence

In the period 2007–2016, of the total number of returning residents recorded (10,190), 4,975 arrived from the United States, 2,416 from the United Kingdom, half that number (1,293) from Canada and 1,506 from other countries (Figure 27). This contrasts with the earlier decade discussed in the Jamaica Migration and Development Profile 2011 (2000 and 2009), when there was a higher total of 12,261 returning residents recorded, of which most (5,816) had

returned from the United States, second (4,167) from the United Kingdom and third (1, 363) from Canada. There were also 915 from other countries.

Forced returnees or deportees

The scale of the enforced return of Jamaicans to Jamaica became highly significant after 1996 following the passage of the 1996 Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act. This Act made major changes to the deportation regime, reducing appeals and greatly expanding the definition of deportable “aggravated felonies” to include a range of lesser offences. The term “aggravated felony” first appeared in the immigration context in 1988 in the Anti-Drug Abuse Act, where it was limited to murder, drug trafficking and firearms trafficking. This was extended by subsequent legislation and related case law to a much wider range of offences, including violent crimes, theft and immigration-related offences, such as document fraud and perjury. The 1996 Act also amended the definition of “aggravated felony” by, among other things, lowering the fine and sentencing to ensure that every deportable convict was, in fact, deported. As a result, the number of criminal deportees from the United States to the Caribbean each year more than doubled after 1996, and Jamaican nationals were second only to the Dominican Republic in the scale of deportation (Martin-Johnson, 2009).

Jamaicans have also been the most deported Caribbean nationals from the United Kingdom and Canada, for similar reasons as for the United States, namely their high representation in those countries as compared with other Caribbean populations, and their increasing involvement in the transnational drug trade. In the case of the United Kingdom, there were record numbers of deportations of Jamaicans from 2004, due to the implementation of stricter immigration controls and border-management approaches.

The United Kingdom distinguishes three main categories of enforced return to the foreign national’s country of birth: (a) deportation, which refers to those removals deemed “conducive to the public good”, imposed by a court following a conviction for a criminal offence punishable for up to at least 12 months in prison; (b) administrative removals, which relate to those persons who have breached immigration conditions or entered illegally; and (c) voluntary departures, which refer to those cases where individuals who were served with removal orders then had the opportunity to return under the voluntary return scheme.

While numbers of enforced returns from the United Kingdom to Jamaica peaked in 2004–2008, they declined thereafter. It is thought that the main reason for the reduction in criminal deportations was the prevalence of legal challenges in the United Kingdom, brought to the courts by convicted criminals on grounds of human rights, in addition to legacy effects of the 2003 visa implementation.

The scale of the total return from all countries was never more than 0.16 per cent of Jamaica’s population in any one year, but over the years of large-scale deportation, for example since 1996 to 2013, the accumulated number of criminal deportees in Jamaica amounted to around 2.0 per cent of the population (compiled from data obtained from PIOJ and the NIB) (cited in Thomas-Hope, 2014).

Reasons for deportation

Taking the period 2011–2016, the records show that 50.6 per cent of the offences committed were criminal, while 49.4 per cent were primarily of an administrative/immigration nature involving violations such as overstaying beyond the period granted by immigration authorities. After subtracting these immigration offences from the total, it is notable that most criminal offences were drug-related (30.7%), consistent with long-standing trends. Criminal offences included the following: (a) murder/attempted murder/manslaughter; (b) assault/bodily harm; (c) robbery and related offences; (d) possession of firearms/gun trafficking/illegal possession; (e) rape; and (f) use of fraudulent documents. Some 4.1 per cent were recorded as “other” offences (NIB Statistics, 2017).

Demographic characteristics

The forced returnees in the period 2011–2016 were 82.5 per cent male and 17.5 female.

The ages of the forced returnees were fairly evenly spread across all age cohorts with the majority (52%) between ages 26 and 40 years (NIB statistics).

Deportees by country of last residence

The scale of flow from different countries from the year 2000 showed a trend of increasing numbers from the United Kingdom over the years 2002 to 2005, then declining steadily thereafter. In 2003 and 2004, numbers from the United Kingdom were in excess of 1,900 each year, thus exceeding those from the United States for those two years.

In the case of the forced returnees or deportees, of the total arrivals in 2007–2016, 11,013 were from the United States, 4,553 from the United Kingdom, 2,052 from Canada and 5,620 from other countries (Figure 28; Appendix I – Table A15). There were a much larger total number of forced returnees (31,374) in 2000–2009. The United States was at that time the main source (14,967), as in the later period, but at that time, there were larger numbers from the United Kingdom (10,988) than in the later period. There had been a slightly smaller number (1,944) from Canada than in the later period, and a significantly greater number (3,475) from other countries than in the later decade. In 2016, for the first time, there was a significant number (231) persons deported from Trinidad and Tobago. The offences, overall, for which persons were charged were mostly drug-related, of which there were 19. Other offences, which amounted to one to four incidents each, were assault, robbery and possession of an illegal firearm.

Comparing the voluntary and forced returnees for the 10 years overall (2007–2016), the countries of last residence was in both cases the United States; second, the United Kingdom with nearly one quarter of all the voluntary returnees (24%) in the 2007–2016 decade; “other countries” were in combination, third but with a significantly larger percentage (28%) of the total forced returnees by comparison with voluntary returnees, of which 18 per cent were from “other countries”. The countries included in the group “other countries” were chiefly within the Caribbean to which Jamaicans had emigrated in recent years, for example, Antigua and Barbuda, Cayman Islands and Trinidad and Tobago (Figures 28 and 29).

Figure 27: Returning residents by last country of residence, 2007–2016

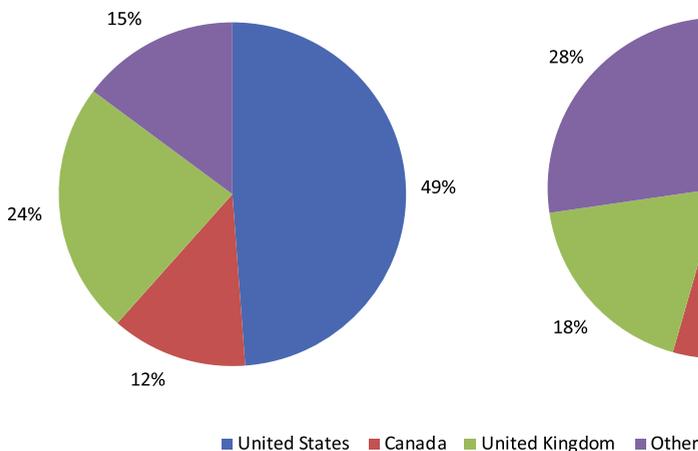
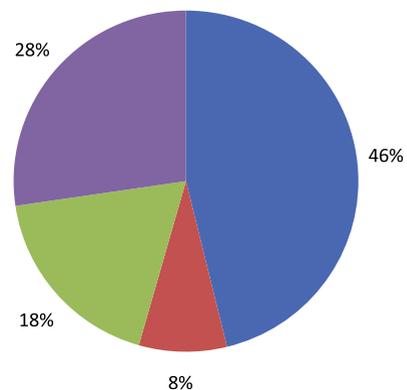


Figure 28: Deportees by last country of residence, 2007–2016



Source: PIOJ (ESSI), 2010–2016.

B.2.3. Labour immigrants

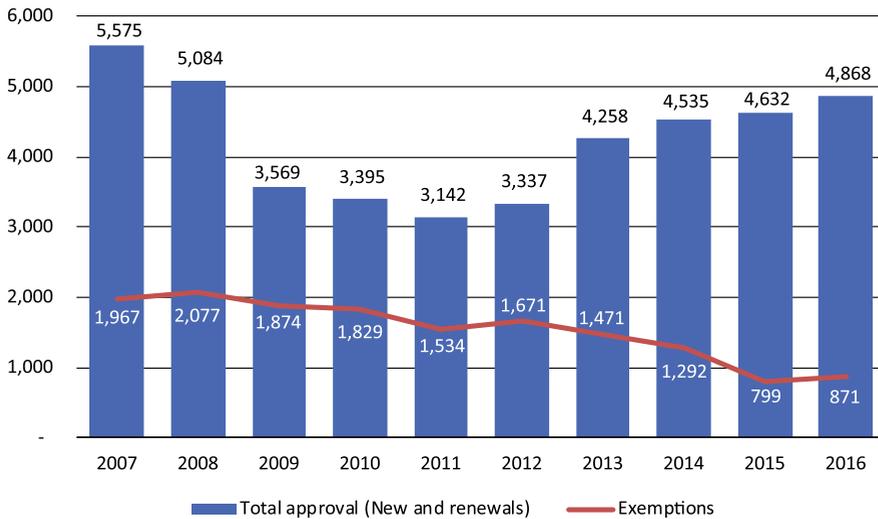
Labour immigrants include both Commonwealth citizens and other foreign nationals.

Trends in the immigration of labour immigrants

The number of labour immigrants that were recorded as having arrived in Jamaica in the 10-year period 2001–2010 was 73,339. In the overlapping but later 10-year period, 2007–2016, the number of labour immigrants had declined by 10,000 to a total of 62,127. The trend in the annual accumulated number of labour immigrants in Jamaica showed a significant increase in the past five years (2012–2016) with a total of 49,117, representing some 5,930 more than in the previous five-year period (Figure 30; Annex III – Table A11).

Between 2007 and 2016, there were 23,608 new applicants for work permits, and 18,540 work permit renewals. Additionally, there were 15,385 work permit exemptions (Annex III – Table A11). It should be noted that the work permit renewals in any particular year did not involve the arrival of the immigrants in that year, since those persons were already in Jamaica on a work permit issued previously. The combined new admissions and renewals represented the labour immigrant stock in each year, not the flow. It is not possible to tell from the data how many of the work permit exemptions were granted to labour immigrants who had been in the country for more than one, and possibly several years. The number of arrivals, or the labour immigrant flow, was indicated by the new applicants, together with an unknown number of new arrivals granted work permit exemptions. Based on these factors, the term “number of labour immigrants in Jamaica” is used in this report as opposed to “the flows of labour immigrants to Jamaica”. The information on annual flows cannot be provided because the exemptions were not disaggregated to indicate new work permit recipients and new exemptions (Figure 29; Annex III – Table A11).

Figure 29: Work permit approvals and exemptions, 2007–2016

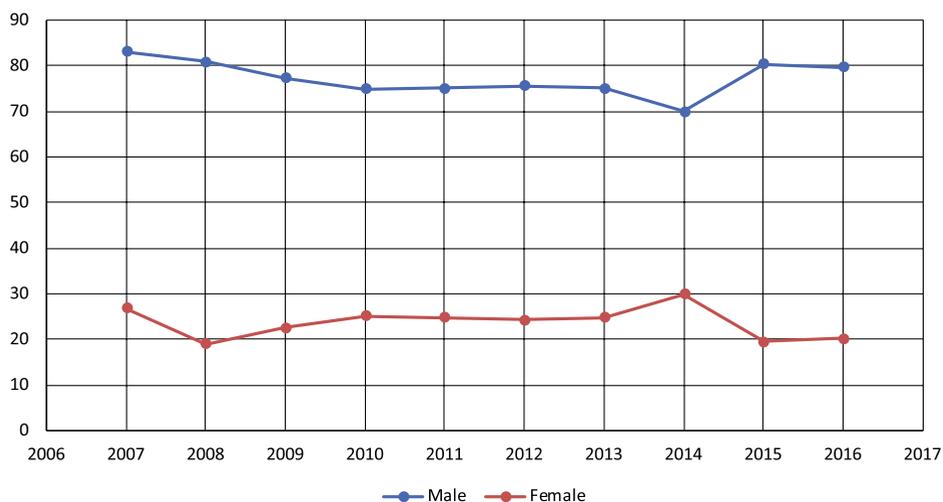


Sources: PIOJ, ESSI, 2010–2016 and MLSS annual performance reports 2014–2015 and 2016–2017.

Demographic profile of labour immigrants in Jamaica

The data on persons granted work permits or work permit exemptions were not disaggregated by age, but the sex of those applicants that were approved was recorded. This showed that over the 2007–2016 decade, males accounted for around 80 per cent of work permits granted in all years and females for 20 per cent, with very slight fluctuation amounting to approximately a 1 to 2 per cent increase in the proportion of females in some years (Figure 30). There were no available data on the ages, educational or occupational characteristics of the labour immigrants.

Figure 30: Work permit approvals by sex, 2007–2016

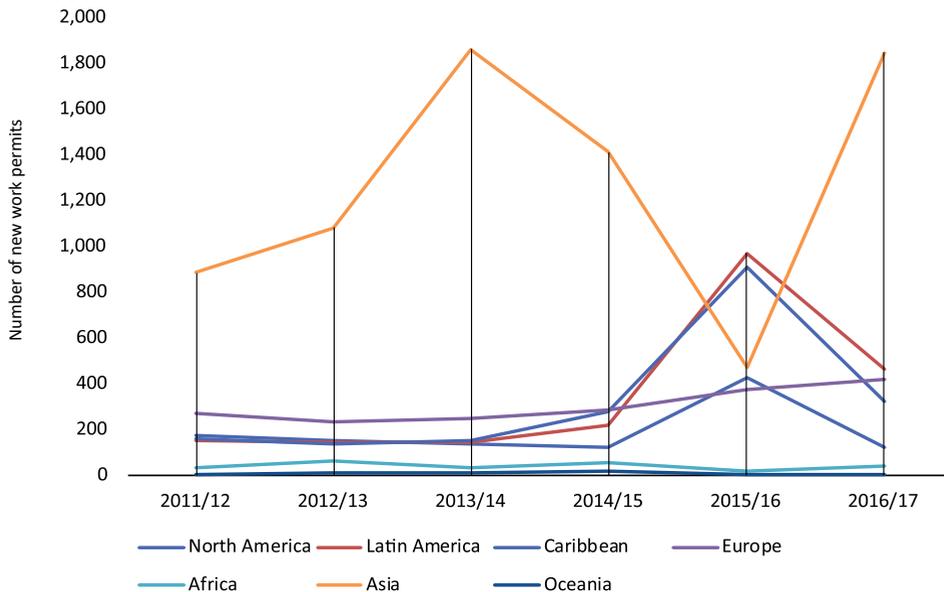


Sources: PIOJ (ESSJ) 2010–2016; MLSS annual performance reports 2014–2015 and 2016–2017.

Source countries of labour immigrants

Annual flows of labour immigrants by country of birth reflected changing relationships between Jamaica and other countries over the years, as migrant workers were employed by national or international companies operating in Jamaica on contract to the Government. Taking the regions from which these immigrants had come, it is evident that the flows from Asia have exceeded those from any other region, and that numbers from the Caribbean and Latin America peaked to 1,000 in 2015/16 and decreased again in the following year to 500 (Figure 31). The predominance of Asia, and especially China, as the source of the largest numbers of labour immigrants was also the case throughout the last decade.

Figure 31: Source regions of new work permit recipients, FY 2011/12–2016/17



Source: STATIN, 2017.

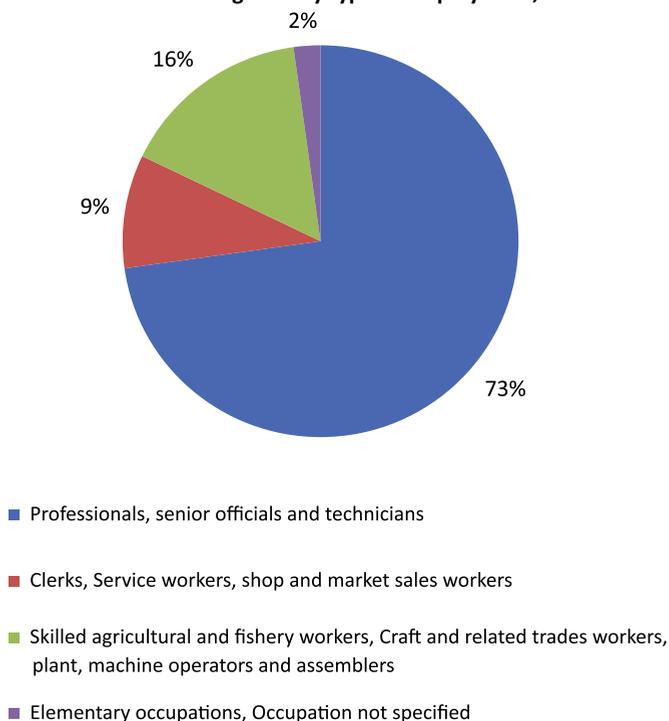
With respect to the immigrants from Asia for the years 2006–2016, those from China (12,659) comprised the largest national group, with around half as many (6,528) from India. The next largest group were from the Dominican Republic (3,179), the United States (2,573) and Mexico (1,367), followed by the United Kingdom (1,142) and Spain (1,008). There were fewer than 1,000 non-CARICOM persons from any other single country over the period (STATIN statistics 2017) (Annex III – Table A12).

Occupations of labour immigrants

The labour immigrants were employed in both the public and private sectors. A large number worked as professionals, senior officials and technicians in Jamaica. They represented a total of 30,895 (73% of the total labour immigrants) compared with 30,692 persons (72% labour immigrants) in the decade 2001–2010. Examination of the occupational profile of labour immigrants in the recent decade (2007–2016) showed a decline in the entry of professionals from 3,064 in 2007, dropping off to less than 3,000 from 2009–2013, and then trending upward to around 4,529 in 2016 – higher than numbers had been in 2007 and before (Annex III – Table A13).

The second largest group of occupations was comprised of skilled workers, craft and related trades, plant, machine operators and assemblers of which there were 6,649, accounting for 16 per cent of the total labour immigrants. The third group of 3,974 labour immigrants was a combination of clerks, service workers, shop and market sales workers, representing 9 per cent of the total of labour immigrants. The remainder were in elementary or non-specified occupations. Since regulations from the Work Permit Act explicitly prohibit the hiring of unskilled labour immigrants in Jamaica, labour immigrants working as service workers, shop and market sales workers or in craft and related trades were probably business entrepreneurs or employees of Caribbean nationals who had established a business and were permitted to bring in some ancillary staff. The residual group of occupations, not specified, contributed to the 2 per cent of the total labour immigrants shown (Figure 32).

Figure 32: Total stocks of labour immigrants by type of employment, 2007–2016

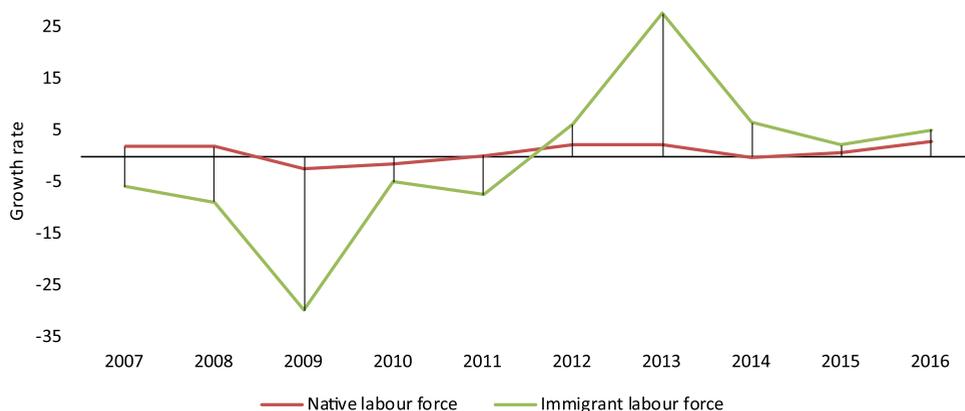


Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2000–2016.

Implications of labour immigration for the Jamaica labour force

The Jamaican labour force grew at an annual average rate of 1.3 per cent over the review period, with males increasing by 1.15 per cent and females at a slightly faster rate of 1.50 per cent. There was a decline in both males and females in the labour force in 2003 and again in 2009 and 2010 when the economy contracted. In relation to the growth in labour immigrants, data disaggregated by sex were only available for persons in receipt of work permits, not for those who obtained exemptions. These data show an annual average growth rate of 3.58 per cent overall, with males increasing at 4.26 per cent per year while females increased at a slower rate of 1.87 per cent per year. Therefore, the number of immigrants holding work permits increased almost three times as fast as the overall labour force in 2013, and males contributed most to this rapid increase. This was followed by a decrease in the total number of work permit approvals in 2014–2016 (Figure 33).

Figure 33: Growth rates of the native and immigrant labour force, 2007–2016



Sources: Compiled and calculated from PIOJ, ESSJ, 2006–2016. 2009 totalling error of 100 is due to rounding in the ESSJ.

B.2.4. Refugees and asylum seekers

The definition of a refugee used in this report is a person who:

... owing to well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinions, 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 (IOM, Terms of Reference for the Migration Profile).

Also based on the definition contained in the terms of reference for the migration profile:

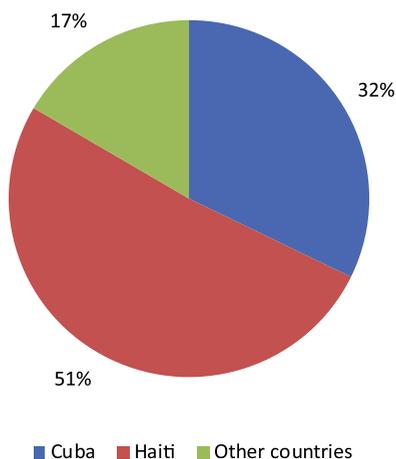
... an asylum seeker is a person seeking to be admitted into a country as refugee and awaiting decision on their application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments. In case of a negative decision, they must leave the country and may be expelled, as may any alien in an irregular situation, unless permission to stay is provided on humanitarian or other related grounds (op.cit.).

The number of foreign nationals having refugee status or seeking asylum in Jamaica is very low when compared to other countries, whether developing or industrialized. According to officials from the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA), applications for asylum and refugee status have been minimal or non-existent for many years. Previously, in the 10 years 2001–2010, Jamaica had received a total of 1,249 refugees and asylum seekers,¹⁵ with only 119 for 2007–2016. This dramatic drop in numbers can be explained by the 543 asylum seekers who had arrived from Rwanda in 2004, escaping the armed conflict, and 421 asylum seekers and refugees that arrived from Haiti in 2005. In the later 10-year period, the largest single group of asylum seekers to Jamaica were 62 persons from Haiti in 2010. In the past five years (2012–2016), the numbers have been negligible, with the largest number being 25 persons from Cuba; and 9 from Syria and the Middle East (Figure 34; Annex III – Table A14).

Detailed information on the refugees, apart from their nationality was not available, but it was noted in the ESSJ (2015) noted that of the five persons applying for refugee status in 2015, 60 per cent were male and 80 per cent were in the 35–39 age group. Statistics from various sources were not always consistent, so must be taken as approximations. For example, it was noted in the 2015 ESSJ that there had been no applications for refugee status in recent years, but the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) recorded a handful of applications from Mexico, Cuba and the Syrian Arab Republic in its database. The UNHCR reported 17 applications in 2016, whereas the ESSJ reported 21. The latter noted that 66.7 per cent of the Cubans applying for asylum that year were male and that no applications were approved.

¹⁵ The Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) were unable to supply specific data regarding refugees/asylum seekers in Jamaica between 2000 and 2010. Information from the Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (2000–2010) was also inconsistent. The most reliable source of data appeared to be the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in Jamaica. Therefore, the data obtained from this office was used.

Figure 34: Annual flows of refugees and asylum seekers in Jamaica, 2006–2015



Source: Data from the Jamaica office of the UNHCR.
(UNHCR) popstats.unhcr.org; *PIOJ/STATIN, ESSJ, 2011–2016.

B.2.5. Foreign students (Postgraduate and PhD)

There are at least three major universities in Jamaica with international recognition offering a variety of postgraduate programmes. These are the University of the West Indies (UWI) (a regional institution supported by the 17 English-speaking countries in the Caribbean), University of Technology, Jamaica (UTECH) and Northern Caribbean University (NCU). There was no information from the NCU concerning foreign students enrolling in their graduate programmes, and it would appear that there were none, or that the numbers were negligible. The annual flows of foreign graduate students enrolling at the UWI, Mona (Jamaica) Campus were substantial, with much smaller numbers enrolling in the UTECH. For the 10 years (2007–2016), a total of 3,984 foreign graduate students were enrolled in UWI and UTECH. Of this number, 3,920 were enrolled at UWI and 64 at UTECH. In the first half of the decade (2007–2011), there were 1,523 foreign students enrolled in the two universities and 2,397 in the second five years (2012–2016), representing a 36 per cent increase. The numbers increased each year from 393 in 2012 to 511 in 2016 (Annex III – Table A15).

There were no data available for age or country of birth, but there was a breakdown of the data by sex. The 2,423 females over the 10 years accounted for 64 per cent of the total and the 1,348 males for 36 per cent (the UWI annual reports published by the Office of Planning and Institutional Research; the

UTECH Office of International Students and the School of Graduate Studies and Research).

The majority of the foreign postgraduate students were from the Caribbean region, especially Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados and Guyana. Since the UWI is comprised of autonomous campuses in three separate countries in the Caribbean, students from the Eastern and Southern Caribbean mainly seek admission at the campus nearest to, or in, their home country. Therefore, students tend only to apply for postgraduate programmes in Jamaica if they are not available on the other two campuses. The percentage of foreign postgraduate students of the total at the Mona Campus fluctuated annually between 5 and 15 per cent.

B.2.6. Naturalization of foreign-born persons

The naturalization of foreign nationals in Jamaica takes between 1 and 24 months, and applies to select groups of immigrants who have met specific criteria.

Data provided by the Immigration Section of the PICA indicated that 1,737 foreign-born persons were granted Jamaican citizenship in the 10-year period of 2006–2015. In the five years 2006–2010, there were 1,493 foreigners granted naturalization as compared with 422 (or less than one third) in the following five years (Figure 35; Annex III – Table A16). Disaggregation by age group, sex and country of origin were not available.

Figure 35: Naturalization of foreign-born persons in Jamaica, 2007–2015



Sources: PICA and PIOJ, ESSJ, 2010 and for 2011–2016, data obtained from PIOJ with regard to receipt of certificates of citizenship data from the Registrar General’s department rather than simple naturalization. These can only be viewed as proxies.

B.2.7. Irregular immigrants

The great majority of migrations in all categories are documented, therefore termed regular, or legal. Nevertheless, there are some immigrations and emigrations that are undocumented and therefore termed irregular or illegal. The *2010 World Migration Report* indicated that between 10 and 15 per cent of this year's estimate of 214 million international migrants may find themselves in an irregular situation (IOM, 2010).

The data on irregular or undocumented migration are, understandably, impossible to generate with any degree of accuracy. There was no information available regarding estimates of irregular immigrants in Jamaica, and they were assessed to be very few in number. This situation may be due to the fact that Jamaica has not apparently experienced any major challenges relating to irregular immigrants. Irregular immigrants to Jamaica include the following: (a) those who enter illegally, for example, on small craft involving short sea crossings, thus evading border controls; (b) those who enter through regular channels but using illegal documents; and (c) those who enter with the correct documents but over-extend the limits of the designated time permitted to stay. As the law now stands, any immigrant who resides in Jamaica beyond the period authorized by the Immigration Section of the PICA is subject to deportation.

B.2.8. Trafficking in persons

As indicated in part A of this Migration Profile, Jamaica is a country of origin, transit and destination of trafficked persons. Most persons who are trafficked between countries are documented and therefore in the host country legally. But arrangements, especially the nature and/or conditions of work and indebtedness incurred involve a combination of deception and exploitation of the trafficked persons and serious denial of their human rights played out through various combinations of legal and illegal practices. The movement constitutes human trafficking if it falls within the definition of trafficking as contained in the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (UN, 2000).

Within Jamaica, the ILO estimated in 2001 that several hundred minors were involved in Jamaica's sex trade. During the period 2007–2015, the OCR reports had indicated that a total of 140 children were alleged to have been victims of trafficking in Jamaica. Preliminary data obtained for 2014 indicated that the most prevalent forms of trafficking cases reported were sex and coerced labour (PIOJ (ESSJ), 2017). Vulnerability to trafficking in this context is not limited

to females. There were also reports of boys as young as 9, mainly those who live and work on the streets in Kingston and Montego Bay, who were trafficked for sexual exploitation by older men (IOM, 2005).

At the demand side of trafficking is the profitability of “sex tourism” and night clubs. In Jamaica, there is the existence of international and local (internal) trafficking for purposes of commercial sex, including the servicing of sex tourism (Williams, 1999). The recruiters were normally Jamaican males between the ages of 30 and 39, having tertiary-level education. Since 2006, the United States State Department Trafficking in Persons Report (TIP Report) noted that males were also being trafficked.

At the supply side, there are a number of factors that condition the relative vulnerability of those groups and communities from which the persons are trafficked. These include: (a) the prevalence of poverty and poor education levels, minimal employment opportunities; (b) weak family structures with early exposure to sexual activities; and (c) in some cases, transactional sex for young persons – usually girls – even involving parental knowledge and implicit or explicit arrangements (see Dunn, 2002, 2009; IOM, 2005; US State Department, 2004). Profiles of victims of trafficking in Jamaica show that most were female, and over 90.0 per cent were from low socioeconomic backgrounds and in the commercial sex and exotic dancing occupational groups (Ricketts and Dunn, 2007). More than 25 per cent of the victims were recruited by or through someone they knew, and over 80 per cent of them were trafficked to work in the commercial sex industry.

Additionally, the environment within which trafficking has taken place included the existence of a high level of impunity based on corruption, lack of knowledge by the wider society and, therefore, tacit tolerance of activities, especially in those communities that are most commonly the supply locations. Furthermore, and perhaps most important of all, has been persons in those communities have not reported cases of trafficking for fear of reprisals (Campbell, 2008). To this effect, Jamaica’s anti-trafficking efforts have coalesced around protection, investigation, prosecution, awareness-raising and training, which is coordinated through the National Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons (NATFATIP) Secretariat.

Jamaica was upgraded from Tier 2 Watchlist to Tier 2 by the US Department of State in 2016. The US Department of State’s *2016 Trafficking in Persons Report* highlighted efforts undertaken by Jamaica to vigorously prosecute, convict and punish traffickers. The government programmes in response to the challenge of trafficking in persons are further discussed in part C of this Migration Profile.

B.3. Emigrants

B.3.1. Introduction to emigrants

Definitions and types of emigrants

IOM defines a migrant as any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from his/her habitual place of residence, regardless of the following: (a) the person's legal status, thus whether the international move is documented or undocumented; (b) whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; (c) whatever the causes for the movement; or (d) whatever the length of the stay.¹⁶ The duration of stay at the destination country can be short term, long term or permanent. Therefore, by definition, an emigrant is a person who is living in a country other than his or her country of birth and emigration, the act of departing or exiting from one country with a view to settling in another. The fact of living in another country distinguishes the migrant from the tourist or visitor. In this Migration Profile, the temporary labour migrants are included because of the scale and significance of this movement in Jamaica.

The general emigration trend

As discussed in part A of this report, migration is integral to Jamaica and the Caribbean in general, and the trend since the mid-twentieth century has consistently been that of an excess of emigrants over immigrants in each successive year.

Since emigration is linked to socioeconomic and educational opportunities in receiving countries, able-bodied and skilled persons (15–64 years old) are more represented in the emigration flows than the very young or the elderly. Emigration from Jamaica has also tended to be disproportionately selective of the more highly skilled and educated.

There is an absence of data on the flows of emigrants with specific qualifications or professional skills from Jamaica to countries outside the region. Based on the 2000 Population Census, the number of tertiary-educated Jamaican-born emigrants in the OECD countries in was recorded at 85,100 (World Bank, n.d.). This was estimated to represent 48.1 per cent calculated as the number of tertiary educated in the OECD countries as a percentage of the total tertiary

¹⁶ See www.iom.int/who-is-a-migrant

educated in Jamaica (World Bank, n.d.). Calculations of the extent to which these numbers compared with the stock of tertiary educated in Jamaica have varied significantly (Docquier and Marfouk, 2005; Mishra, 2006; Knight, Williams and Kerr, 2009). The variation was principally on account of the differences in definition of what constitutes tertiary education (Knight, Williams and Kerr, 2009). Recent calculations were that Jamaica was ranked fifth worldwide of tertiary-educated emigration, with the number in OECD countries amounting to 48.1 per cent of the total tertiary educated in Jamaica (World Bank, n.d.). This is not a measure of the percentage of Jamaicans who had obtained tertiary-level education at the time of emigrating, and many would have obtained further qualifications after their migration abroad. Nevertheless, the numbers living abroad gave an indication of the high level of emigration of educated and/or professionals that has occurred. Student migrants who remained at their destinations became part of the cohort of highly skilled Caribbean nationals residing in OECD countries.

It is known that the emigration of teachers and health professionals made a significant impact on the Jamaican human capacity since the 1990s, leaving major gaps or deficiencies in the labour market. In the mid-1990s, teachers were recruited for employment in primary and secondary schools in cities of the United States and the United Kingdom with concentrations of urban centres with high concentrations of Caribbean populations (Morgan, Sives and Appleton, 2006). Nurses were also recruited in Jamaica and throughout the English-speaking Caribbean, by private institutions in Canada and the United States. The Caribbean Commission on Health and Development Report (CARICOM, 2005) stated that there were 2,256 registered nurses in the sector, while the vacancy rate was 58.3 per cent (cited in Mortley, 2009). This study also highlighted the role of replacement through immigration where the foreign nurses in Jamaica who, at the time of the research reflected in the 2009 studies, amounted to 91 persons from 7 countries, with the majority being from Nigeria and Cuba. In the case of the health sector, the extent of losses reflected in the job vacancies recorded was mainly of doctors and nurses. But the gaps in the health system due to emigration also included pharmacists, radiologists and medical laboratory technologists.

In terms of the current situation, the Jamaica Ministry of Health (MoH) statistics illustrated the nature of the challenge (Table 5). In some specialized areas of nursing, as for example in the area of public health, there is a 74 per cent gap between staffing needs and the number of available staff. There was a 70.7 per cent shortfall of nurse anaesthetists, and 68.1 per cent for psychiatry. For many other specializations, there are significant shortfalls in staffing with an estimated 54 per cent overall shortage overall.

Table 5: Nursing staffing needs and availability, 2016

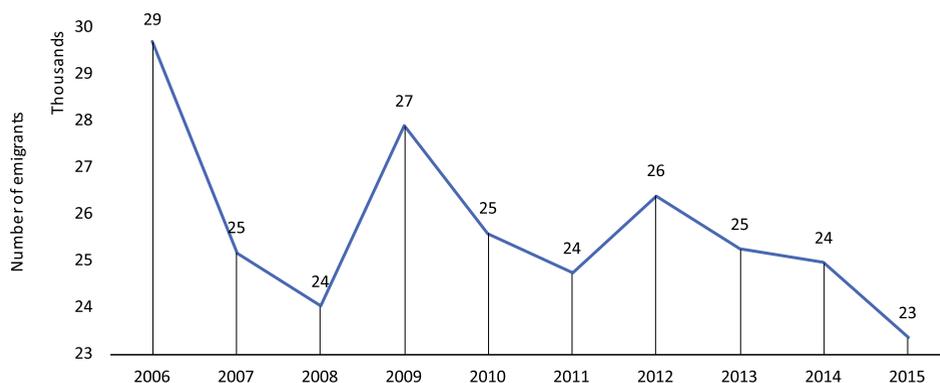
Specialization	Number available	Basic staffing needs	Gap	Percentage of total
Critical care	134	240	106	55.8
Neonatology	48	128	80	37.5
Paediatrics	45	156	111	28.8
Nephrology	49	105	56	46.7
Emergency room	137	250	113	54.8
Psychiatry	128	188	60	68.1
Oncology	3	35	32	8.6
Nurse anaesthetist	53	75	22	70.7
Public health nurse	185	250	65	74
Family health nurse practitioner	51	110	59	46.4
Mental health nurse practitioner	26	50	24	52
Total	859	1,587	728	54.1

Source: Ministry of Health, 2017.

B.3.2. Jamaica’s main emigration corridors

Extraregional corridors of movement from Jamaica at the present time are mainly to the United States, Canada and, to less extent, the United Kingdom. Additionally, there are intraregional corridors chiefly to Trinidad and Tobago and to Antigua and Barbuda, Cayman Islands, the Bahamas, Sint Maarten (Dutch part of the island), Bermuda and Curacao. Taking the decade 2006–2015, there was an overall trend of decreasing numbers of emigrants from Jamaica to the three traditional and still major destinations, the United States, United Kingdom and Canada (Figure 36).

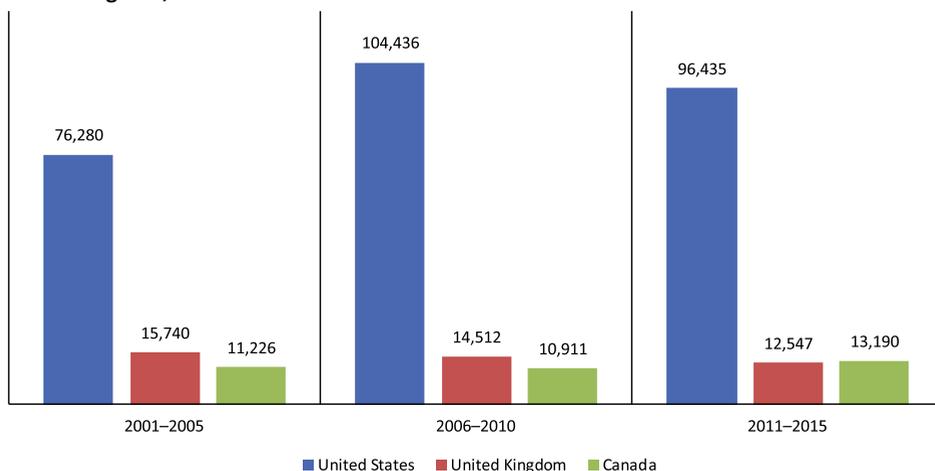
Figure 36: Annual flow of Jamaican emigrants to the United States, United Kingdom and Canada, 2006–2015



Sources: PIOJ (ESSJ) 2016, referring to persons granted permanent resident status in the United States and Canada; United States, Yearbooks 2010, 2011 and 2015.

The year 2006 was one of exceptionally high emigration in excess of 29,000, of which almost 25,000 went to the United States. By the beginning of the twenty-first century, the migration to the United Kingdom was very small and continued to decrease gradually through to 2015. The United Kingdom was no longer a major emigration destination by 2000 (and not since the 1960s). The small numbers of emigrants going there from Jamaica declined even further in each five-year period since 2001. The emigration to Canada was also of relatively small numbers, but there was a slight increase over recent years as shown by the five-year totals from 2000 to 2015 (Figure 37; Appendix I – Table A17).

Figure 37: Total five-year flows of Jamaican emigrants to the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom, 2001–2015



Sources: Calculated from data from PIOJ, (ESSJ) 2016, referring to persons granted permanent resident status in the United States and Canada; United States, Yearbooks 2010, 2011, and 2015.

Jamaica to United States corridor

In the United States, the duration for which migrants are granted entry fall into two broad categories of admission: (a) as permanent; or (b) as temporary/non-immigrant. Within these two categories, there are a number of variations in both the duration of stay permitted, and the purpose for which entry was granted.

Class of admission

Permanent legal residence

Permanent legal residence in the United States is granted to emigrants on the basis of visas issued according to the specific Class of Admission (Table 6). A large proportion of the Jamaicans admitted as immigrants in the United States in recent years were not granted admission to the country on the basis of their entering the workforce (even though most persons did so after their admission procedure was complete). Family-related admissions accounted for more than 95 per cent of the total admissions over the 10 years (2006–2015). This included immediate relatives of US citizens together with other family-sponsored persons. Entry on the basis of employment preferences accounted for a mere 2.6 per cent of the total admissions for persons residing in the United States in 2006–2015. This strongly testifies to the strength of the family network already residing abroad in becoming the conduit, if not the main reason, for subsequent emigration. This will perpetuate the movement if ever this class of admission continues.

Additionally, most of the persons granted permanent legal admission initially entered the United States in the category of non-immigrant and later applied for permanent status. Many persons returned to the Caribbean at the end of the time permitted by their non-immigrant visa status and re-enter the United States, some even annually. Additionally, there are also an unknown number of persons who stay illegally beyond the permitted period.

Table 6: Numbers of persons with Jamaica as country of last residence obtaining legal permanent resident status in the United States by broad class of admission (fiscal years 2006–2015)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Family-sponsored preferences	6,064	4,988	5,780	4,833	5,386	6,074	5,818	6,095	6,281	5,344
Employment-based preferences	796	732	697	593	562	602	589	679	599	578
Immediate relatives to US citizens	17,622	1,602	11,937	16,290	13,781	12,882	14,193	12,510	11,826	11,296
Refugee and asylum seekers	d	12	15	24	d	6	57	64	48	63
Diversity programmes	d	d	4	6	d	d	3	d	0	3
Other	31	41	34	37	96	58	45	52	50	78
Total	24,538	19,375	18,477	21,783	19,825	19,622	20,705	19,400	18,804	17,362

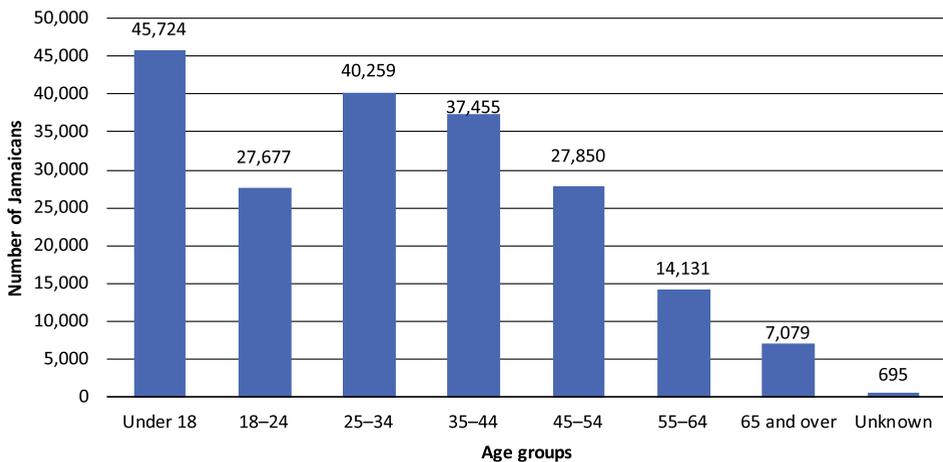
Source: US Homeland Security, 2006–2016.

Note: d refers to disclosure standards not being met. Any discrepancies are from figures provided by Homeland Security.

Demographic characteristics of the emigrants

The age and sex profile of Jamaican migrants to the United States demonstrated the predominance of persons of working age, and the particularly high level of emigration of persons under the age of 18 (Figure 38; Annex III – Table A17). This underlies the high proportion loss of working age persons from Jamaica’s workforce potential. The age group under 18 accounted for almost 23 per cent of the emigrants to the United States. The adults in the 25–45 age cohort, in their main working years, accounted for nearly 40 per cent of the emigrants.

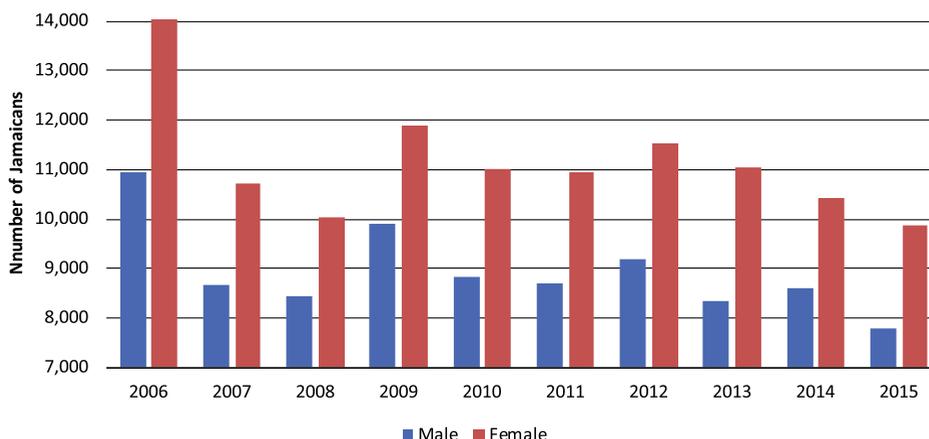
Figure 38: Emigration of Jamaicans to the United States by age group, 2006–2015



Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ various years, US Department of Homeland Security (DHS) statistics 2013–2015.

The distribution of emigrants to the United States by sex showed a consistent majority of females over males among the permanent emigrants each year in the decade 2006–2015. This would be accounted for by the preponderance of females in clerical and service occupations that accounted for a large proportion of the emigrants to the United States (Figure 39).

Figure 39: Emigration of Jamaicans to the United States by sex, 2006–2015



Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ various years, DHS statistics 2013–2015.¹⁷

Education of the emigrants

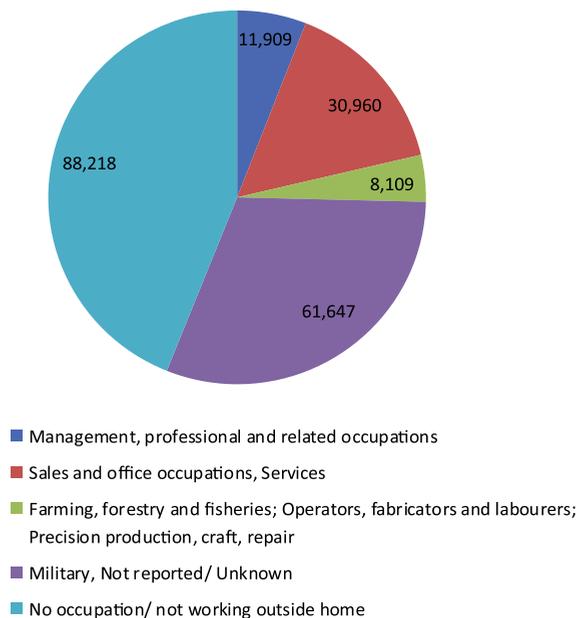
On average, Caribbean migrants to the United States had a relatively high level of education. In 2012, of the total number of Jamaicans aged 15 and over, only 7 per cent had no more than a primary education, 47 per cent secondary (of whom some would later go for additional education/training), and 45 per cent tertiary (This may be compared with the Mexican migrants to the United States in 2000, which constituted a much larger migration stream than for Jamaicans, but of which 48% had primary education, 38% secondary and only 14% tertiary) (US Department of Homeland Security, 2012). The large number under 18 years highlights the pattern of youth and student emigration, a movement that produces the future high proportion of Jamaicans living abroad, who are highly educated, many at the tertiary level.

Occupations of the emigrants

The largest number of Jamaican permanent emigrants to the United States are in a category referred to as not having an occupation. This includes students at various stages of education, underlining the extent of emigration of children and young persons. The second largest group includes those with unknown occupations, followed by sales and service workers. Managers and other professionals accounted for a relatively small proportion of the total emigrant flows between 2006 and 2015 (Figure 40; Annex III – Table A19).

¹⁷ See www.dhs.gov website.

Figure 40: Jamaican emigrants to the United States by occupational status, 2006–2015



Source: ESSJ various years, DHS statistics 2013–2015 from www.dhs.gov website.

Non-immigrant (temporary) admissions

Non-immigrant (temporary) admissions of Jamaican nationals to the United States were greatly in excess of numbers granted permanent legal immigrant status in any year. These non-immigrant admissions included students admitted for the duration of their study programme, as well as visitors and for stay of up to six-months. However, the numbers are greatly inflated by the fact that the numbers of admission represent counts of events, that is arrivals, not unique individuals. Multiple entries of an individual are recorded separately unless they occur on the same day, in which case they are counted as one admission. Therefore, the total of nearly 4.5 million (4,453,473) Jamaicans admitted to the United States from 2006 to 2015 as non-immigrants represents multiple entries to, and transit through, the United States by many of the same individuals. This gives an indication of the extent of movement of Jamaicans to the United States, but is in no way an indication of the level of emigration.

Jamaica to Canada corridor

The information gathered online from Statistics Canada (STATCAN) refers to a breakdown of immigrants as to country of origin. STATCAN defines an

immigrant as a person who is, or who has ever been, a landed immigrant or permanent resident. Such a person has been granted the right to live in Canada permanently by immigration authorities. Immigrants who have obtained Canadian citizenship by naturalization are included in this group. Period of immigration refers to the period since the immigrant first obtained landed immigrant or permanent resident status. The majority of Caribbean migrants to Canada from 1996 were from Jamaica (followed by Haiti, Guyana, and Trinidad and Tobago).

Overall Jamaican migrant stock in Canada

Preliminary figures from the 2016 census show that 309,485 persons were identified as Jamaican when asked about ethnic origin (this included first, second and third generation) (Consultation with the Information Officer at STATCAN, 6 November 2017). There were 138,345 persons who were Jamaican-born (first generation migrant stock) in Canada. Some 119,840 of these immigrants lived in Ontario. Of the 51,425 persons who migrated to Canada before 1980, 44,605 remained in Ontario. The duration of time since the Jamaicans recorded in the 2016 Census had lived in Canada shows that most had arrived there before and during the 1990s.

Education of the Jamaican migrant stock in Canada

In Canada, the educational level of Jamaican emigrants was comparable to the overall population. While 27.5 per cent of Caribbean immigrants to the country (age 15 and over) had less than a secondary school education, over 31 per cent of Canada's total population had only this basic level of education. At the other end of the educational spectrum, whereas 12 per cent of the Caribbean population had a university degree, 15 per cent of the total population had such a qualification (STATCAN, 2016).

Jamaican emigrant flows to Canada, 2006–2015

A total of some 12,500 Jamaican nationals migrated to Canada over the decade 2006–2016; whereas the total number was 23,705 in 2001–2010 (around 40% more than the later period) (STATCAN). There is small increase in volume of flow in the first part of the recent decade (2006–2010), and the second five years (2011–2015) is shown in Figure 37.

Category of admission to Canada for permanent residence

The class of admission for the Jamaicans who were granted permanent residence status in 2016 showed that of the provisional total of 86,920, the great majority, (3%) were sponsored by family. The second largest (22%) was economic migrants under worker programmes (see Table 7).

Table 7: Category of admission of Jamaicans for permanent residence in Canada in 2016*

Reason for permanent residence status	Number of persons	Percentage of the total
Economic migrants under worker programmes	19,035	22.1
Economic migrants under business programmes	160	0.2
Economic migrants under provincial and territorial nominee programmes	2,030	2.3
Sponsored by family	63,685	73.0
Through refugee status	1,095	1.3
“Other”	915	1.1

Source: STATCAN 2016 Census.

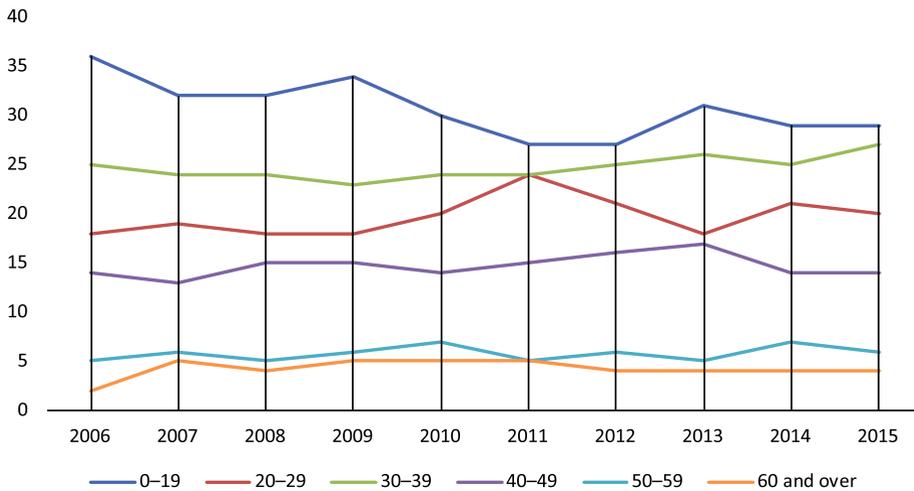
Note: * Figures provisional.

Jamaican emigration to Canada by age group and sex

There are significant differences by age group and year. A large number of the migrants were children and young persons in their formative years. More than 20 per cent of Jamaicans who migrated to Canada fell into the 0–19 age group, while there was a slight decrease in the emigration of the age 20 and over cohorts (Figure 41; Annex III – Table A20). The large numbers in the 19 years and underage group indicates the numbers of students entering, whether with families or on their own.

Females were a majority among the permanent emigrants to Canada, with males accounting for 47.6 per cent of the total from 2010 to 2015, and females accounting for 52.4 per cent.

Figure 41: Jamaican emigration to Canada, by age group, 2006–2015

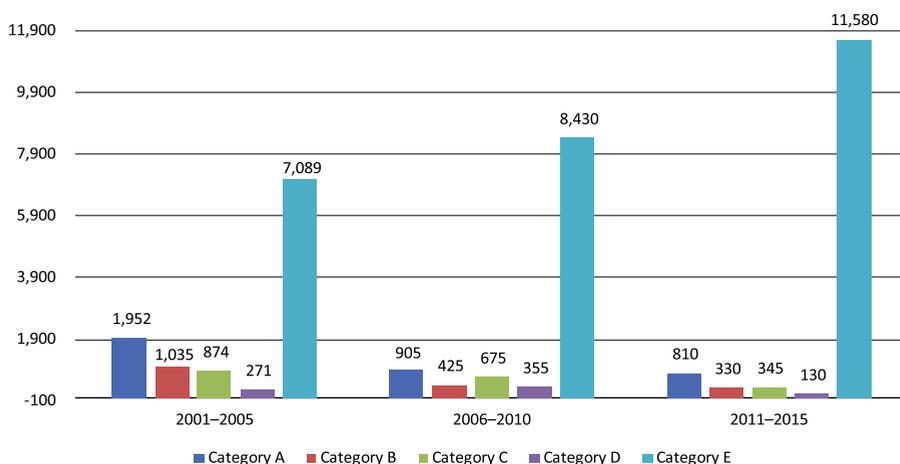


Source: STATCAN, 2016.

Occupations of the emigrants

Though total numbers were down from 23,705 in the five-year period of 2001–2005 to 12,500 in 2011–2016, nevertheless, there was an overwhelming predominance of professionals among the emigrants to Canada, and this showed an upward trend over successive years. In the 10 years from 2007 to 2015, 72 per cent of persons admitted to permanent status had no occupation, indicating that they were students and other persons not working. The next largest group in terms of percentage of the total (7%) were in professional and senior technical occupational categories (Figure 42; Appendix III – Table A21).

Figure 42: Jamaican emigrants to Canada by occupational status, by five-year periods, 2001–2015



Source: STATCAN, 2016.

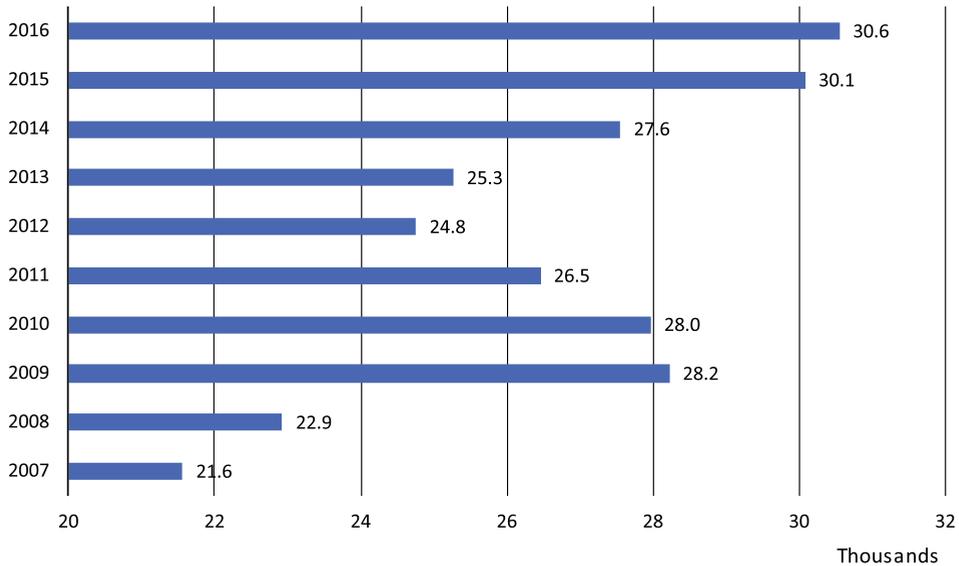
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Category	Type of occupation
A	Professionals, senior officials and technicians
B	Clerks, service workers, shop and market sales workers
C	Skilled agricultural, fishery, craft and related trades workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers
D	Elementary occupations, Unknown
E	Not in the labour force, students, retirees

Jamaica to the United Kingdom corridor

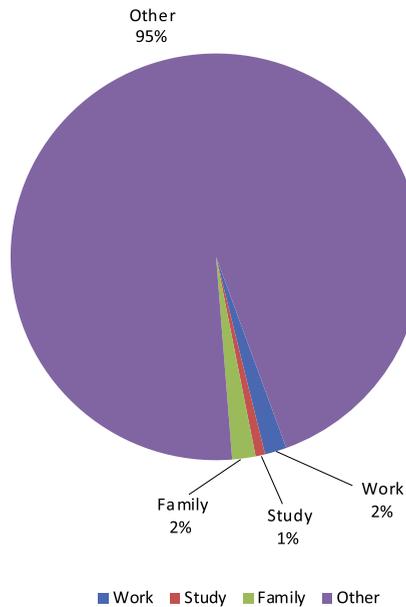
The volume of flow from Jamaica to the United Kingdom has demonstrated a new trend of annual increases, rising from 21,600 in 2007 to 30,600 10 years later in 2016. However, over the 10 years from 2007 to 2016, of the total 265,600, only 1.7 per cent were admitted for the purpose of work and 0.7 per cent for study. The number admitted in the category “family” and “other”, which accounted for 97.6 per cent of the total entries for 2016, suggests that they were of short duration for tourism or family visits and not for residence (Figure 43; Annex III – Table A22). The numbers that could be termed “migrants” were a mere 6,550 over the 10 years (Figure 44).

Figure 43: Jamaican entries to the United Kingdom by year, 2007–2016



Source: UK Government Statistics published on 24 August 2017.

Figure 44: Jamaicans entering the United Kingdom by purpose of journey, total for 2007–2016



Source: UK Government Statistics published on 24 August 2017.

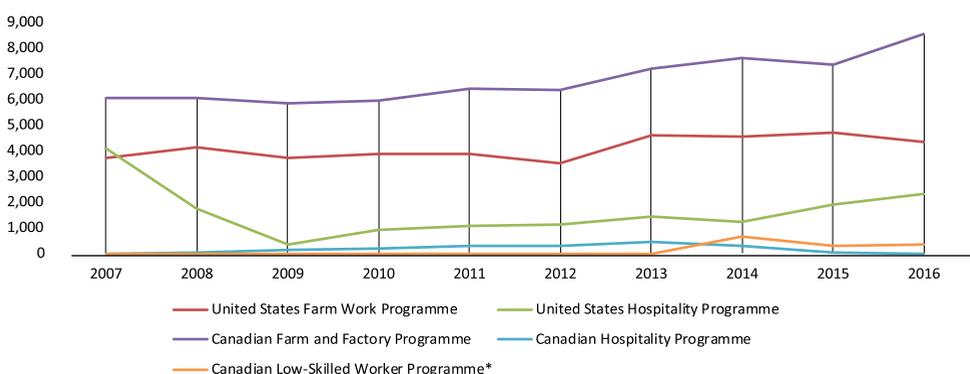
B.3.3. Temporary labour migration

As indicated in part A of this Migration Profile, there are four major programmes administered by the Government of Jamaica on bilaterally agreed terms with the governments of the United States and Canada respectively. These are as follows: (a) United States Farm Work Programme; (b) United States Hospitality Programme; (c) Canadian Farm and Factory Programme; and (d) Canadian Low-Skilled Worker Programme.

In the United States, Jamaicans are the second-largest group of migrants (after Mexicans) entering the United States on both the H-2A programme for seasonal agricultural workers and the H-2B programme for seasonal non-agricultural workers. It is worth noting that Jamaicans' share of the total has consistently shrunk in recent years. In 2009, the 7,849 Jamaicans in these programmes made up about 4 per cent of the total, while the 18,918 Jamaicans in 2007 had comprised 8 per cent of all such workers. By 2013, there were 4,627 and in 2015, the numbers were up slightly to 4,702.

In Canada, by comparison, the number of Jamaican migrants entering under the Temporary Foreign Workers Programme (TFWP) has actually risen in recent years and an additional category of workers to include the Canadian Skills Programme (such as carpenters, masons and heavy-duty vehicle drivers) came into effect in 2014. In December 2009, there were 7,316 Jamaicans in Canada as foreign workers, an increase of 9 per cent over the previous year's total of 6,667 (Figure 45).

Figure 45: Jamaicans employed in North America under the Overseas Work Programme by sex and type of employment, 2007–2016



Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ 2006–2016; MLSS Annual Report 2014–2015.

Overall, during financial year 2014/2015, there were 14,286 persons employed through the Overseas Workers Programmes. Of this total, 1,053 were new recruits (81 for the Skilled Programme and 972 for the Farm Workers Programme). There was an increase of 178 jobs, moving from 14,108 in 2013/2014 to 14,286 in 2014/2015.

As shown in Figure 45, the largest numbers of overseas workers were engaged in the Canadian Farm and Factory Programme. Males accounted for the largest group of workers in this programme, with a total of 7,452 or 52.2 per cent. In the United States Farm Work Programme, male workers (4,464) were 31.2 per cent of the total. Although females were not employed on the United States Farm Work Programme, they comprised 56.2 per cent of the number of workers employed to the Hotel Programme and 4.1 per cent of the Canadian Farms/Factories Programme.

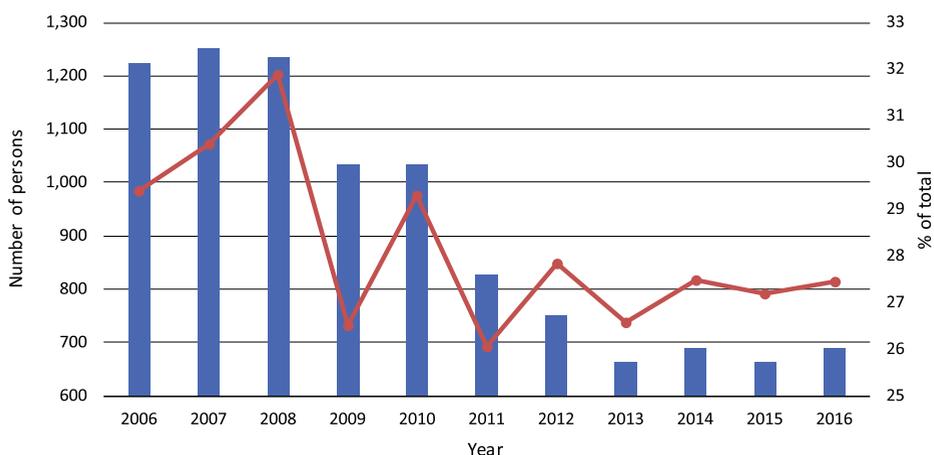
Additionally, in financial years 2013/2014 to 2014/2015, approximately 2,500 Jamaicans were placed in employment overseas through private employment agencies monitored by the MLSS. This brought the total of persons placed in employment overseas through the MLSS and private employment operators monitored by the Ministry to 16,786 (op.cit.).

B.3.4. Students abroad (Postgraduate)

Many Jamaicans were pursuing postgraduate degrees abroad, especially in the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom. There is no accurate estimation of their annual flow by age and sex. There were no data available for undergraduate students abroad.

In the case of the United States, the trend over the first part of the last decade showed a gradual reduction in numbers each year, moving from 1,251 in 2007 to 689 in 2016. As a percentage of the total number of postgraduate students in Jamaica, there was a slight decrease from 30.4 per cent at the beginning of the 10 years going to 27.45 per cent in both years respectively. This situation compares unfavourably with the preceding six-year period; for although numbers of Jamaican postgraduate students in the United States increased, in proportion to those in Jamaica, they were each year less than 25 per cent (Figure 46; Annex III – Table A23).

Figure 46: Number of Jamaican postgraduate students in the United States, 2006–2016



Source: Institute of International Education Open Doors, 2001–2010.

Although there were no data available on the number of postgraduates who went to Canada over the past decade, the overall percentage of Jamaicans (72%) admitted who were not working and which included students, as indicated above, highlighted the importance of this group among the overall migrants. Likewise, as stated with regard to the Jamaicans who went to the United Kingdom over the 2007–2016 period, there were 1,190 admitted for the purpose of study.

B.3.5. Refugees and asylum seekers from Jamaica abroad

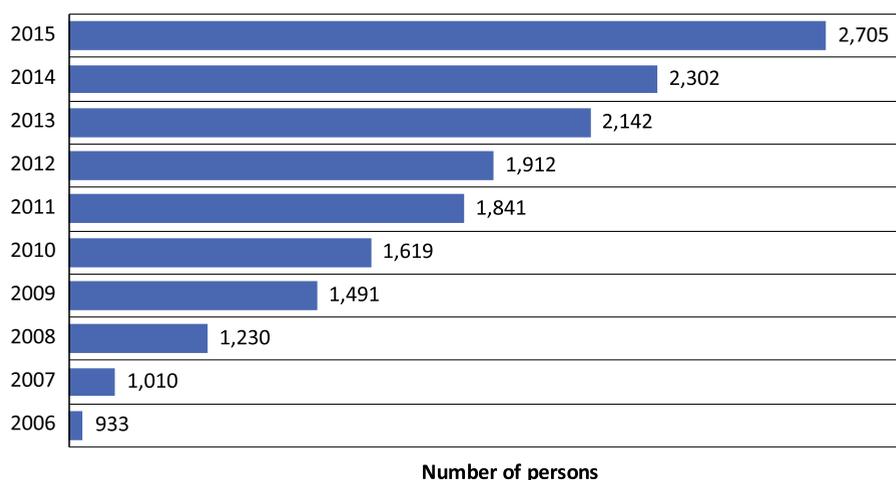
Reports of the UNHCR made reference to a small group of Jamaicans that have been categorized as refugees and asylum seekers in foreign countries. Where the applications for asylum were pending, the UNHCR considered the applicants as persons of concern.

The reporting system was modified from 2006 to produce two categories – refugees and asylum seekers – rather than one category, as in the previous years. The number of Jamaicans in the situation of asylum seekers becoming refugees has been on the increase, but many of the applications have been denied. For example, in 2009, the UNHCR noted that 386 Jamaican applications for asylum status were rejected as they did not fulfil the criteria for refugee status. The data did not provide further information regarding the countries or governments to which applications were made.

Some data were obtained with regard to Jamaicans seeking asylum in the United States, which showed a trend of increasing numbers from 2007 (Figure 47). Data were also supplied for other foreign nationals who entered the United States from Jamaica as country of last residence. The data did not include country of birth for these persons. Unlike Haiti and Guyana, Jamaica was not one of the top 25 countries with a large number of refugee applicants in Canada.

The total number of persons from Jamaica seeking asylum and refugee status abroad has increased markedly over the past 10 years, from 993 in 2006 to 2,705 in 2015 (Figure 47). The majority of these persons (660) were in fact granted refugee status in 2006, rising each year to 1,868 in 2016. Overall, refugees numbered a total of 1,1940 for the 10-year period of 2006–2015. These numbers were considerably greater than for the previous decade (2001–2010). Further, the increased trend in numbers occurred since 2010–2015.

Figure 47: Annual flows of Jamaican refugees and asylum seekers abroad



Source: UNHCR, Statistical Yearbook, 2006–2014 and Global Trends – Forced Displacement (2015 publication).

B.4. Diaspora

Definition

The Jamaican diaspora is defined as the collective of long-term emigrants and their descendants, who are currently residing abroad. The IOM definition is: migrants and their descendants who live outside of their country of birth or ancestry on a temporary or permanent basis. Data for this subsection were

drawn from the MFAFT, the World Bank and IOM in its *World Migration Reports*. Additionally, some of Jamaica's diplomatic missions have provided estimates of the stock of the Jamaican diaspora for specific geographical locations.

Estimated size and distribution of the first generation of Jamaican-born emigrants

Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011, published by the World Bank, provided an estimate of the stock of the Jamaican emigrants abroad as 985,500 persons in 2010. This represented 36.1 per cent of the national population. This is not greatly dissimilar from the estimated figure of 949,000 Jamaican emigrants worldwide in 2000, reported by the *2010 World Migration Report* (IOM, 2010). This figure appears to be too conservative, as:

- In the United States as there were an estimated 637,000 Jamaican-born persons in the United States in 2008 (Glennie and Chappell, 2010). Data provided by the MFAFT through the Jamaican Consular Services in Miami estimated that there may be between 500,000 and 600,000 Jamaicans in the South-East United States alone.
- In Canada, the 2016 Census (STATCAN) recorded that the number of persons who reported Jamaica as place of birth was 138,345.
- In the United Kingdom, there was an estimated 142,000–150,000 for the year July 2010 and June 2011 (data from the United Kingdom's Office for National Statistics (ONS), 2013). The United Kingdom Census 2011 recorded 143,000. By contrast, a report commissioned by IOM in 2007 reported an estimate of over 340,000 Jamaican-born persons in the United Kingdom based on a previous study conducted by the ONS (IOM, 2007).
- In the Caribbean, there were also smaller numbers of Jamaican emigrants residing in several countries. The approximate size of the Jamaican-born populations residing (as opposed to temporary) in:
 - Cayman Islands where around 9,493 Jamaican-born persons are residing (as opposed to a total of 16,000 including those on a temporary basis (MFAFT, 2017d);
 - Trinidad and Tobago where 1,466 were recorded in the 2011 Census (Trinidad and Tobago Census Demographic Reports, 2009; 2012). This accounted for 5.4 per cent of the non-national population and was the first time that Jamaicans had become evident in the Trinidad and Tobago Census (Thomas-Hope, 2014).

- In other countries, there were small numbers of Jamaicans in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Panama, Germany and Australia. In the Middle East, there were an estimated 366 Jamaican nationals residing in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries based on their database. These include Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and Saudi Arabia (MFAFT, 2017c).

Based on these figures, together with other countries in which Jamaicans reside, there were an estimated 1,233,144 Jamaican-born persons living abroad.

Jamaican-born emigrants and descendants

The Jamaican diaspora is comprised of the initial Jamaican-born emigrants, together with the subsequent generations of foreign-born persons. The new generations, in particular, have varying levels of affinity to Jamaica and identification with the Jamaican community in their country of residence.

As indicated above, the Jamaican diaspora is concentrated in the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom.

The United States

Taking the first and subsequent generations together, there is an estimated 1.2 million Jamaicans in the United States. The main areas of residence were in the north-east, including New Jersey, New York, Maryland and Connecticut, as well as in Georgia (focused on Atlanta) and Florida, especially in Florida's south, centred around Fort Lauderdale and Miami. The Jamaican Consulate in Miami suggested that there may be between 500,000 and 600,000 Jamaicans in the south-east of the United States. The rest of the United States, including the Midwest and West, is estimated at 150,000 (information provided by the MFAFT, November 2017).

Canada

Estimates for the total size of the diaspora in Canada was 309,485 in 2011, with about 87 per cent of these persons living in Ontario Province (STATCAN, 2011). Alberta, Quebec and British Columbia were locations of the second, third and fourth largest concentrations of Jamaicans and descendants.

In 2016, Canada conducted a census of its population reverting to the use of the “long” form, which meant more information was gathered on the composition of the immigrant population that now comprises 7.5 million persons or nearly 20 per cent of the population of Canada (STATCAN, 2016).

The United Kingdom

The size of the United Kingdom diaspora was estimated to be 650,000, with most of these persons living in London and Birmingham and other locations in the Midlands, for example, in Manchester, Nottingham and Wolverhampton (UK Population Census reports).

Estimated size of the total Jamaican diaspora

The total size of the diaspora estimated by Ying (2014) was 3 million. This was calculated on the basis of 1,700,000 in the United States, 800,000 in Canada, 300,000 in the United Kingdom and 200,000 in other countries of the world. This would be more than the total population in Jamaica itself (2,730,900 in 2016), under 2.8 million.

The number of second generation “Jamaicans” in Australia, Europe and the United States (2012) was calculated as 444,600 (World Bank, 2016). Adding this to the 1,233,144 estimated Jamaica-born foreign residents, the first and second generations would total 1,677,744. To this number would be added an unknown number of third and some fourth generation who regard themselves as part of the Jamaican community.

Summary of the Jamaican overseas community

- The Jamaican-born population residing abroad is approximately 45 per cent of the number in Jamaica in 2016 (population of 1,233,144 abroad to 2,730,900 in Jamaica).
- The total diaspora in relation to the population of Jamaica is at least 73 per cent of the size of the population in Jamaica.
- The Jamaican diaspora is heavily concentrated in three main countries: the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom.
- There are also smaller numbers of Jamaican emigrants residing in several Caribbean countries, such as the Cayman Islands, the Netherlands Antilles, Antigua and Barbuda, the Bahamas, Trinidad and Tobago, Curacao and other Caribbean countries.
- In addition, there are small numbers of Jamaicans in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Panama, Germany, Australia and the Gulf States.

Characteristics of the diaspora

There were no accessible demographic data for the stock of migrants in all destination countries abroad. In the main countries of the diaspora – the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom – the age profile of first-generation emigrants has been progressively ageing as many have remained abroad. At the same time, new migrants who are youthful and of working ages have been added each year. The age profile of the Jamaicans in each destination country will therefore reflect the length of time that the community of migrants has been there. The second and third generations born at the various destinations maintain a youthful profile of the diaspora as a whole.

Although details of the age profile of the diaspora at each of the country destination were not available, as previously indicated (part B.3.1), there were a significant number of Jamaican-born tertiary-educated persons residing abroad, estimated to be 48.1 per cent of the total tertiary educated in Jamaica in 2010/2011. To this would be added an unknown number of highly educated foreign-born second and third generation Jamaicans.

Relationship between Jamaica and its diaspora

Jamaicans abroad relate to their homeland in a number of ways through voluntarism, sending of remittances to support family, contributions to health and welfare in specific communities, purchasing Jamaican food and participating in the marketing of Jamaican culture, particularly music. There has also been a growing number of Jamaicans residing abroad who return to Jamaica for vacations. The flows of non-resident tourists for the 10-year period 2006–2015 show the gradually increasing numbers annually (Table 8).

Table 8: Annual flows of tourists visiting Jamaica, 2006–2015

Years	Foreign nationals	Non-resident Jamaicans	Total stopovers
2006	1,578,207	100,698	1,678,905
2007	1,573,267	127,518	1,700,785
2008	1,623,675	143,596	1,767,271
2009	1,683,846	147,251	1,831,097
2010	1,768,810	152,868	1,921,678
2011	1,800,280	151,472	1,951,752
2012	1,832,329	153,756	1,986,085
2013	1,860,935	147,474	2,008,409
2014	1,929,454	150,727	2,080,181
2015	1,973,217	149,825	2,123,042
Total	25,185,432	1,973,387	27,158,511

Source: Jamaica Tourist Board, Annual Travel Statistics, 2006–2015.

The close affinity maintained with Jamaica has been the bedrock on which the Government of Jamaica has been able to build a Diaspora Policy in order to consolidate the engagement and maximize involvement for mutual benefit. From the Jamaican side, the Government of Jamaica has developed a policy for diasporic engagement and increasing the role of diaspora in development strategies. The policy aims to facilitate and encourage a symbiotic and mutually beneficial relationship between Jamaica and its diaspora. It also aims to provide the institutional and policy framework for mainstreaming the Jamaican diaspora in development, and in so doing providing the framework for addressing some of the key issues and concerns that will affect willingness and ability to contribute to Jamaica. Ying (2014) indicates that the objective of the policy is to engage the diaspora in three main ways:

- (a) Develop the diaspora in the host country;
- (b) Involve the diaspora in homeland development; and
- (c) Build partnership and interaction between the diaspora and institutions in Jamaica.

Further discussion on the contribution of the diaspora to Jamaica is discussed in part B.6 of this Migration Profile, which focuses on the consequences of migration, including the consequences of the diaspora for Jamaica's development. Government organizational structures and programmes of engagement with the diaspora are discussed in part C, which addresses the policy framework relating to migration and development in Jamaica.

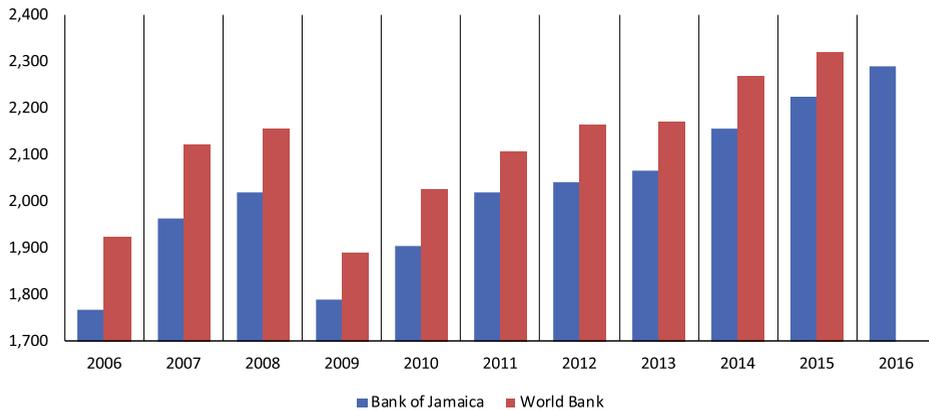
B.5. Remittances from nationals living abroad

Within the context of this report, remittances are defined as money earned or acquired by nationals that is transferred back to their country of origin.

Volume of remittances flows

The World Bank estimates for remittance flows to Jamaica are even higher than those of the BOJ. However, the overall trend is the same in both data sets, and shows a consistent annual increase since 2009. It is noted that remittances were high in 2008, the year of the economic crash, but dipped in the following year, suggesting that Jamaicans in the diaspora were not financially able to sustain previous levels of sending money home. Despite the global economic recession, by 2016, the amount recorded by the BOJ was estimated as USD 2,292 million, representing an increase of USD 327.2 million over the USD 19.64 million remitted 10 years previously, in 2007 (Figure 48).

Figure 48: Estimates of annual flows of remittances to Jamaica, USD million, 2006–2016



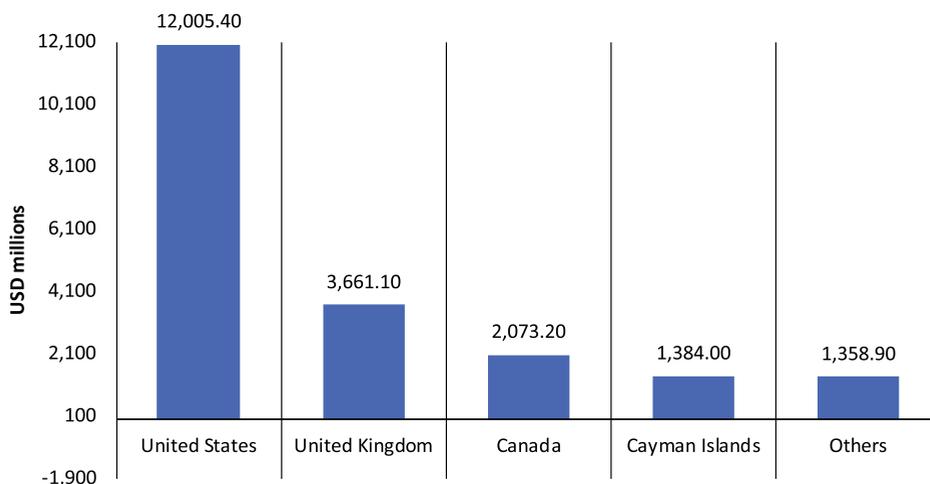
Sources: BOJ, Remittance Reports, 2008-2011; World Bank, Migration and Remittances Factbook, 2011.

The data on remittances do not include the informal monetary inflows that are personally delivered or sent by friends/family or transacted through personal arrangements. Further, the BOJ data on remittances did not include pensions or social security emoluments from the country of last residence if they were not sent through the international money transfer companies, nor the outward monetary flows to emigrants abroad, for example to students.

Source countries of remittances

The United States was the source of 56.8 per cent of the remittances received in Jamaica over the 10-year period 2007–2016. This was followed by the United Kingdom, from which 23.3 per cent of the total remittances was sent, Canada from which 7 per cent was sent and the Cayman Islands, from which 7.4 per cent of the remittances originated and 5.5 per cent from other countries. The share of remittance inflows by source country is also an indication of the locational concentration of the long-term Jamaican emigrants (Figure 49).

Figure 49: Estimates of annual flows of remittances by source country, in USD millions, 2007–2016



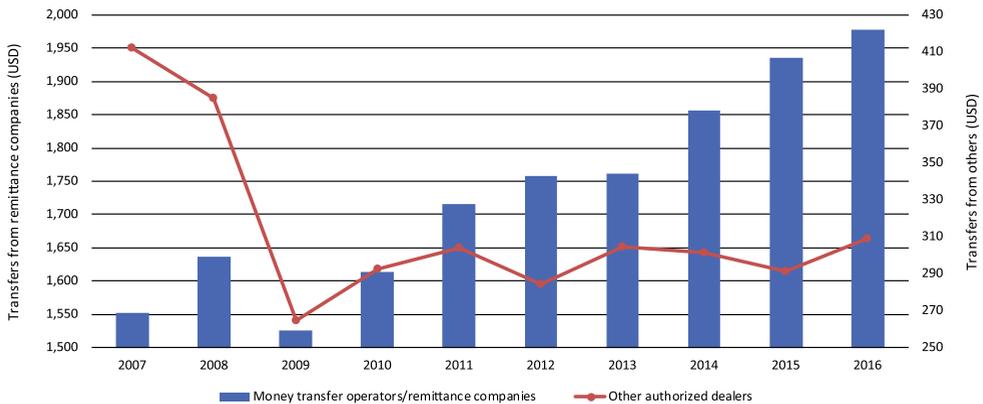
Sources: BOJ, Remittance Reports, 2008–2017; World Bank, 2016 Migration and Remittances Factbook, 2011 and 2016.

In that remittance inflows to Jamaica has so far remained relatively stable throughout the global economic downturn, this confirms the view that sending remittances to relatives is seen by emigrants to be a moral obligation, which intensifies during periods of hardship rather than a response to economic and investment opportunities. However, the size and regularity of remittance flows are dependent on the continuing size and commitment of first-generation Jamaicans residing abroad.

Means of remittance transfer

Remittance companies or money transfer operators are the main channels through which remittances are sent to Jamaica. Most international remittance companies use the services of local banks and credit unions to increase access to their customers. Since 2009, building societies such as the Jamaica National Building Society (JNBS) (now Jamaica National Bank (JNB)) and Victoria Mutual Building Society (VMBS) were granted licences to operate as money transfer operators or remittance companies. The BOJ merged remittance inflows transferred through the building societies into the category called “remittance companies”. More than 80 per cent of remittances were sent through formal channels during the period under review, and were transferred through remittance companies (Figure 50).

Figure 50: Means of transfer of remittances, in USD million, 2007–2016



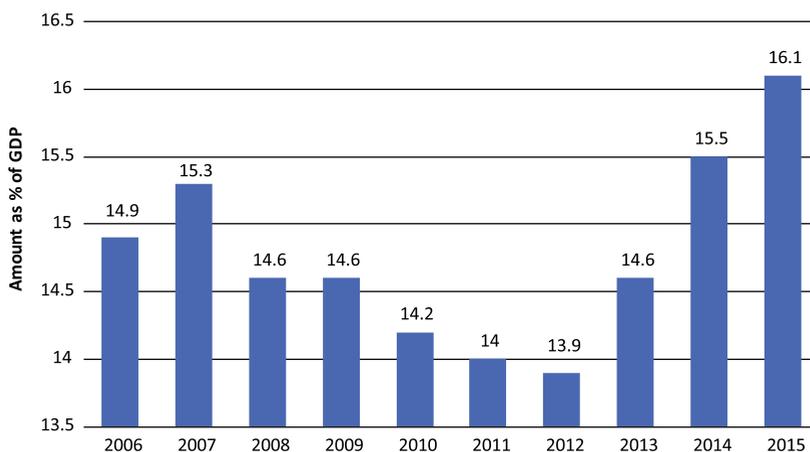
Sources: BOJ, Remittance Reports, (November 2008, November 2009, November 2010, November 2011, September 2015, April 2017). For 2016 figures, statistical table 45 on Bank of Jamaica website was used. * From 2009, the BOJ introduced a new policy requiring building societies to operate as money transfer operators or remittance companies.

A study conducted in 2007 found that 35 per cent of remittances from the United Kingdom were sent to Jamaica through JNBS, 29 per cent through MoneyGram and 21 per cent through Western Union. A further study conducted in 2008 in Jamaica and based on a survey of a national representative sample revealed that more than 70 per cent of remittances passed through Western Union (cited in Thomas-Hope et al., 2009). This may result from trust and accessibility to Western Union offices in both source and destination countries, rather than loyalty and cheaper fees. Although some building societies, MoneyGram and other authorized dealers offered cheaper fees than Western Union, most of these companies have had very small networks in the remittance source countries, while Western Union remained the most popular and accessible money transfer operator around the world.

Remittances in the national economy

A means of appreciating the implications of remittance inflows in the national context is to measure its contribution to the GDP. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), Jamaica is among the top countries in terms of receipt of remittances from its diaspora (IMF, 2011). Remittance inflows contributed some 14 per cent to the national GDP in each year over the 10 years between 2006 and 2015, and was 15.5 and 16.1 per cent in 2014 and 2015 respectively (BOJ, 2017a) (Figure 51).

Figure 51: Remittances as a percentage of the GDP, 2006–2015



Sources: BOJ, Remittance Reports, 2008–2016.

Other indications of the scale of remittances in relation to macroeconomy are the figures for remittances in relation to tourist expenditures, which were 90.3 per cent in 2016. Remittances to exports was 191.8 in 2016; remittances to foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows was 289.8 in 2016; and remittances to imports in 2016 was 47.9 (Table 9).

Table 9: Remittances in relation to Jamaica’s macroeconomic indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	2014	2015	2016
Remittance/Population (USD)	793.0	818.4	839.4
Remittances/GDP	15.5	15.9	16.3
Remittances/Tourist expenditure	95.6	92.7	90.3
Remittances/Exports	148.9	177.4	191.8
Remittances/FDI inflows	233.2	240.7	289.8
Remittances/Imports	36.5	43.9	47.9

Source: www.boj.org.jm/uploads/pdf/rem_updates/rem_updates_apr2017.pdf

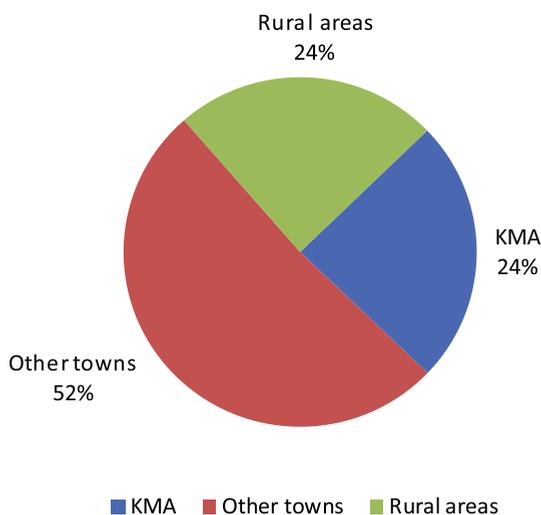
Distribution of remittances

Despite the huge scale of remittance flows in relation to Jamaica’s economic indicators, there was a noticeably uneven distribution of households receiving remittances both by geographical location in terms of rural versus urban, and by economic status.

Remittances receipt by rural–urban location

Slightly more households in other towns received remittances as opposed to those living in KMA and rural areas. Just under a quarter (24%) of remittances were received by households in KMA and, similarly, in rural areas. Just over a half (52%) went to households in towns other than the KMA (Figure 52). In Jamaica, more female-headed households (52.2%) received remittances than male-headed households (39.2%) in 2009 (STATIN, JSLC, 2014).

Figure 52: Remittances receipts by rural–urban location

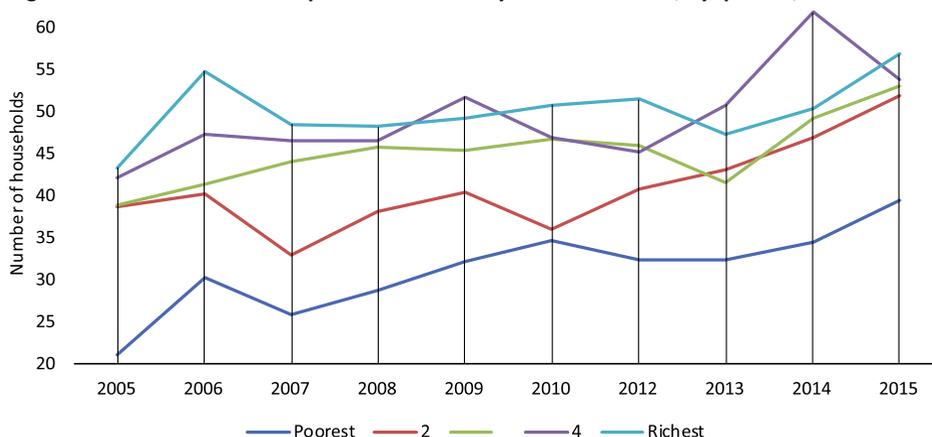


Source: STATIN, JSLC, 2014.

Distribution of remittance receipts by economic status of household

As expected, a larger percentage of households from the upper economic brackets received remittances as compared to the other households, especially the poorest. The poorest households received the least remittances but more frequently than the other quintiles, as they were dependent on remittances to meet their daily needs. Indeed, remittances were the only source of income for many households, especially the poorest and the elderly (Thomas-Hope et.al., 2009). Households in the poorest quintile of the population received the least remittances over the 2005–2015 period (Figure 54).

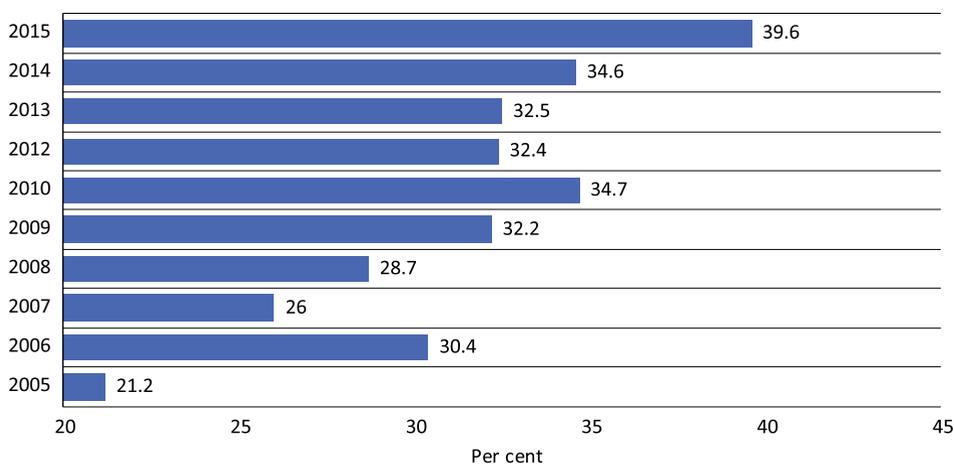
Figure 53: Households in receipt of remittances by economic status, by quintile, 2005–2015



Source: STATIN, Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions (JSLC), 2015.

In 2005, only 21.2 per cent of households in the poorest quintile were in receipt of remittances, whereas more than 40 per cent of the 50–60 per cent of the richest households was. The situation for the poorest quintile improved considerably from 2006, and by 2015, almost 40 per cent of the poorest quintile were in receipt of remittances (Figure 54). This could be explained by the increase in numbers of unskilled workers participating in the Government of Jamaica’s Overseas Work Programmes (OWP), which have increased the opportunity of employment through short-term labour migration among the low skilled.

Figure 54: Proportion of households in the poorest quintile in receipt of remittances, 2005–2015

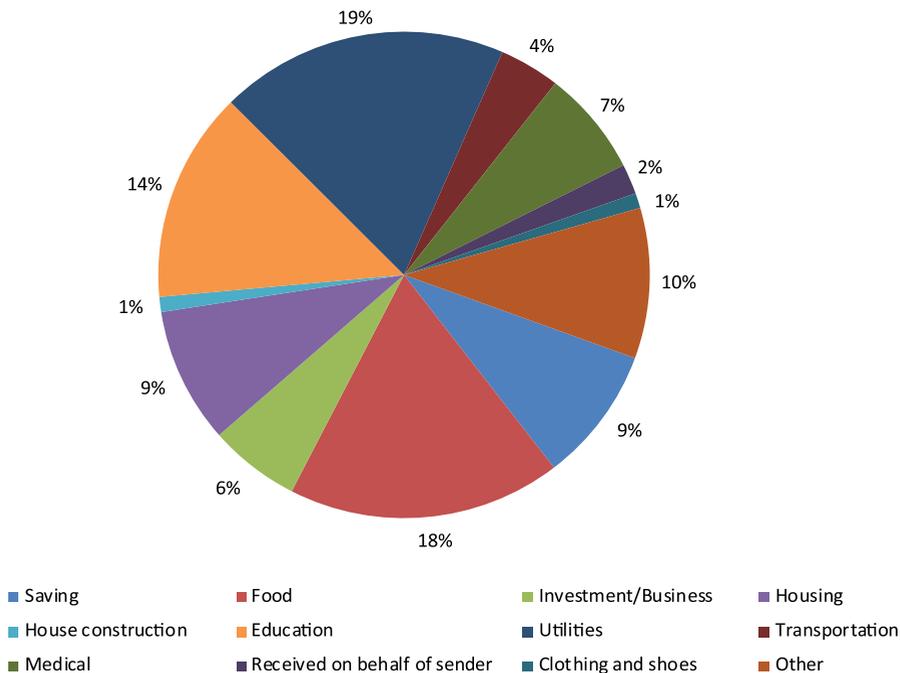


Source: STATIN, JSLC, 2015.

Usage of remittances

The chief uses of remittances received for the year 2011 were food, utilities and housing, which accounted for more than 40 per cent of the money received. Education came third in the hierarchical structure of household use of remittances. Investment/business and savings accounted for 15 per cent, which may be a significant trend in the pursuit of self-reliance in the future. Money received on behalf of the sender may also link to investment and saving. There have been no further studies on the uses to which remittances were put since 2009 (op.cit) and Ramocan (2011). It would seem that there has been no significant change in the pattern observed before (Figure 56). Although there has been no further information on the use of remittances since those studies were completed in 2009 and 2011, it appears from the data available to the BOJ that there has been no significant change in the pattern of remittances usage as recorded in 2011 (BOJ, 2017a).

Figure 55: Usage of remittances



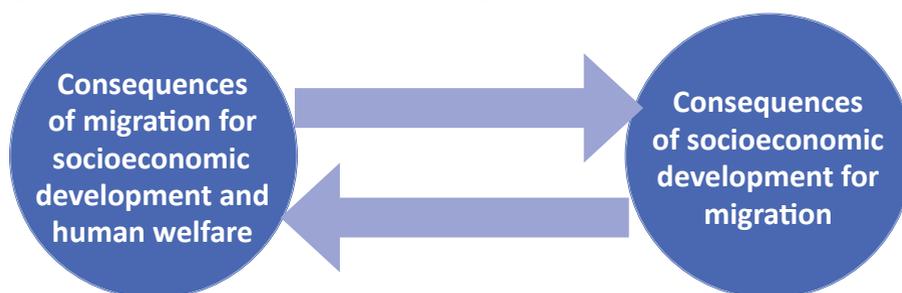
Source: Ramocan, 2011.

B.6. Migration trends and their consequences for socioeconomic and human development

B.6.1. Introduction – Framework for analysis

The characteristics of Jamaica’s migration patterns and trends and the profile of the migrants are indicative of the socioeconomic, political and cultural characteristics and international linkages of the past and the present time. At the same time, migration influences the nature of societal change by affecting the economic, social, political, cultural and demographic characteristics of the society (Figure 56). Guided by the IOM template for the Migration Profile, the focus here is on the latter aspect of the relationship between migration and development, namely the consequences of migration for economic and human development. Nevertheless, one has to be cognizant of the fact that both are linked in an interactive cycle of cause and consequence.

Figure 56: Model of the relationship between migration and development



Isolating the impacts of migration is methodologically challenging, in at least four ways:

- (a) The first challenge is to attempt to disaggregate the effects of migration from other influences, including key structural and historical events, such as colonialism and the non-migration aspects of globalization.
- (b) The second challenge is to unravel causality. Is migration impacting on the economic and social variables we are interested in, or is it them that are impacting on migration? For example, if a relationship between household wealth and migration is found, it is difficult to know to what extent the household is wealthier because they have a migrant member, or if the household member was able to move because their household had the assets that allowed them to migrate.

- (c) Analysis is complicated by the fact that some of the characteristics that are distinguishing features of migrants – such as a drive to create a better life – and the benefits of the international experience in the enhancement of livelihood chances cannot be observed in data sets.
- (d) This makes understanding of the extent to which migration is the cause of outcomes difficult. It could be that migrants are successful because of migration, or it could be that their drive and ambition caused them to migrate, but would have also made them successful wherever they were living.
- (e) Many impacts of migration reveal themselves over different time periods, with some taking a long time to appear. This can only be undertaken by means of longitudinal studies and for this, data referring to long time periods is required.

B.6.2. Socioeconomic and human development

What constitutes socioeconomic and human development, and the measures whereby they are to be assessed, are important in determining the frame of analysis within which this issue should be addressed. One set of international standards that have been devised for assessing measures of development are the Millennium Development Goals. A second bar has been set by the UNDP's Human Development classification of high development, medium high development, medium development and low development, based on the Human Development Index, which combines a wide range of economic and social indicators. Both these sets of underlying concepts of development are reflected in the targets set out in Vision 2030 and are articulated by the National Working Group on International Migration and Development (NWGIMD) with respect to the Government's objectives for Jamaica.

The primary factors that are negatively affecting human welfare in Jamaica (low economic growth and high national debt, leading to lack of sustainable livelihoods and employment opportunities, lack of basic infrastructure and social services, high levels of crime) coincide with the areas in which migrants can contribute to the development of the country. Furthermore, to promote human development and welfare, institutions of various kinds can contribute through protection of migrants. Migration will improve the welfare of the individuals and households involved, but the challenge is whether improvements at the micro scale can be substantial enough that they stimulate sectorial economic growth and employment opportunities, and improvements in health, education and social services at the intermediary level of scale, as well as the macro conditions relating to the institutional and structural framework necessary for development.

The scope of the issues that constitute development is extensive, with implications at different levels of scale – the micro to the macro levels, and in different time frames, from the short term and medium, to the long term. For the purpose of this discussion, three specific questions that have been the subject of concern in the context of migration are highlighted: How has international migration affected: (a) the welfare of migrants; (b) their households and families; and (c) how has international migration contributed to national social and economic improvement in Jamaica? These questions pertaining to the consequences of migration for development and human welfare will be assessed with reference to the thematic areas of concern in terms of migration and development, as highlighted by the NWGIMD, as follows:

- (a) Data, Research and Information Systems;
- (b) Public Order, Safety and Security;
- (c) Return, Integration and Reintegration;
- (d) Labour Mobility and Development, Human Rights;
- (e) Social Protection and Family;
- (f) Diaspora and Development; and
- (g) Remittances and Development.

Additionally, and as cross-cutting themes, are Gender and Policy Coherence.

B.6.3. Major trends in migration, 2007–2016

Based on the evidence indicated in parts B.2–5, the main characteristics of the current trends and patterns of migration for Jamaica are summarized below.

Immigration

Labour immigration of foreign-born nationals

The trend in the immigration of foreign nationals reflects the need for replacement labour in a range of high-level professional and technical skills.

- The immigrant stock (foreign-born persons) recorded in the Population Census for Jamaica, 2011 was 23,477, which accounted for 0.87 per cent of the total population, a decrease from the 25,230 foreign-born persons in the 2001 Census, or approximately 1 per cent of the overall population (STATIN, 2005). The countries of birth of the foreign-born population in Jamaica in 2013 showed that most of those who had arrived before 1980

were from countries of Europe, followed by CARICOM States. There was then a dramatic shift in the source of immigrants after 2000, with the largest numbers arriving from North America and an increase in those from Asian countries. Since 2011, the trend in immigration from Asia has continued.

- Of the total number of 125,297 immigrant flows (2007–2016), 41 per cent were non-nationals other than Commonwealth citizens (aliens). This was due to the continued trend in immigration from China. This was in contrast to the pattern in the previous decade (2000–2010) when Commonwealth citizens were dominant with a total of 36,381. Even though actual numbers increased to 39,126 in the later decade, Commonwealth citizens decreased to 31 per cent of the total number of immigrants arriving.
- A large number of labour immigrants worked as professionals, senior officials and technicians in Jamaica. They represented a total of 30,895 (73% of the total labour immigrants) in 2007–2016, almost the same as the 30,692 persons and 72 per cent of work permits approved by the MLSS in 2001–2010. The remaining labour immigrants were employed as service workers in shop and market sales (3,598), craft and related trades (6,410) and plant and machine operations and assemblies (1,130). The immigrants were employed by both the public and private sectors (op.cit.).

Return migration of Jamaican nationals/residents

A trend of declining numbers of voluntary returnees

- There was a decrease in the number of returning residents that arrived in the 2007–2016 decade than in the previous years. In the later period, 2007–2016, of the total returning residents, 4,975 were arriving from the United States, 2,416 from the United Kingdom and half that number (1,293) from Canada. In the previous decade, of the 12,261 returning residents recorded, 5,816 returned from the United States and 4,167 from the United Kingdom between 2000 and 2009.

Increasing numbers of enforced returns of emigrants

- In 2007–2016, deportees accounted for 20 per cent of the total. Although declining in proportion to other groups, nevertheless, they still exceeded the voluntary returnees (returning residents) who amounted to only 8 per cent of the total number of immigrants to the country over the past 10 years.

Emigration

Permanent emigration from Jamaica

- There was an overall trend of decreasing numbers of persons from Jamaica who became permanent emigrants over the 2006–2015 decade. Numbers of emigrants awarded permanent status in the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom trended downwards from around 29,000 in 2006 to less than 23,000 in 2015.

Professionals and highly skilled among the permanent emigrants

- There was a continuing pattern of increased numbers of highly skilled and professional emigrants. There are a large percentage of tertiary-educated persons in the diaspora.
- The number of tertiary-educated Jamaican-born emigrants in the OECD countries in the 2000 Population Censuses was recorded as 85,100.
- Jamaica was ranked fifth worldwide of tertiary-educated emigration rate in 2011, with a tertiary emigration rate calculated at 48.1 per cent, calculated as the number of tertiary educated in the OECD countries as a percentage of the total tertiary educated in Jamaica.
- There were some unregistered agencies involved in the recruitment for tertiary education and employment.
- The age and sex profile of Jamaican migrants to the United States demonstrated the predominance of persons of working age, and the particularly high level of emigration of persons under the age of 18.
- The large number under 18 years highlights the pattern of youth and student emigration, a movement that produces the future high proportion of Jamaicans living abroad who are highly educated, many at the tertiary level.
- There was an overwhelming predominance of professionals among the emigrants, with a slight decline among the emigrants to the United States but increase in the proportion of emigrants to Canada, and this shows an upward trend over successive years.
- In the “not working category”, there were 13,698 to Canada between 2006 and 2015, including students of various ages, nearly all of whom are likely to remain in Canada on completion of formal education, based on past trends.

Low-skilled short-term emigrants on the Government of Jamaica's Overseas Work Programmes

- Increasing numbers of low-skilled workers participated in short-term government-arranged and managed OWPs. The 13,911 in 2007 increased to 15,579 in 2016.

Postgraduate students abroad

- An average of 1,093 postgraduate students left Jamaica, each year of the decade 2001–2010, to study abroad.

Irregular migrants

- There are an unknown number of Jamaican emigrants who either enter another country without correct documentation or who enter legally and become irregular on account of overstaying longer than permitted.

Trafficking in persons

- Trafficking of persons into and out from Jamaica continues despite the significant increase in efforts made to identify victims and charge perpetrators operating in Jamaica. In recognition of the improvements in management of the situation, Jamaica's classification improved from Tier 2 Watch list to Tier 2.

Diaspora

- The Jamaican diaspora, in relation to the population of Jamaica, is considerable (at least 73%). Jamaican-born emigrants residing abroad amounts to at least 36.1 per cent of the national population.
- The Jamaican diaspora is heavily concentrated in three main countries: the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom. There are other locations, chiefly in the Caribbean and the Middle East, with smaller numbers.
- There is a large percentage of tertiary-educated persons in the diaspora. The number of tertiary-educated Jamaican-born emigrants in the OECD countries in the 2000 Population Censuses was recorded as 85,100.
- Jamaica was ranked fifth worldwide of tertiary-educated emigration rate in 2011, with a tertiary emigration rate calculated at 48.1 per cent calculated as the number of tertiary educated in the OECD countries as a percentage of the total tertiary educated in Jamaica.

- Non-resident Jamaican returning as tourists accounted for 7.3 per cent of the total number of tourists over the 10 years, 2006–2015.

Remittances

Volume of remittance flows

- Despite the global economic recession, there has been consistent increase in remittance flows.
- By 2016, the amount recorded by the BOJ was estimated at USD 2,292 million, representing an increase of USD 327.2 million over the USD 19.64 million remitted 10 years previously, in 2007.
- The World Bank estimates for remittance flows to Jamaica were even higher than those of the BOJ. The overall trend is the same in both data sets.
- The data on remittances do not include the informal monetary inflows that are personally delivered or sent by friends/family or transacted through personal arrangements without physical movement of funds.
- The BOJ data on remittances did not include pensions or social security emoluments from the country of last residence if they were not sent through the international money transfer companies.
- The United States has consistently been the country from which the largest remittance flows have come. The United States was the source of 58.4 per cent of the remittances received in Jamaica over the 10-year period of 2007–2016.
- The United Kingdom has consistently been the source of the second largest flows of remittances. In the years up to 2008, the United Kingdom always accounted for 25 per cent of the total remittance flows or more (28% in 2004).
- Canada has remained the country from which the third largest remittance flows have come; however, as a percentage of the total, it has increased since 2010, and subsequently never falling below 10 per cent of the total (compared with mostly 5% and at times 7% in previous years).
- The Cayman Islands was the source of 7 per cent of total remittances over the years 2007–2016.

Remittances receipt by rural–urban location

- Slightly more households in (other) towns received remittances as opposed to those living in KMA and rural areas. Just under a quarter (24%) of remittances were received by households in the KMA and, similarly, in rural areas.

- Just over a half (52%) went to households in towns other than the KMA.
- More female-headed households (52.2%) received remittances than male-headed households (39.2%) in 2009. This is likely to be the same at the present time.
- According to the IMF, Jamaica is among the top countries in terms of per capita receipt of remittances from its diaspora.
- Remittances contributed some 14 per cent to the national GDP each year over the 10 years from 2006 to 2015, and was 15.5 and 16.1 per cent in 2014 and 2015 respectively.

Remittances receipt by wealth of household

- As expected, a larger percentage of households from the upper economic brackets received remittances as compared to the other households, especially the poorest. Poorer households received remittances more frequently than the other quintiles but in smaller amounts. Remittances were the only source of income for many households, especially the poorest and the elderly.
- The smallest proportion of total remittances were received by households in the poorest quintile.
- The situation improved to include 39.6 per cent of the poorest household in 2015, improving from a situation where only 21.2 per cent received remittances in 2005.

Usage of remittances

- No new studies have been conducted on the use to which remittances were put, but there is no reason to believe that there has been any significant change in the use of remittances since the BOJ study in 2011 found that remittances were used to pay primarily for the following: (a) food, utilities, transport and housing (more than 51%); (b) education (14%); (c) medical costs (7%); (d) investment/business and savings (15%); and the rest in miscellaneous expenses.

B.6.4. Consequences of the current migration trends

The consequences of the migration trends are discussed below in the context of the key themes of interest identified by the NWGIMD.

Data, research and information systems

The data that are available and accessible are the basis on which evidence for trends and patterns of migration and the national demographic and socioeconomic context are determined. Therefore, good quality and comprehensive data coverage are essential for the decision-making and planning agencies of the Government to be able to cope with managing migration in the interest of national development.

The matter of data is again addressed in part D.3 of this Migration Profile, so attention in the current section will focus specifically on the implications of data, research and information systems for migration's role in national development.

The lack of easily accessible high-quality data sets relating to migration and the demographic and socioeconomic contexts within which the migrations occur, greatly increases the risk of errors being made in identifying trends in the migration characteristics and predicting future trends. These are essential elements of planning and implementing effective policies and management. The importance of adequate and accessible data coverage cannot be too strongly stated because in its absence, misinterpretations of trends, inadequate analysis and incorrect conclusions can result. Risk of making incorrect assumptions could result in negative consequences for the management of migration and the role of migration in development.

Appropriate coverage

Appropriate coverage of data includes the comprehensive measuring, monitoring and digital storage of all relevant statistics and other information on a regular basis, and in a consistent manner, in terms of the time sequences and categorization of variables decided upon. Without consistent time series data, it is not possible to identify trends in movements, characteristics and patterns of the movements and of the demographic and socioeconomic conditions within which the movements occur. There are currently a number of aspects of Jamaica's migration where gaps prevent the generation of full data sets to be made available when required. There are a number of instances where anecdotal information suggests certain trends but without the data, there can be no evidence to substantiate the assumptions being made.

Data also need to be disaggregated so as to provide evidence of the distribution by age, sex, educational and occupational cohorts of the persons who are immigrants and emigrants. These factors, rather than solely volume

and direction of flow, are important elements in providing an understanding of the implications of the movements and, therefore, the responses that should be forthcoming in the national development interest.

Quality of data

Quality refers to the robustness of measurement and recording of the data. Many aspects of migration are very difficult to measure and monitor because of the fluidity of the movements. Great attention therefore needs to be paid to precision in indicating the variables actually being measured. This relates to a further aspect of data quality, which is labelling. It is critical that the label describes the content of the data accurately. For example, migration stocks and migration flows should not be confused, and newly arriving immigrants in any specific year must be differentiated from those already in the country for whom extensions of stay or work permits have been given.

Public order, safety and security

Public order, safety and security are affected by a variety of migration trends, including the following:

Emigration of highly educated and trained professionals

Low level of labour force absorption and/or other factors that fail to be attractive to students, tertiary educated and professional groups lead to the loss of many important sectors of the labour force, but in relation to public order and safety, anecdotal information suggests that this is particularly affected by the continuing attrition of trained personnel from the police force.

Trafficking in persons

The ongoing trafficking of persons into and out of Jamaica has been associated with various levels of criminality among the perpetrators of the activity in a number of direct and indirect ways. Most victims of trafficking have low educational attainment and are part of an ongoing cycle of being the victims of limited employment opportunities. The general combination of factors involved in trafficking and through this, the links between criminal groups in Jamaica and international criminal networks, poses a risk in the terms of public order and security.

Irregular migration

Irregular outward migration of Jamaicans entering countries abroad, without valid documentation, are involved either as the recipients or perpetrators of the falsification of identification documents required for residence abroad, or persons who have failed to return on expiry of the time permitted to stay. Some of these individuals are among the subjects of enforced return to Jamaica. Others become directly or indirectly involved in other forms of illegal activities relating to use of false documents, and in connected criminal activities at the destination. The occurrence of fraudulent activity in relation to migration negatively affects the public perceptions of Jamaicans in light of the operational expenditures by the Government because of the higher levels of resources needed to maintain law and order and safety in the host cities to which irregular Jamaican migrants are concentrated.

Implications for crime

Migration is associated with crime and criminal networks that operate in a number of contexts. It involves the following: (a) maritime security, including narcotics trafficking and arms trafficking; and (b) money laundering. Country threats include transnational gangs and organized crime and violence, illegal firearms and drugs in the source countries, and the threat of terrorism. Jamaica shares in the Caribbean income from drugs, estimated at USD 3.3 billion per year (Franklin, n.d.). Vulnerabilities to exposure to the effects of international migration-related crime include: (a) porous borders; (b) legislative challenges; (c) inadequate information and intelligence; (d) inadequate physical/technological; (e) and human resources, dedicated to law enforcement strategies and security agencies. There is no available information on the consequences of migration for crime in Jamaica, so further discussion of this issue is not possible without the relevant research.

Enforced return

Over the 10 years from 2007 to 2016, there were 10,190 voluntary returning residents recorded compared with 24,916 forced returnees. The large and recently increasing numbers of forced returnees arriving in Jamaica, exceeding the numbers of voluntary returnees, indicates the level of assistance that is needed in the integration programmes. This is essential both in the interest of the protection of their human rights, and also to reduce or prevent delinquency, vagrancy or criminality, after their return to Jamaica.

Labour mobility and human rights

High rates of skilled and tertiary educated emigration

The emigration of highly educated and skilled persons has occurred to a significant extent. It is generally regarded as the right of persons to pursue their goals at locations of their choosing. This high rate of highly skilled emigration is a consequence of the high propensity and facility for this group of nationals to obtain tertiary education or employment positions in countries abroad. This is especially the case when their qualifications coincide with the immigration policies of prospective destination countries. There is a general sense that in the long run, the opportunities of nationals to migrate is a good thing and a signal of the level of freedom that exists in the society. Additionally, poor absorption capacity in the domestic marketplace leads to the need for the Government to tolerate whatever scale of movement out from the professions/educational system as may occur in an internationally free market. For the same reason, the Government of Jamaica has been liberal in the imposition of bonds for those who emigrate immediately or shortly after being in receipt of government-supported education and/or training.

Nevertheless, the high rate of highly educated skilled migrants does have an impact on the human resource capacity for development. A study conducted in the 1990s on migration of teachers concluded that this had an overall negative impact on the education sector, in particular because of the loss of teachers in specialized areas, such as science and math (Morgan, Sives and Appleton, 2006). Recent figures in the health sector also suggest that emigration has contributed to the depletion of nurses in some specializations. As indicated in part B.3 of this Migration Profile, gaps in staffing of public health needs amounted to 74 per cent, the gap between existing staffing of anaesthetists was 70.7 per cent down on the number needed, and for psychiatry down by 68.1 per cent. The study by Mortley (2008) showed that even when nurses who had migrated returned to Jamaica, they did not usually return to nursing.

In terms of the labour force, at the professional level, there is also evidence that migration has had a negative effect on capacity in agriculture. The loss of even a single highly trained professional in a specific field of agricultural science can create a major gap in the experience needed, and which may not be easily filled. For example, a representative of the Ministry of Agriculture cited cases where such a situation had occurred and that untrained persons had to be employed and trained on the job and, even then, a number of skill gaps remained (Thomas-Hope and Jardine-Comrie, 2011).

Despite the existence of unfilled labour force requirements in specific areas of some critical sectors, such as education, health and the police force (for which no data were available), the unemployment situation in the country is commonly cited as one of the main reasons why Jamaicans continue to search for work and career opportunities abroad. Unemployment affects specific population cohorts more than others. For example, it is more pronounced among youth and women, as well as among tertiary education graduates in some fields more so than others. Some youth were unemployed because they do not have sufficient education or training, for a variety of reasons. The proportions of youth who were neither in educational institutions, nor work, and not looking for work, have not decreased over recent years. There are also fewer employment opportunities in some areas of work than others. This is partly due to the excessive numbers of persons being trained in the same fields without the commensurate human capacity needs in the labour market. As there is little analysis of the actual impact of migration on unemployment, it is difficult to establish a direct correlation between new jobs abroad through migration and the number of unemployed persons remaining in the country.

Overseas Work Programmes

These programmes are government-negotiated and are managed short-term overseas contracts for unskilled and low-skilled workers in order to expand employment in light of the limited opportunities in Jamaica. As a consequence, the Government has an obligation to protect the migrants in the international marketplace (see section on Social Protection and Family below). Additionally, there is need for equity and perceived equity of opportunity to participate in the programmes. The application and selection processes relating to these programmes have not been regarded to be sufficiently transparent and thereby not perceived to adequately promote equity of opportunity for prospective migrants to participate.

Irregular migrants

The consequences of continued unknown numbers of undocumented emigrants or overstayers beyond the visa time allowed, and who gets into trouble while abroad, results in pressure being put on the Government of Jamaica's resources in order to respond adequately to supporting them and their families. Such persons can be in need of worksite visitation, prisons/deportation centres, hospital visitation and case management.

Return, integration and reintegration

As indicated in an earlier section, return migrants comprise involuntary/forced return nationals and voluntarily returning residents.

Forced returnees

The deportation of Jamaican nationals at the high rate that has occurred in the recent past places a demand for resources on the part of the Government of Jamaica and other non-governmental groups to assist in their reintegration once they are repatriated.

These include:

- (a) An immediate response on the migrants' return, for which the provisions needed include airport assistance, halfway home accommodation, medical referral where needed and domestic transportation; and
- (b) In the medium and long term, provisions for the health and social security needs and payments of forced returnees for the protection of their rights. Resources have to be found in order to facilitate this. Following repatriation/deportation and the initial arrival issues, migrants suffer the psychological consequences of separation from immediate family, and some worry about their families and how they may be able to support them. The counselling and other support is required, again placing a demand on scarce resources.

While it is known that most deportees do not become involved in criminal activities or behaviour that could be a threat to public order, security and safety, nevertheless, there is evidence of a small percentage of the deportees who have re-offended on their return to Jamaica. In the eight years from 2005 to 2012, the data showed that by far the majority (91.8%) had not committed any offences since their return. But 24 persons (8.2%) had been charged with a criminal offence since their deportation to Jamaica (which is very small compared with the 41% who had committed criminal offences while they were abroad and that had led to their deportation). This speaks to a high level of success in their reintegration and of the programmes that assist in this regard. Of those who had re-offended after returning, the majority were for drug possession (with small numbers for major crimes including possession of illegal firearms, assault, murder, robbery, shooting and other activities). However, almost 10 per cent had illegally re-migrated since the initial forced return and had been deported again. This included 7 per cent of the group that had re-migrated once, 2 per cent

had re-migrated twice, and 1 per cent, more than twice (NIB, data). Managing the offences when they occur – and more importantly, working to discourage/prevent re-offending through rehabilitation and the opening up of employment opportunities – adds to the demand for resources from the Government and other groups.

Voluntary returnees

Support for the reintegration of returning residents is also needed in order to optimize the use of their skills, experience and financial assets to contribute to Jamaica's social and economic development goals. In general, these returnees are usually in a better position than the forced returnees to re-establish family and other contacts and enter the workforce if they are at the relevant age. Facilitating their re-engagement with Jamaican society can play a decisive part in optimizing their contribution. This could involve the provision of information on employment opportunities, as well as attractive conditions for entrepreneurial activities and investment.

The increased occurrence of transnationalism among return migrants indicates the continuing links of migrants – including permanent migrants – with their original home and migration destination countries. This usually includes temporary returns and has the potential for them making considerable contributions to the home country. The extent to which they return to a facilitating environment that assists them to resettle, function and do business easily will reduce the urge to re-migrate permanently, which is known to occur among returnees especially those still of working age.

While voluntary returnees generally make their own arrangements for finding employment if they are of working age, there has been one programme of sponsored return. In the 1990s, the IOM, in association with the Government of Jamaica, launched a Return of Talent Programme to encourage qualified migrants to return by offering financial incentives for specific sectors and occupational groups. The lessons learned from this initiative have given rise to the need for capacity-building in areas such as the integration of migrants, access to the labour market and recognition of qualifications. Capacities in counselling, training and job placement, pre-departure orientation, integration and reintegration assistance and technological transfers need to be strengthened for Jamaica to maximize the potential benefits to be derived from return migration.

Integration programmes for voluntary return residents can promote the ways in which these persons use their skills and finances to the best mutual benefit of themselves and country's development needs. Some of the difficulties in the implementation of reintegration programmes have to do with knowing the number of voluntarily returning migrants, their ages and capabilities so as to institute the proper programmes for different types of returning residents, and providing a mechanism that facilitates the consultation of migrants who want to avail themselves of services provided by the Government.

Temporary labour migrants on the OWP

Temporary labour migration creates a different scenario from migrants returning after long-term residence abroad. A major factor is that return is embedded in the migration system for which the Government has signed memoranda of agreements regarding the OWPs. At the same time, because the Government of Jamaica is party to the programmes, as mentioned above, it therefore has responsibilities both for the workers when they are abroad and for the welfare of migrants and families left behind. There is also a responsibility to prepare prospective migrants and their families for the conditions of the overseas contract before departure. The Government of Jamaica, through the MFSS, currently provides relevant information prior to the migrants' departure. These are intended to reduce the problems of reintegrating when they return.

Resources are needed for these activities and if the contractual arrangements for the OWPs do not generate these funds, then it becomes a burden on the Government of Jamaica, negating some of the benefits of improving the employment opportunities of up to 16,000 persons currently engaged in the programme each year. For this reason, it constitutes a much higher preoccupation for policymakers, both in the sense of providing migrants with viable alternatives to the migration process and offering opportunities for returning migrants to capitalize on their experience and savings.

Within the current framework, the questions are then, what are the consequences of current migration trends for the migrants and their families in the context of large and increasing numbers of short-term contracts in the United States and Canada on the OWPs. It also applies to other vulnerable groups, such as trafficked persons, irregular migrants, including those who may become incarcerated at the destination country or forced returnees on their return to Jamaica.

Social protection and family welfare

The notion of migration as a household strategy for survival or upward mobility is an important contribution of the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) towards understanding migration in developing countries. The NELM framework draws attention to the household as the context of migration decision-making, since the household is the primary economic and production unit responsible for meeting the needs of its members.

Within the current framework, the questions relate to the consequences of migration trends for migrants and their families in the context of a trend of decreased opportunities for long-term migration for the less highly educated and skilled, but large and increasing opportunities, managed by the Government of Jamaica, for short-term contracts in the United States and Canada on the OWPs. The same question also applies to other vulnerable groups (trafficked persons, irregular migrants, including those who may become incarcerated at the destination country and forced returnees on their return to Jamaica).

Some of the challenges in providing satisfactory family protection have included the fact that:

- There are no data on the number of family units that are the most vulnerable. Stable families are able to rise above the problems and trials migration may present them, while migration can exacerbate the already frail conditions of problematic families. Also, stable families are better able to manage remittances and maximize the benefits of migration.
- There are no data on the number of family units that have broken down because of migration, but there is anecdotal evidence that it is commonly either the cause or the result of breakdown.
- In the case of unsupervised, registered/illegal recruitment of persons who emigrate, their welfare while overseas cannot be assured. This reinforces the need for more education of the public about the risks, and greater surveillance of recruitment. Both of these measures would make demands on resources.

Families of migrants

An important consequence of high female household responsibility and emigration in response to poor economic opportunities available in Jamaica, and high female unemployment, is that many families, often including children and the elderly, are left without the presence of the mother. Although in many cases, remittances sent from the absent female to her household in Jamaica provides

for the material needs of the family, the lack of parental control and support have been interpreted as the cause of emotional problems and behavioural deviance among young persons left behind. The evidence from an intervention study of children and young people suffering from emotional deprivation and delinquency found that many of the children were in households from which the main parental figure (usually the mother) had migrated (Crawford-Brown, 1999; Crawford-Brown and Rattray, 2001). This led to the conclusion that the migration of the parent had been the main contributory factor in the child's behaviour. This view was supported by evidence that parents who migrated attempted to compensate for their absence by sending remittances in the form of money and goods, giving rise to the concept and terminology of the "barrel children" (Crawford-Brown and Rattray, 1994).

An overview of the problem from the perspective of counselling was provided by Pottinger, Gordon-Stair and Williams-Brown (2009). The role of remittances in households of children with absent parents was analysed in a study conducted by Benfield (2009), in which households with and without remittances were compared. The results of the study suggested that the receipt of remittances did not impact on the indicators used to measure impact on the child, namely the level of school attendance, the likelihood of being out of school and the health outcomes of children. Although there has been evidence of stress among children whose parents were absent through migration (Blank, 2009), the situation is highly complex. A comparison of a sample of children with and without parent(s) abroad, also consistent with some other findings, showed that there were both positive and negative aspects of the migration situation, and there was no significant difference in the child's school performance or behaviour, although boys in migrant households were marginally more negatively affected than girls (Thomas-Hope, 2006c).

The impact – both negative and positive – varies depending on who migrates, the age of the left-behind children and their relationship with their guardian. Among migrant families, young and adolescent children reported missing their parents even though many regard the goods – including the latest styles of clothes and models of toys and other items which they receive from parents abroad – more than compensate for their absence (Thomas-Hope, 2006). Growing up without their parents, they learned to be independent, but they expressed sadness and a sense of loss over what they missed out as a family. This sense of loss is a source of stress also shared by migrant parents, especially mothers who miss the opportunity of their children being with them as they are growing up. The practice of grandparents rearing grandchildren whether or not parents have migrated means that there is not necessarily a sense of loss or

deprivation at the absence of parents, who in any case are better able to support the family financially than if they were at home. Nevertheless, grandmothers are not always adequate substitutes for younger parents.

A study prepared for Help Age International and Hope for Children Development Company Ltd (2010) that was conducted in Whitfield Town, Rose Town and Greenwich Town, Kingston, also concluded that the impacts of migration were both positive and negative; remittances served as a major source of income for families who have family members who migrated. The participants were highly aware of social assistance programmes, but it is important to note that accessing and making use of these programmes was low. It was also evident from the study that older persons were also highly vulnerable and burdened with responsibilities when members of the economically active generation were absent from the household for prolonged periods.

Gender roles

Migration's effects on gender roles are complex. Women are leaving for economic reasons just as often, and perhaps even more often, than men. The female employment rate has been consistently lower than that of men. However, this does not mean that women migrants have given up their traditional caring and nurturing role. The majority send funds home for child support. There is also some evidence that when female migrants return to Jamaica, their experiences abroad may have helped them to progress professionally. Migration for the sake of the family is not all there is to it. Particularly in the case of female migration, migration can be a strategy to avoid gendered relations and sexual violence. Despite the hardships that they may have experienced during their overseas employment, several studies have found that, in general, migrants consider their migration experience positively.

Protecting the families of migrants makes a demand on government resources and, as a consequence, the provisions made are as yet minimal. The sums of money that were obtained by the Government through mandatory savings and currency exchange by the OWPs are no longer permitted, thus leaving a financial deficit for the Government and lower level of insurance protection for the workers. In any case, the protection of the rights of the migrant workers is a necessary cost that has to be met by the Government in response to the lack of employment opportunities in the domestic market.

The Government of Jamaica developed approaches to promote the protection of workers in OWPs. The insurance covers accidental and natural

death, permanent total disability, repatriation cost, subsistence allowance benefit, money claims, compassionate visit, medical evaluation and medical repatriation. The compulsory insurance is supposed to be paid by the recruitment agencies; but this is another cost that is likely to be assumed by the workers. As indicated above, for the workers going to the United States on short-term labour contracts, there is no longer insurance cover in the event of illness or injuries that are not work-related. There has also been a removal of mandatory savings and payment into the Jamaica NIS. This leaves the workers vulnerable should they become sick – whether as a result of the work undertaken/stay abroad or otherwise – in Jamaica at any time and also without pension cover when they reach retirement age. A social worker has been assigned by the Government of Jamaica, one to each parish and two in the Parish of Clarendon, to provide some protection of the children left behind, which are inadequate for the challenges faced.

Victims of trafficking in persons

This is especially risky for the more vulnerable members of the population. Profiles on Jamaica show that the majority of victims were female, and over 90.0 per cent were from low socioeconomic backgrounds and in the commercial sex and exotic dancing occupational groups. Most female victims had dependant children, lived with family and had limited financial support.

Health

Migrants are a particularly vulnerable population in terms of exposure to factors that precipitate physical and mental illness (IOM, 2004). Migrants may become exposed to new diseases in transit and at the destination; they may develop mental health problems to which the migration experience contributes significantly (Robertson-Hickling and Hickling, 2009). Further, they may be carriers of diseases that are not fully recognized, as in the case of sickle cell anaemia in some countries, or the carriers of diseases to the destination or back to their source country on the return. Linguistic, cultural and religious differences or barriers combine to make the provision and receipt of migrant health care difficult.

Given the high level of population movement and the high prevalence of HIV infection in the Caribbean region, the link between mobility and the spread of HIV/AIDS is an important dimension of the situation, although it is poorly understood. The circumstances of movement – for example, whether voluntary or involuntary, or whether legal or clandestine – directly affect the potential

risk of HIV infection for migrants. Though migrants are sometimes perceived as contributing to the spread of HIV/AIDS across borders (IOM, 2004), studies have shown that migrants are often more vulnerable than local populations and face greater obstacles in accessing care and support if living with HIV/AIDS.

Jamaica has made the necessary arrangements for the provision of health-care services for its labour migrants employed within the Seasonal Employment Programmes operated by the Government of Jamaica in partnership with the United States and Canada. Health benefits for job-related injuries/illnesses are provided for, and most workers in Canada receive a health card. Nonetheless, health services should be made accessible to all migrants irrespective of their migrant status. Jamaica endorsed the Resolution on the “health of migrants” at the Sixty-first World Health Assembly (WHA) in May 2008. Jamaica has developed a plan that details the actions necessary for the provision and management of medical and health-care services from the arrival/recognition of undocumented migrants, refugees or displaced persons to their departure whether by repatriation or other agreed mediums. Additionally, there is also the existence of a surveillance system; however, strengthening is required in the areas of electronic data capture and transfer.

There are also innumerable consequences for health risks in migration and the need for resources in areas of technical support and training to build national capacities for emergency risk management. This would include data supply and management, as well as vector control and immunization campaigns surrounding the care of migrants and refugees (PIOJ, National International Migration and Development Policy, 2017).

A further element in the protection of the migrants’ families is that before departure, information and briefing are offered by the MFSS for prospective migrants and their families and as part of their preparations for migration, as well as a health examination to ensure that they are physically and mentally fit to work abroad.

Diaspora and development

The large size of the Jamaican communities comprised of first, second and third generation migrants residing permanently in the United States, United Kingdom and Canada offers a number of opportunities for linkages that could enhance development in Jamaica.

The Jamaican diaspora represents a wealth of skills, expertise, relationships and financial resources that must be leveraged for the socioeconomic development of Jamaica. Over many years, the diaspora, particularly those in the United Kingdom, United States and Canada, have contributed significantly to the following areas namely education, community development, health and sports.

Since 2013, the diaspora communities have broadened their social contribution beyond remittance and philanthropy and, therefore, their impact. The focus of their engagement with Jamaica is through the creation of global knowledge diaspora networks that serve to leverage their collective skills, expertise and resources with a view to improving the socioeconomic conditions in communities across Jamaica. The diaspora task forces have worked collaboratively with ministries, departments, agencies, NGOs and the private sector in improving the social welfare of Jamaica's citizens; including those in underserved communities. The task forces are as follows:

- Jamaica Diaspora Education Task Force;
- Jamaica Diaspora Agriculture Task Force;
- Jamaica Diaspora Crime Intervention and Prevention Task Force;
- Jamaica Diaspora Immigration and Deportation Prevention Task Force;
- Jamaica Diaspora Technology Task Force; and
- Jamaica Diaspora Youth and Female Empowerment Task Force.

The impact of the diaspora on the Government of Jamaica's development priorities are notably the following:

- Contributions to health sector | 192 Missions in 2016 valued at USD 8 million;
- 133 Missions in January to July 2017 | valued at USD 6.7 million;
- Contributions to the National Education Trust at USD 186,000 for FY 2016–2017;
- Diaspora tourists represent 7.4 per cent of total stopover visitors during January to December 2016 (Diaspora average stay 16.8 nights January–December 2016 in all types of accommodation and 8.3 nights in hotels). Tourism visits by Jamaican nationals abroad was calculated as 6 per cent of the value of total tourist expenditure for 2016 (CaPRI, 2017);
- Provides a market for exports of Jamaican foods, for example, yams, callaloo, ackee;
- Donation of medical equipment | Ambulances, blood pressure machines, medical beds;

- Donation of education materials by alumni associations in United States and Canada;
- Creation of task forces on education and crime;
- Agriculture, technology, immigration;
- Hosting of Camp Summer Plus for 375 Grade 3 students in 2015;
- Hosting of Symposium on Organic Farming practices at Denbigh Agricultural Show;
- Training workshops on security matters; and
- Remittances large sums of money, chiefly to family in Jamaica. Inflows were USD 2.2 billion in 2016 (Downer, 2017).

The monetary value of diaspora impacts include the following:

- Investment in Jamaica, amounting in 2016 to 3.5 per cent of GDP and focused on banks, businesses and the stock market;
- Jamaican exports purchased by the diaspora in the United States was 10 per cent of total exports to the United States in 2016, amounting to USD 89 million; by the United Kingdom-based diaspora, it was 22 per cent of total exports to the United Kingdom; and the diaspora in Canada accounted for 7 per cent of exports to that country.
- Philanthropy from the diaspora was calculated at USD 14 million in 2016, accounting for 0.09 per cent of GDP.
- Diaspora and Jamaican culture. The diaspora enables Jamaica's culture, for example, in terms of music, and food, to be internationally marketed. (CaPRI, 2017).

The efforts to encourage positive impacts of the diaspora on Jamaica's development have been made and reflected in the Diaspora Policy. Information is shared through the overseas Missions and through the biennial conferences held in Jamaica. Diaspora engagement remain a priority of the Government of Jamaica, this evidenced by the following:

- The creation of a department in the MFAFT to manage process;
- Diaspora Advisory Board representatives from the United Kingdom, United States and Canada;
- Streamlining facilities for diaspora donations;
- Health for Life and Wellness Foundation, National Education Trust Ltd.;
- Outreach activities conducted by government departments; Registrar General's Department, PICA, National Land Agency, National Housing Trust and Jamaica Customs;
- Forums for deported migrants;

- Expansion of the Diaspora Movement;
- Increase youth representatives on the Advisory Board;
- Implementation of Economic Growth Council (EGC) Diaspora Engagement Task Force;
- Creation of fast-track/one-stop Coordinating Agency for Diaspora and investor requests;
- Establishment of entity called Global Connect Jamaica aimed at attracting investment, connecting the diaspora and promoting “Brand Jamaica”; and
- Advice to Returning Residents (Downer, 2017).

Remittances and development

In examining the consequences of remittances for development, one has to look at the impact at different levels of scale: (a) the individual/household/family; (b) the community and economic sectors; and (c) the national level.

The profile of Jamaican immigrants in the diaspora who send remittances has been examined by Palmer (2009), and the motives of the remitters has been studied and the relationship between motive and the amounts of money remitted have been assessed (Figueroa, 2009). As the literature shows that most migrants send remittances to specific persons in their family or household, the role of migrant obligations to the family or specific members of the family is important. Therefore, remittances are principally sent for reasons of family support and obligations rather than for purposes of economic investment of the persons sending the remittances.

Family welfare

As emigration and the Jamaican migrant stock abroad has increased, so too has the inflow of remittances. Studies have shown that among those households that received remittances, the money is largely used for household expenses, namely purchasing food items, paying utility bills and also for meeting educational and medical expenses (Thomas-Hope et al., 2009; Ramocan, 2010). Money earned abroad has also provided a much-needed supplemental income for the migrants themselves (Alleyne, 2009).

The role of remittances in improving household standards of living and family welfare is generally acknowledged as a positive outcome of international migration. This is seen from some perspectives as outweighing the negative effects of absentee parenting.

Remittances and poverty alleviation

When the receipt of remittances is examined by quintile, a greater percentage of Jamaicans in the two higher income quintiles were in receipt of remittances between 2001 and 2009, and again in 2010–2015, as compared with the poorest quintile, very few of whom were in receipt of remittances. However, there has been some change over time, and whereas only 21.2 per cent of the poorest sector of the population received remittances in 2005, the situation improved to include 39.6 per cent of the poorest household by 2015. It is also possible to argue that remittances were moving people from the middle to the higher quintiles, contributing to the redistribution of wealth.

It is not possible from this information alone to know whether the richer households are those that have migrants abroad who remit most funds, or whether it is the remittances that had made them richer/reduced their poverty. However, the reality is that over the past five years, remittance receipts have increased and so also has poverty levels trended upwards. Therefore, one can conclude that at the national level, remittances are not alleviating poverty.

Consequences of remittances at the national level

The uses of remittances are generally considered consumption, but there is an ongoing debate on what constitutes productive versus non-productive investments. Some of the consumption has long-term benefits, especially through support of education and health expenses and also investments that though small in monetary terms, as in uses on small farms, are valuable investment in an asset or activity that produces nutritional benefits or positive income flow. Based on this approach, house construction could be regarded as productive investment because it has a positive impact on industries that produce materials used in house construction projects, on contributing to employment and long-term asset value increase. Although the households of migrants do well in these respects compared to non-migrant household families, it could be argued that collectively, those households that do well in these ways do make a difference to the country as a whole. By increasing household investment in human and physical capital, remittances have the potential at the aggregate macroeconomic level to rebalance growth towards domestic demand and create long-term growth (Ang et al., 2009:16, cited in IOM, 2013a).

Additionally, the unemployment rate increased from its lowest of 9.8 per cent in 2007 rising to 15.50 by 2013 and then decreasing to 13.45 in 2016.

Consequences of remittance for the economy at the macroeconomic scale

Remittances involve major sums of financial receipts when compared with other sources of money and is a major contributor to foreign exchange receipts by the BOJ. For example, in 2013, remittances were nearly USD 2.2 billion as compared with net FDI of USD 0.59 billion, and Overseas Development Aid of USD 0.07 billion (World Bank, 2016). Remittances to direct FDI in 2016 was calculated at 289.8, having increased from 233.2 and 240 in the two previous years.

As indicated in part B.5 of this Migration Profile, the flow of remittances to Jamaica from immigrants abroad is an important source of national foreign exchange. The role remittances have played in the national economy is reflected in the fact that remittance inflows have been in excess of 90 per cent in relation to tourist expenditure (in 2014, 2015 and 2016 amounting to 95.6, 92.7 and 90.3% respectively). Remittances to exports increased from 14.9 per cent in 2014 to 177.4 per cent in 2015 and 191.8 per cent in 2016. Remittances to imports had increased from 36.5 per cent in 2014 to 47.9 per cent in 2016 (BOJ statistics, 2017).

The overall impact of remittances for the national economy is reflected in their accounting for some 14 per cent to the national GDP each year over the 10 years between 2006 and 2015, and was 15.5 and 16.1 and 16.3 per cent in 2014, 2015 and 2016 respectively (BOJ, 2011; 2017). However, it was noted by Thomas-Hope (2011a) that remittances accounted for the highest percentages of GDP in the weakest economies in the region. In 2010, GDP for Guyana was 24.1 per cent and 19.6 per cent for Haiti. By 2016, remittances as a percentage of GDP in Jamaica was 17.3 per cent according to World Bank calculations; in Guyana, with an improved economic performance, the contribution of remittances to GDP fell to 8.38 per cent, while in Haiti, it rose to 29.4 per cent. In contrast, in the high-income CARICOM States, for example, Trinidad and Tobago, remittances accounted for 0.66 per cent of GDP, and in Barbados for 2.39 per cent in 2016.¹⁸

¹⁸ World Bank data, see <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/BX.TRF.PWKR.DT.GD.ZS>

Balancing the pros and cons

- Remittances are usually considered the most visible economic consequence of migration. Nevertheless, there is no consensus on its value to the country in relation to and as compensation for the loss of highly educated and skilled persons from the workforce. This is a similar argument as for family welfare where remittances are seen by many to compensate for and outweigh absentee parenting.
- There is little known about the revenue forgone through the non-payment of taxes by migrants while they are away, and the extent to which this is compensated for by immigrants in the labour force remaining in Jamaica; nor is there literature on the outflow of money from Jamaica to family members in the diaspora – in particular, for the support of children and other dependants, though the figures suggest that they are minimal in comparison to inflows.
- The literature shows that most migrants send remittances to specific persons in their family or household; the role of migrant obligations to the family or specific members of the family is important. Therefore, remittances are principally sent for reasons of family support and obligations, rather than for purposes of economic investment of the persons sending the remittances.
- The evidence suggests that the use of migrants' remittances has not contributed in any significant way to generating sustained economic growth at the national level or raising opportunities for steady income through self-made entrepreneurial activity or employment at the household level. Instead, it has contributed to providing an alternative to prioritizing employment locally and thus, reducing the dependence on migration.
- There are no data on the non-financial remittances that come to the country, for example, the number of barrels. These also contribute to providing clothing and other goods to a number of families.

Social remittances

The Jamaican diaspora is not only a source of monetary remittances but also of social remittances, including knowledge transfer, as well as volunteering in a range of activities. Many returnees have been reported to say that they felt better able to contribute to Jamaica's national development because of the experience of management and technical competence that they derived from working overseas and the nature of the work ethic that they had acquired. In general, return migrants were highly motivated to contribute to Jamaica's

social and economic development (Thomas-Hope, 2006a). Whether or not they were actually able to engage in knowledge and work ethic transfers is not clear, and many returnees reported that they had been frustrated in the effort to do so. They had also become more aware of problems, such as poverty and environmental degradation in Jamaica, and many contributed in voluntary capacities to community projects. Some migrants still living abroad contribute through various groups and associations to the support of specific projects, such as providing medical supplies and services periodically to poor communities, or assisting institutions, such as schools and churches and volunteering their service (Ying, Manderson and Smith, 2010).

Overall impact of migration on development

As discussed above, there are both positive and negative consequences of migration, many of which are not quantifiable but should be considered within the wider context of development.

The benefit of migration includes the following:

- Migration is a significant, integral part of Jamaican society and on the whole, people considered their migration experience as positive, even crediting the difficulties they went through when they were abroad as helping them to become better persons.
- The opening up of the space, a sense of freedom to make choices and select the place in which individuals can optimize their professional and other livelihood opportunities.
- The notion of migration as a household strategy for survival or mobility is an important contribution of the NELM towards understanding migration in developing countries. The NELM framework draws attention to the household as the context of migration decision-making, since the household is the primary economic and production unit responsible for meeting the needs of its members.
- The opening up of additional opportunities for employment at higher wages than available at home for low-skilled workers helps to alleviate the low absorptive capacity of the domestic labour market.
- The remittances sent back from emigrants and repatriated by returning migrants are a major source of foreign exchange at the national level and needed financial support at the household level.
- The international networks represented by the diaspora have a significant potential for widening markets, increasing investment in Jamaica and contributing in other material and non-material ways to economic growth and human welfare.

The main developmental challenges of migration revolve around the evidence that:

- The loss of highly educated persons from the workforce is a major drawback to maintain standards in some sectors. At the same time, foreign-born immigrants to Jamaica are filling some of the vacancies left by departing nationals, so immigration is part of the solution at least on a temporary basis.
- The country has tended to become dependent on employment abroad to plug the gap of inadequate employment absorptive capacity. There could be a cap on numbers and constraints to wage structures in the future, so reliance on the current scale of overseas labour migration channels cannot be assured.
- Absentee parents from households have consequences, some of which have a fundamentally negative impact on the stability of the family with young children.
- The impact of migration of the more vulnerable and at-risk sectors of the population has placed a significant responsibility on the nation to ensure their protection and safety.
- The remittances channeled to consumption rather than investment fuel a distorted form of development, such as the housing boom, rather than increasing production and exports.
- The consequence of remittances for alleviating poverty among the poorest in the country is apparently not occurring, although there were signs of improvements in the distribution of remitted funds.
- The impact of remittance reliance on the work ethic has come into question because of the non-migrant household members that have ceased to search for employment because they are supported by remittances. This also enters the psyche and expectations of children growing up in households supported by migrant remittances.
- The final issue is that remittances, though robust and dependable at the present time, and that support families in Jamaica at times of disaster, only last for as long as first-generation migrants are still in working age or otherwise financially secure at their destinations. Already, the high volume of remittances from the United Kingdom decreased and will not be revived while the emigration to that country remains at a minimal level. The evidence from previous era of migrations is conclusive in this regard. The short- and medium-term benefits of remittances therefore have to be channeled effectively in anticipation of shifts in amounts and sources in the future.

PART C: MIGRATION POLICY FRAMEWORK

C.I. Overview of recent migration policy developments and key domestic legislation

C.I.I. Policy developments

The most significant policy initiative in relation to international migration that occurred as one of the outputs of the Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Project – which was launched on 5 May 2011 – was the formulation of a Ministry Paper: National Policy on International Migration and Development Policy (IMDP), which was tabled as a white paper (Government of Jamaica, 2017). The National Policy establishes the framework for migration and development management and is set within the context of the development road map of Vision 2030 Jamaica: National Development Plan in making “Jamaica, the place of choice, to live, work, raise families and do business”.

The ongoing high levels of emigration and the attendant loss of critical human resources (referred to as “brain drain”), as well as the importance of remittances, poverty reduction and social well-being for national development, as outlined in the *Migration Profile 2011*, the emergence of the view that mainstreaming migration into development would optimize the benefits from migration, were among the factors that influenced the decision to develop the IMDP. It is stated that “The policy is meant to manage migration more effectively for its integration into national development strategies by harnessing its development potential to benefit the society and migrants themselves” (ibid.: vii).

Jamaica’s migration policy framework recognized the need for a multisectoral approach to achieve its objective of mainstreaming migration into development objectives. This has brought together entities from a wide cross section of agencies involved in migration and development issues in Jamaica and internationally, and included NGOs, ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs), private sector and international organizations.

The areas addressed in the policy are grounded in the nine themes that were identified through a rapid assessment survey based on national priorities. Each theme was comprehensively examined within the context of international migration and development and further integrated into the related national

policies, plans, strategies, programmes and projects. The themes that provide the framework for prioritization of issues, as indicated in the Introduction, are: (a) Governance; (b) Human Rights and Social Protection; (c) Diaspora and Development; (d) Labour Mobility and Development; (e) Remittance and Development; (f) Return, Integration and Reintegration; (g) Public Order, Safety and Security; (h) Family, Migration and Development; and (i) Data, Research and Information Systems. Additionally, gender issues and policy coherence are cross-cutting themes. Further, the policy is underpinned by seven guiding principles that are the foundation for the stated goals, intermediate outcomes and actions. These are: (a) respect for human rights; (b) fairness and equity; (c) mutual benefits for migrants, countries of origin and destination; (d) partnership and inclusion; (e) public awareness and sensitization; (f) knowledge, data and research; and (g) gender equality and equity.

Additional policy developments

Additionally, a Diaspora Policy has been formulated (First Draft of Green Paper Version, January 2014) to complement the IMDP and facilitate the development of a coordinated strategy for engagement with the former emigrants and the subsequent foreign-born generations abroad, namely the Jamaican diaspora (see Ying, 2014). The Inter-Ministerial Council for Diaspora Affairs, chaired by the Prime Minister, is the main policy setting body. The Ministry, with responsibility for diaspora affairs, and the Diaspora Coordinating Board are the major entities responsible for policy implementation by working in collaboration with MDAs and the private sector.

A number of other policy developments have taken place since 2011 that relate to migration and the welfare of migrants and these, together with the laws and policies are discussed as they relate to different aspects of migration in section C.1.2.1, and on social protection in section C.1.2.2 of this Migration Profile.

Because migration has implications for the identity of the nation and the distribution of rights and duties within the society, these factors need to be reflected in the laws, regulations and an institutional apparatus responsible for the implementation of policies. Further, the intrinsically transnational nature of international migration requires that migration policies should also have a bilateral and multilateral component. This part of the Jamaica Migration Profile will first indicate the nature of the legislative framework, and the laws and regulations concerning migration to and from Jamaica. It will then describe the nature and functions of institutions dealing with migration. Finally, the bilateral

policies pursued by the Government of Jamaica in regard to migration will be addressed within the context of labour emigration through the OWP.

C.1.2. Domestic legislation

The legislative framework underpinning Jamaica's policies relating to migration includes 11 statutes currently in force, which were enacted specifically to deal with migration. There has been no new legislation in 2012–2016, although amendments to acts and some new policies and policy-related developments have taken place within the past five years. Two of these amended acts refer to immigration and are outlined below:

- The Foreign Nationals and Commonwealth Citizen's (Employment) Act or Work Permit Act, passed two years after independence (1964; amended 2011), was designed to allow the Government to fulfil local labour market needs by recruiting foreigners. The amended act (2011) addresses employment controls of foreign nationals, application for and production of work permits and offences and penalties. The law does not specify how these needs should be identified. The majority of workers the MLSS recruits each year belong to the category "Professionals, senior officials and technicians."
- Progress has been achieved under the Jamaican Justice System Reform Agenda during 2012–2015, including improving infrastructure, human and technological resources and processes, such as court, case flow and data management, and reducing the burden on the justice system through greater integration of restorative justice principles and more efficient and effective utilization of available resources. Public sector reform also was advanced through the preparation of the Public Financial Management Reform Action Plan and local government reform.

The existing laws are listed below, and it is seen that they fall into four main categories reflecting the changing concerns of legislators over time. The policies that are implemented within this framework are described in relation to different aspects of migration, as follows:

Immigration

- Deportation (Commonwealth Citizens) Act (1942)
- The Immigration Restriction (Commonwealth Citizens) Act (1945)
- The Aliens Act (1946)
- Jamaica Nationality Act (1962)

Employment

- Foreign Nationals and Commonwealth Citizens (Employment) Act (1964)
- The Caribbean Community (Free Movement of Skilled Persons) Act (1997)

Emigration

- The Foreign Recruiting Act (1875)
- Emigrants Protection Act (1925)
- Passport Act (1935 and 1962 Regulations)
- Recruiting of Workers Act (1940)

Trafficking

- Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) Act (2007).

In addition to these laws, there are some additional laws that apply directly to the daily work of administration officials who deal with migration-related issues, as follows:

- The Employment Agencies Regulation Act (1957)
- The Customs Act (1941 as amended)
- The Child Care and Protection Act (2004)
- The Criminal Justice Act (2010)

Other laws that were not specifically intended for migrants are of relevance to citizenship and employment in the context of migration, include:

- (a) The Jamaica Nationality Act (1962, amended 1999), which examines the rights, procedures and conditions of accessing Jamaican nationality. The act examines the retention of nationality, minors, naturalization, conditions regarding deprivation of citizenship, evidence requirements for citizenship and regulations and offences.
- (b) The Jamaican legislation also allows for the maintenance of dual citizenship for emigrants and permits for the awarding of dual citizenship on the basis of descent, marriage, naturalization (non-Commonwealth citizens); registration of Commonwealth citizens and registration of minors.

C.1.2.1. Policy and legislation in relation to migration

There are several important aspects of international migration that are underpinned by legislation. These include the following:

- Protection of the rights of migrants;
- Elimination of all forms of discrimination;
- Promotion of fair competition;
- Protection of assets and property rights;
- Reduction of fraud and illegal activity;
- Provision of appropriate benefits to migrants and their dependants;
- Protection of the most vulnerable;
- Prevention and suppression of TIP and the prosecution of offenders; and
- Reduction in the levels of transnational crime.

The following sections will address the policy and legislative framework in relation to the various aspects of migration, namely immigration (including return migration and irregular migration), emigration and labour migration, refugee and asylum seekers, trafficking in persons, the diaspora and in relation to human rights and social protection.

Immigration

Short-term labour immigration is encouraged and actively practiced within both the public and private sectors. Entry requirements for non-residents seeking employment are specified firstly in the Foreign Nationals and Commonwealth Citizens (Employment) or Work Permit Act (1964), which legislates that a work permit or an exemption must be in force for foreign nationals to be employed in Jamaica. Of critical importance is an unwritten policy of the Government that work permits may only be provided where the job in question cannot be filled by local personnel. Work permits are granted for periods ranging from under three months to a maximum of three years.

Jamaica's overall policy for persons entering the country as migrants (whether temporary labour migrants or permanent residents or return migrants) is generally facilitative.

Immigration of foreign nationals and border control

The two principal laws governing international migration in Jamaica – **the Aliens Act (1946; 1988)** and the **Immigration Restriction (Commonwealth**

Citizens) Act (1954) – focus on controlling immigration by regulating the entry of foreign nationals for the purpose of employment.

The **Immigration Restriction (Commonwealth Citizens) Act (1945)**, the **Deportation (Commonwealth Citizens) Act (1942)** and the **Aliens Act (1946)** set out the conditions and criteria for admission into, and deportation from, the country. Commonwealth citizens are prohibited from entering Jamaica as immigrants if they are: (a) likely to become a charge on public funds; (b) deemed undesirable by the relevant minister for economic or any other reason; or (c) the subjects of a deportation order. Other immigrants must meet the following conditions to be allowed entry: (a) are able to support themselves and their dependants or have a work permit; (b) be mentally and physically fit; (c) have not been sentenced in a foreign country for an extraditable crime; (d) are not the subject of a local deportation order; and (e) are in possession of a visa, where relevant.

The **Immigration Restriction (Commonwealth Citizen) Act, 1988** outlines provisions for the following: (a) general powers of immigration officers; (b) prohibited immigrants; (c) persons deemed not prohibited; (d) certificate of identity upon re-entry; (e) orders for leave and removal; (f) extension of leave to remain; (g) in-transit passengers and crew; (h) visitors; (i) warrants and places of detention; and (j) recovery of expenses.

Passed two years after independence, the **Foreign Nationals and Commonwealth Citizen’s (Employment) Act (1964; amended 2011)**, or **Work Permit Act**, was designed to allow the Government to fulfil local labour market needs by recruiting foreigners. The amended Act, 2011 addresses employment controls of foreign nationals; application for and production of work permits; and offences and penalties. The law does not specify how these needs are identified. The majority of workers the MLSS recruits each year belong to the category “Professionals, senior officials and technicians”.

Such recruitment has helped alleviate Jamaica’s brain drain of health care and other specialists. In recent years, a number of reports, including one by the PIOJ, have expressed concerns that immigration may displace Jamaican workers, and the present government has acknowledged the need for tighter administration to prevent any breaches from occurring.

Persons wishing to reside permanently in Jamaica must first establish residency in the country either through a work permit or, if they do not intend to be employed, through a temporary-stay visa (up to six months). As indicated

in part B.2., Commonwealth citizens are allowed entrance to the country without a visa, and several categories of persons are granted exemptions from the need to have a work permit. As noted in the section on labour migration, this includes CARICOM residents¹⁹ that have obtained Skill Certificates. There was relaxation of the duration of residence criterion (from five years to three years) for immigrants wishing to gain permanent resident status. Citizenship by naturalization may be granted after five years residency, as well as by adoption, descent and marriage, in accordance with the Jamaican Nationality Act and chapter II of the Constitution.

The **Aliens Act (1946; 1988)** and the **Immigration Restriction (Commonwealth Citizens) Act (1954)**, which predate Jamaica's independence, reflect British interests of that period. While the acts have provided a general framework for border management controls and security, they fail to adequately address international migration today. In particular, making a distinction between Commonwealth and non-Commonwealth citizens may not be the most relevant way to think about immigration policy in Jamaica. Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM) and non-CARICOM nationals may be more relevant categories. CARICOM includes 15 Caribbean nations and dependencies that have agreed to promote economic integration and cooperation among members; the group also coordinates foreign policy.

The **Caribbean Community (Free Movement of Skilled Persons) Act, 2004** incorporates provisions for the following: (a) indefinite and provisional entry of skilled persons; (b) qualification and occupations required for the issue of a qualifying certificate; (c) spouses and dependants; (d) revocation of permission; and (e) offences and penalties.

The **Caribbean Community Act, 2005** encompasses treaty having force of law; financial provisions; evidence; objectives of the community; non-discrimination; the organs of the community and their roles; and Councils for Human and Social Development, and Foreign and Community Relations.

The **Caribbean Community (Establishment, Services, Capital and Movement of Community Nationals) Act, 2006** includes the following: (a) rights of establishment (such as movement of restrictions and treatment of monopolies); (b) provision of services; movement of capital and foreign exchange provisions; (c) safeguard measures, security restrictions; and (d) appeals. Under

¹⁹ Exemptions are also granted to persons employed by government/statutory bodies, foreign spouses of Jamaicans, employees of UWI and University Hospital of the West Indies, and skilled professionals and technicians employed for 14–30 days.

the CSME Free Movement Initiative, over 14 categories of persons are permitted to move and work throughout the region. This freedom of movement is granted by the MLSS through the award of a Certificate of Recognition of CARICOM Skills Qualification. This certificate replaces the work permit for CARICOM nationals.

Returning nationals

Among emigrants who have returned, two groups attract particular interest in terms of policy: (a) voluntary returning migrants (returning residents); and (b) forced returnees (deportees).

Voluntary return

Policies for voluntary returning residents

The Government considers persons in this group as positive contributors because they are generally regarded as having gained skills and assets abroad that they then bring back to Jamaica. Therefore, government policy has generally been to encourage and facilitate their return home since the early 1990s. Strategies used to encourage return migration, even for a short time, have included incentives, such as information on jobs, linkages with prospective employers, favourable provisions for the importation of goods under the Customs Act and investment opportunities. The provisions made are in accordance with the policies outlined in Ministry Paper No.2/93, the Charter for Long Term Returning Residents. The challenge for policymakers is to create a supportive atmosphere that helps these return migrants reintegrate and enables them to use the skills and capital they may have accumulated while abroad.

Programmes for voluntary returning residents

The Returning Residents Programme, which began in 1993 and is still in operation, seeks to help Jamaican nationals return by providing a range of information on the procedures to obtain duty-free concession on personal household effects and tools of trade. The MFAFT and its overseas Missions provide a facilitative and supportive role to returning Jamaican nationals.

Enforced return

Deported migrants make up the second group of return migrants of particular relevance to policy. To date, the Government's approach to supporting and reintegrating deported migrants has largely been ad hoc, although various

ministries, including the Ministry of National Security (MNS) and the MLSS, have recently made efforts to reintegrate the deported migrants so they can make productive contributions to Jamaican society.

Policy for forced returnees

Policy pertaining to the enforced return of Jamaican nationals primarily relates to their reunification and reintegration in the society.

Programmes for forced returnees

Through the support of the Government of the United Kingdom, the Jamaica Reducing Re-Offending Action Plan (JRRAP) was implemented for this purpose. The Reintegration and Rehabilitation Programme (RRP), funded by the Government of the United Kingdom and implemented through both local State-based entities and NGOs, came to the end of its second phase (2009–2014) following a successful phase 1 (2008–2011). Through this programme, the Government of the United Kingdom provided financial support that helped increase the Government of Jamaica’s capacity to effectively reintegrate and rehabilitate deportees and offenders (RRP Project document, British High Commission, Kingston).

The RRP provided support to the Government of Jamaica through the MNS, which developed the JRRAP in response to the RRP to oversee and manage implementation. The JRRAP aimed to achieve the goal of “reducing the re-offending rate among deported migrants and local ex-offenders through the facilitation of effective rehabilitation and reintegration based interventions at the institutional and community levels” (MNS, 2014). Prior to the inception of the RRP, there were no structured programmes in place to facilitate reintegration of deported persons into Jamaican society (information from the MNS, 2009). The aims of the project were to provide support to economic development and social welfare in Jamaica by helping government reintegrate returning migrants and improve governance in managing the prison population (Information from the British High Commission, Jamaica, cited in Thomas-Hope, 2014).

Through its mandate to support persons forced to return to Jamaica from the United Kingdom, the RRP sought to help the returning migrants to reintegrate by:

- Providing emergency and short-term accommodation through a number of island-wide hostels that cater for men, women and children;
- Reuniting migrants with their families and friends;

- Training migrants in vocational skills and improving levels of literacy and numeracy;
- Helping migrants get the necessary documentation required to reintegrate back into society (such as Tax Registration Numbers, driver’s licences and birth certificates);
- A helpline to answer questions and queries to reassure and assist migrants;
- Counselling and case worker support on a case-by-case basis; and
- A key component of the activities carried out was to increase knowledge and awareness of the services available to returning Jamaicans. A DVD and comprehensive “Coming Home to Jamaica” booklet was produced to disseminate information on the support services available.
(Information from the British High Commission, Jamaica, 2014).

The RRP also worked in partnership with NGOs, in particular, the National Organization of Deported Migrants (NODM).

The IOM Kingston Office was the point of contact when individuals on the United Kingdom’s Facilitated Reintegration Services (FRS) programme returned to Jamaica. These returnees were asked to contact the office within a month of their return with the letter with which they would have been issued by the UK Border Agency at the time of departure. They would take this letter in along with proper identification to an interview by the IOM staff to ascertain their preferred choice of the assistance offered by the FRS and outlined in the Individual Reintegration Plan; the services offered included: (a) education/vocational training; (b) establishment of a business for income generation; (c) job placement; (d) accommodation; and (e) medical assistance. Once the application form was completed, it was sent to IOM London, where it was processed and funds transferred to service providers for whatever goods or services the returnees had requested. It was also compulsory for any businesses established that they would be registered with the Registrar of Companies.

There has also been a Plan of Action developed in support of involuntary returned migrants to Jamaica.

The overall goal of the Plan of Action is strengthening well-structured, independent, fully functional and professional mechanisms for a sustainable reintegration of involuntary returned migrants in the Jamaican society (Oliveira Reis, 2017). In order to achieve the overall goal, the stakeholders will be involved in the following:

- Strengthening mutual coordination;
- Ensuring a proper treatment for all involuntary returned migrant by taking into consideration their specific vulnerabilities and needs (vocational

training, job placements, income generation, housing and health assistance);

- Providing adequate capacity-building at all levels;
- Strengthening the effective system of monitoring and reporting;
- Developing innovative funding mechanisms and ensure sustainability of the actions; and
- Increasing awareness through public campaigns.

The Plan of Action covers all phases of the return process, from the notification of deportation to the assistance in different areas with an aim for a full sustainable social and economic reintegration of the involuntary returned migrants into the Jamaican society. All activities can be categorized into five key strategies: (a) Pre-Departure; (b) Arrival; (c) Return and Reintegration Assistance; (d) Monitoring and Evaluation, Sustainability; and (e) Information, Communication and Awareness.

Refugees

In keeping with the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, which sets out the rights of individuals granted asylum and the responsibilities of nations that grant asylum, it also sets out which individuals do not qualify for asylum, e.g., war criminals. The Convention makes allowance for visa-free travel for holders of travel documents issued under the Convention. As of August 2012, there were 19 signatories and 147 parties. Jamaica ratified this treaty in 1964, and a Refugee Policy was developed and approved by the Government of Jamaica in 2009. There have been no changes made to the policy since then. This establishes procedures for determining refugee status, prevents discrimination on the basis of race, gender, religion, nationality or political opinion, and outlines the rights and responsibilities of refugees (UNHCR).

Trafficking in persons

The issue of trafficking in persons has received much attention since 2006, when the United States gave Jamaica an unfavourable ranking in its Annual TIP Report. Jamaica was classified Tier 2 – Watch List in the TIP Report 2006 (June 5), based on the assessment that the Government of Jamaica did not fully meet the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking, but was making significant efforts to do so. The recommendations for Jamaica were as follows: (a) vigorously prosecute, convict and punish traffickers, including any officials complicit in sex or labour trafficking; (b) increase efforts to identify and assist victims of forced labour and sex trafficking, including sex trafficking of Jamaican children; (c) dedicate adequate funding to implement the national action

plan; (d) fully implement government-wide standard operating procedures to guide police, labour inspectors, child welfare officials and health workers in the proactive identification of local and foreign victims of forced labour and sex trafficking, including children exploited in commercial sex in night clubs, bars and massage parlours; (e) continue to support victims during the criminal justice process whether the victim resides in Jamaica or abroad to ensure the admissibility of testimony; (f) implement the national rapporteur's mandate to investigate reports of human trafficking, report on violations of the rights of victims and provide an annual report to the Government; and (g) continue efforts to raise awareness about human trafficking of both Jamaican citizens and foreign nationals.²⁰

Since 2005, the Government of Jamaica has been proactively addressing incidents of human trafficking with the establishment and operationalization of the NATFATIP, and the establishment of a Trafficking in Persons Unit in the police force to identify persons in breach of immigration laws and regulations and an Immigration Intelligence Unit. NATFATIP was established to strengthen legislative, institutional and operational capacity to combat TIP. Its core emphases have been the prevention and suppression of TIP, the prosecution of offenders and the protection and provision of assistance to victims of trafficking. In an effort to prevent and combat trafficking in persons, particularly for the most vulnerable, the Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) Act, which became law 2007, was enacted and later amended in 2013.

The Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) Act became law in 2007. It covers matters relating to the illegal trade of human beings for sexual and commercial exploitation. Its constituents include: (a) offences (by bodies corporate); (b) immunity of victims from prosecution; (c) assistance to and protection of victims; and (d) prevention. The law's provisions include punishing persons involved in human trafficking with a fine or prison terms of up to 10 years. The act also seeks to promote cooperation between Jamaica and other States in order to prevent and suppress trafficking in persons and to punish offenders (see IOM, *Jamaican Law Enforcement Guide to Investigation Manual: Practicalities of the Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment Act) 2007*).

The amended act of 2013 also includes: (a) widening of the definition of "exploitation" to refer not only to forced labour and slavery but also to "debt

²⁰ A feature of many of the reports received by the Office of the Children's Registry (OCR) is the occurrence of two or more forms of trafficking. Thus, the figures shown in Table 1 reflect the reported incidences of each category of report and may not add to the total number of children.

bondage”; (b) increase in the penalty for the offence of trafficking in persons; and (c) a new provision for offences akin to trafficking and other related matters, such as assault, carnal abuse, rape, child pornography, forced labour and forced begging. Section 4 of the amended act criminalizes trafficking, the facilitation of trafficking, or receiving financial or other benefits from trafficking. Amendments were made to the act and presented to Parliament in May 2013, such as increasing the penalty for the offence of trafficking in persons of an additional 10 years if there are aggravating factors. The amendments to the act also include provisions to facilitate timelier identification, removal and protection of victims of trafficking. The amendments empower Justices of the Peace, rather than judges, to issue a warrant to search for and remove from premises any victims of trafficking. The Justice of the Peace is also given statutory power to make orders relating to victims being placed and kept in a place of safety or otherwise as the circumstances permit or require for the protection and welfare of the victim.²¹

A protocol was also prepared to guide the repatriation of victims of trafficking. The act was based on the UN Convention on Transnational Organized Crime and the Palermo Protocol.²²

Since the enactment of the legislation, anti-trafficking institutions have been established as integral mechanisms to bolster national efforts. Among them was the implementation of the Anti-Trafficking in Persons and Intellectual Property Vice Squad located within the Counter Terrorism and Organized Crime Investigation Branch, a merger of the former Flying Squad and the Organized Crime Investigation Division (PIOJ, 2017).

The Government demonstrated increasing efforts by securing two convictions, prosecuting 9 trafficking cases against 13 alleged traffickers, and investigating 40 potential new trafficking cases. The Government developed a new victim protection protocol for health, labour and child welfare officials, identified 8 trafficking victims who were provided government shelter and services, and increased awareness-raising efforts.

The Government also maintained efforts to protect victims and demonstrated increasing efforts by identifying eight confirmed trafficking victims (all females) in 2015, compared to four confirmed victims (three men and one girl) in 2015. The Government developed a victim protection protocol and a standard operating procedure for health, labour and child welfare officials, but these had not been published. Other government officials continued to use

²¹ See <http://jis.gov.jm/amendments-to-trafficking-in-persons-act-for-parliament/>

²² See http://action.web.ca/home/catw/attach/un_protocol.pdf

a standard operating procedure for victim identification and granting temporary immigration status; these procedures recently led to the identification of two minor trafficking victims and a referral to the JCF anti-trafficking unit.

The children's registry did not report reports received of suspected trafficking cases for this reporting period, compared to 52 reports of suspected trafficking in the previous reporting period (140 between 2007 and 2015). The Government also offered protection to the eight identified victims and referred them to government or NGO care facilities for medical services, psychological services and financial assistance for basic necessities (OCR, cited in Government of Jamaica, 2017). The authorities encouraged victim testimony by providing victims with an orientation to the criminal justice process and equipping some courtrooms for remote video testimony to enable testimony from abroad. Authorities provided JMD 6.3 million (USD 49,220) for victim assistance in 2016, compared with JMD 13 million (USD 101,600) for victim assistance in 2015. In accordance with Jamaica's anti-trafficking law, the Government provided relief from deportation for one foreign national victim identified in the previous reporting period; this relief also included food, long-term shelter, education and counselling. The Government coordinated with another Caribbean government in preparation for the repatriation of a Jamaican victim, including by preparing relevant documents.

As a consequence, the *2017 Trafficking in Persons Report* by the US Department of State has ranked Jamaica at Tier 2 for its efforts to fight human trafficking in 2016.²³ The ranking signifies the increasing effort by the Government of Jamaica to eliminate trafficking, but still classified as failing to meet minimum standards. This allegation included that: (a) the Government of Jamaica did not hold officials who were complicit in trafficking responsible; (b) that it did not publish a protocol for victim protection; and (c) that it failed to publish an annual report on how it is dealing with trafficking. The report called for Jamaica to, among other things, allocate more funding to the national action plan on human trafficking, continue to support victims and educate the public, and follow the National Rapporteur's mandate to investigate reports of human trafficking. In 2016, two people were convicted of trafficking in Jamaica. There were 40 new trafficking cases investigated in 2016, up from 30 the previous year, and a higher number of victims were confirmed (NATFATIP information, 2017).

- (a) The Government increased efforts to prevent trafficking. The national anti-trafficking task force, through sub-committees on prevention, protection, and prosecution, continued to implement its national anti-trafficking plan valid through 2018. The MNS spent JMD 813,000

²³ See <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/news/20170629/jamaica-tier-two-trafficking-persons-report>

(USD 6,350) towards anti-trafficking prevention efforts in fiscal year 2016–2017.

- (b) The cabinet appointed a national rapporteur on trafficking in persons in early 2015 to investigate reports of trafficking, report on violations of the rights of victims, and provide an annual report to the government.
- (c) The Government engaged in public awareness activities on all forms of trafficking, including a campaign in schools and the media, a film screening, a comic book, an animated miniseries and the distribution of 70,000 copies of a pamphlet in a leading newspaper. The Government's efforts resulted in the sensitization of more than 17,000 students, teachers, government officials and community members. The MLSS educated the Jamaican participants about the risks of trafficking prior to departure on an overseas seasonal agricultural programme. The task force educated members of the tourism industry in major resort areas on indicators of trafficking and encouraged them to report suspected sex tourism.
- (d) The Government provided anti-trafficking training to diplomatic personnel, including the requirement for such personnel to enter into employment contracts with their domestic workers.
- (e) The NATFATIP at the local level expanded its inter-agency collaborations to bolster the implementation of actions towards mitigating TIP. Therefore, strategies and mechanisms aimed at investigating and prosecuting all forms of TIP features as a major priority for stakeholder groupings, public, private partners and governance frameworks that relate to migrants (e.g. the courts, police, local authorities, civil society groups, international organizations, MFAFT, MLSS, MNS and PICA).
- (f) The Child Development Agency (CDA) continues to support counter-trafficking efforts and work diligently to sensitize and educate its key decision makers (child protection officers and team members).
- (g) The regional heads of the Jamaica Hotel and Tourist Association have conducted sessions to sensitize first responders about human trafficking, including security guards, front-line and housekeeping staff. A number of public education campaigns were undertaken to raise awareness on the issue of TIP. Particular attention was placed on messaging to ensure that these campaigns were child sensitive.
- (h) The NATFATIP, through the Ministry of Justice (MOJ), has engaged in discussions with media houses to provide a range of mass media education content on TIP.
- (i) NATFATIP commissioned a study in 2015 to examine data analysis, scope and nature and emerging trends in relation TIP and in light

of the efforts made to increase public awareness, reform legislation and strengthen law enforcement and prosecutorial capacities.

- (j) The NATFATIP National Plan of Action (2012–2015) was amended to include the recommendations of the US Department of State’s 2014 TIP Report 13, which were centred on initiatives to bolster efforts at the prevention of TIP and the prosecution of TIP offenders.
- (k) With a view to implementing the recommendations of the 2014 TIP Report, NATFATIP will also engage in the following activities:

- Cement and expand partnerships with the NGOs, such as Open Arms Drop-in Centre, in the area of victim housing;
- Implement the memorandum of understanding (MOU) on data sharing;
- Develop protocols to guide the way in which TIP victims, especially children (who do not have guardian(s) or who are mentally challenged) are treated;
- Examine the merits of placing high-risk victims in the care of the Witness Protection Programme, if they are needed for trial;
- Develop and foster the sharing of intelligence data on TIP across the wider Caribbean; and
- Facilitate public awareness campaigns, particularly in rural areas and schools.

International organizations have provided technical and financial support towards counter-trafficking measures in Jamaica. Coordination was evident in the areas of public awareness, capacity-building, research and development. In 2001, the ILO commissioned a study titled *Jamaica: Situation of Children in Prostitution: A Rapid Assessment* that provided further insight into the local trafficking scenario. Similarly, in 2005, the IOM supported an Exploratory Assessment of Trafficking in Persons in the Caribbean, as well as the development of the *Jamaican Law Enforcement Guide to Investigation Manual: Practicalities of the Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) Act, 2007*. The latter continues to support the work of law enforcement officers and prosecutors.

In 2014, with support provided by the IOM, regional capacities were further strengthened through the hosting of a Counter-trafficking Workshop that was held in Trinidad and Tobago. Emphasis was placed on the facilitation of public outreach programmes relating to TIP. Participants included Jamaica, as well as Trinidad and Tobago, Antigua and Barbuda, Aruba and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. In the same year, Jamaica hosted the Regional Cooperation Workshop on Countering Human Trafficking with judiciary representatives. Frameworks such as the CSME have facilitated regional movement, and in

this regard, Jamaica has partnered with regional counterparts to enforce mechanisms to control these movements. Guided by the strategic imperatives of the National Plan of Action and the Minimum Standards for the elimination of TIP documents, the Office of the Director of Public Prosecutions assisted in bringing several matters before the courts. Notwithstanding, these efforts were hampered mainly by the absconding of alleged offenders and reluctance of witnesses to provide evidence through testimony (Report of the NATFATIP on Government of Jamaica Efforts to Combat Trafficking in Persons April 2014–March 2015) (Government of Jamaica, 2017).

Emigration

In spite of the negative impact of Jamaica’s high levels of skilled and tertiary-educated emigration, the Government has always subscribed to the principle of the right to freedom of movement. Nevertheless, the Government has become aware of the need to be able to exercise control over worker recruiting agents operating in the country. Therefore, the **Foreign Recruiting Act, 1875**, which assigned ministerial power to “prohibit or limit recruiting for any foreign state”, has remained in force, though it has not been applied in recent times. Instead, **the Employment Agencies Regulation Act, 1957**, is used to ensure registration/licensing of recruiting agents whether based locally or overseas. Notably, strict adherence to this has not been maintained especially by overseas agents who come to Jamaica for short periods, invite applicants through the media for posts in their country (primarily in health and education), and screen them on the spot. This is currently an issue of policy concern of the relevant government agency. The amended **Employment Agencies Regulation Act, 2007**, gives power to regulate and provide oversight to employment agencies operating in Jamaica. It is relevant to powers of entry and inspection of premises, application for and duration of licences, payment of fees and bond requirements for placement of employees abroad.

The **Emigrants Protection Act, 1925**, relates to the security of emigrants and requires that persons going to a country designated by the responsible minister as necessitating a travel permit must obtain such a permit from the authorities. The act covers the following: (a) application to leave the island; (b) need for procuring a permit to travel; (c) powers of the minister (such as country provisions and reparation fees); (d) registration of recruiting agents; (e) obtaining documents by false pretences; (f) offences for false documents; (g) penalties and the powers of constables; and (h) agreement with foreign country.

Persons recruiting persons in Jamaica to work in other countries also have to be registered by the Commissioner of Police. The **Recruiting of Workers Act (1940)** deals with emigrants going to countries other than those declared under the Emigrants Protection Act. It protects workers who are recruited in Jamaica for employment at home or abroad by stipulating obligations of recruiters, including provisions for repatriation of recruits when necessary. The amended Recruiting of Workers Act of 1969 deals directly with the following: (a) recruitment of workers from foreign countries; (b) licensing of persons who wish to recruit workers; (c) examination of workers; and (d) return of workers to their homes. None of these three statutes are currently relied upon as contractual obligations and bilateral country agreements have largely taken their place.

The **Passport Act (1935)** specifies the conditions under which a Jamaican national may be granted a Jamaican passport for travel. The **Amended Passport Act, 1979**, covers the following: (a) document issue and renewal; (b) document validation; (c) power (through the Minister) of representative institutions overseas; (d) appointment of officers; (e) fees; and (f) offences and penalties.

Other laws that pertain to migration-related issues are: (a) **Customs Act (1941 as amended)**; (b) **Child Care and Protection Act (2004)**; and (c) **Criminal Justice Act (2010)**.

Labour migration

Overseas Work Programme

As indicated in part A and B.2 of this Migration Profile, a long-standing emigration programme has been in place to provide short-term contract employment for low and semi-skilled Jamaican workers in North America, based on bilateral agreements between the Government of Jamaica and the governments of the United States and Canada. The families of workers participating in short-term overseas employment are attended to through the Overseas Workers Family Services of MLSS. Social workers visit the families to ensure that their needs are being addressed and provide monthly reports to the workers (Dunn and Gibb, 2010).

The US Programme has operated since 1943, and the Jamaica Central Labour Organisation (JCLC) based in Washington, D.C. has provided welfare services to all Caribbean workers on the programme. An administrative fee of approximately 4 per cent of workers' wages was, in the past, deducted to help to fund the Liaison Service that gives assistance in a wide range of areas.

Under a special saving plan for workers, 23 per cent of their foreign exchange earnings were remitted to the Government of Jamaica, and this was paid back to them in Jamaican dollars. Thus, the Government derived a small financial benefit. However, in 2008, the US Citizenship and Immigration Service debarred United States employers from collecting fees from anyone who was working in the United States as a temporary migrant worker. There have been no further changes in policies relating to the programme since 2011.

The Canadian Programme started in 1966 and was expanded in 2008 to incorporate the Hospitality and Skilled Worker component. Worker welfare is overseen by the Jamaica Liaison Service, which employs 8 persons compared with approximately 40 in the JCLO in the United States. However, Canada recently modified its immigration policy to place less reliance on permanent migrants and more on short-term migrant labour to fill skill shortages and drive its economy. This is done through its TFWP, which has thereby opened up new employment opportunities for migrant workers. The MLSS has forged partnerships with several training institutions in Canada, as well as the local National Training Agency in order to equip Jamaicans for these job openings (Dunn and Gibb, 2010).

Emigration to CSME Member States

Jamaica has been deeply committed to regional integration, which is currently realized through the Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM) established in 1973 by the Treaty of Chaguaramas. In 1989, this treaty – which promoted collaboration in areas such as domestic production, telecommunications and foreign policy – was revised to institute the CSME that is intended to strengthen the countries’ economies by enabling them to share a single “regional economic space”. The provisions made towards this end include having free movement of goods, capital and people. Notably, mobility of persons for employment does not give the right to permanent residence nor citizenship (Labour Market Information System).

Implementation of the CSME has been slow, but a number of initiatives have been taken across the region to date. As stated in part B.2 on immigration, these include the following: (a) legislation to modify the need for a work permit and relax visa requirements so as to permit ease of entry and indefinite stay; (b) introduction of an umbrella training body (Caribbean Association of National Training Agencies) and common certification (Caribbean Vocational Qualification), as well as a CARICOM Passport and Skills Certificate; and (c) right to portability of social security benefits. The statutory provision for

labour mobility is the Caribbean Community (Free Movement of Skilled Persons) Act, which gives selected categories of workers from CARICOM countries preferential treatment, whereby a work permit is not required, but they should be in possession of a Certificate of Recognition of CARICOM Skills Qualification (or Skills Certificate). This legislation has been enacted in all CARICOM countries and is at various stages of implementation in these countries. The act is fully operational in Jamaica permitting free entry to 10 categories of workers.²⁴

Emigration of highly skilled persons

To address the problem of the outflow of high-level skills (“brain drain”), policy responses have included bonding, increased training output and recruitment of workers from overseas. Bonding is widely used in the public sector whereby individuals trained at the expense of the State are required to give a specified period of service in return; this is only applied to persons who have received direct personal education/training assistance, and the benefits obtained by the general population who receive subsidized education/training is disregarded. Increased local training output is particularly evident in relation to nurses where there is critical under-supply. Recruitment of workers from overseas is widely practiced, and is particularly important in the health sector. The length of the bonding period depends on how much government money the person had received for training. No bond is required for grants of less than JMD 300,000 (under USD 3,500), but up to five years of service can be required for grants of JMD 2 million (around USD 23,000) or more (Government of Jamaica, 2017).

The Ministry of Finance and the Public Service oversees the bonding policy under the Employment Agencies Regulations Act, 2007. However, different ministries, agencies and government departments that bonded individuals work for can modify the generic policy to serve their particular institutional requirements. As a policy instrument for securing the labour of individuals studying abroad, bonding has not been successful, as a significant proportion of those studying abroad have remained in the countries in which they studied. Many have repaid their bond to avoid returning to Jamaica. Therefore, a high proportion of the Jamaican population with tertiary-level education is lost to the country. If the Government of Jamaica wants these people to return immediately, it could consider raising the cost of the bond (op. cit.).

²⁴ Graduates from all recognized universities in the world, artists, musicians, sportspersons, media workers, teachers, professional nurses, artisans; holders of an associate degree or comparable qualification, managers, technical and supervisory staff attached to a company or self-employed persons.

The diaspora

Engagement with the diaspora

A Jamaican Diaspora Advisory Board was created in 2005 and reports to the Minister of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade. The Jamaican Diaspora Foundation Limited became operational in 2009, along with its operating arm, the Jamaica Diaspora Institute. Dialogue with organizations in the diaspora has continued since 2011, including the Biennial Diaspora Conferences held in Jamaica and which are intended to mobilize the diaspora's contribution to national development. Diaspora initiatives are managed by the Diaspora Affairs Department within the MFAFT, with the support of a Diaspora Development Officer and Community Relations officers in London and New York. Their role includes the following: (a) implementation of the range of initiatives of the Government, (b) provision of guidance with respect to the processes for philanthropic donations; (c) settling or resettling migrants; and (d) increasingly facilitate, as well as promote trade and investment opportunities.

The involvement of the Future Leaders programme started in 2006, with young persons attending the 2006 Diaspora Conference in that year. The United Kingdom formed a Jamaica Diaspora Youth Association in 2007. The United States does not have a future leader group nor does Canada. The Jamaican Diaspora Future Leaders forum covers Jamaicans age 35 and under living outside of Jamaica. A special Jamaica Global Young Leaders Forum was held in 2017 under the theme "Mobilizing, Motivating and Activating Together – Strengthening Connections and Growing as Leaders". Participants included global young leaders, young leaders of Jamaican descent in the diaspora and young Jamaican leaders residing in Jamaica (MFAFT).

The forum covered three topics identified by the global young leaders and were aligned with Jamaica's development priorities including economic growth, while promoting social advocacy, collegial support and bold leadership. The topics were as follows:

- (a) Entrepreneurship whereby business opportunities available to global young leaders in the diaspora and Jamaica were discussed;
- (b) Deepening cultural ties and affinity with Jamaica; and
- (c) Mentoring young people.

Recommendations of the forum were made to: Promote cultural tourism through partnerships so that young members of the diaspora visiting Jamaica have the opportunity to experience the “real Jamaica”; and pool expertise to assist in a mentorship programme for youth in the Housing, Opportunity, Production, Employment (HOPE) Initiative in Jamaica (MFAFT, 2017e).

Each country is tasked with maintaining its own future leaders group within the framework of educating members about the history of Jamaica and the current state of Jamaica, collecting ideas, identifying projects and mobilizing teams to generate benefits for Jamaica and the respective diaspora locations. A Future Leaders Conference was held in Jamaica in 2009.

The effectiveness of these different government initiatives has not yet been comprehensively assessed.

Remittances

Money transfer policies have been formulated in light of the occurrence of international money laundering.

Since 2013, the survival of remittance companies has been brought into question as a result of measures being implemented by the global banking industry (PIOJ, 2015).

C.1.2.2. Human rights and social protection

Human rights

Jamaica’s human rights principles are embedded in the Charter of Fundamental Rights and Freedoms contained in the Constitution. **The Jamaica (Constitution) Order in Council, 1962**, is the highest law in Jamaica and gives force and effects to other laws of the country. It addresses relevant issues such as the following: (a) citizenship; (b) fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals; (c) foremost institutions in the political governance of the country; (d) political representation; and (e) the roles of the executive and the judiciary in legal and economic development.

In 2011, the **Charter of Fundamental Rights and Freedoms (Constitutional Amendment) Act** was brought into force to address the fundamental rights and freedoms afforded to “all persons in Jamaica” (i.e., life, liberty, security

of persons, freedom of thought, freedom of expression, opinion, freedom of assembly, freedom of movement, the right to equality before the law, rights of children and right to a passport). It also deals with protection of property rights, the right to due process, freedom of religion and the status of marriage. In the case of education, only children who are citizens have a right to publicly funded tuition up to the primary level. While there are no local laws specifically protecting the rights of immigrants, Jamaica has ratified seven of the nine core international human rights treaties (see Table 10). It has also ratified all the six international instruments protecting migrants' rights.²⁵

- Labour Market Reform Commission Agenda Report has been drafted (2015).
- CDA and OCR are to be merged (November 2017) to form a new Child Protection Agency, implying a better coordinated service for children.
- National Social Protection Committee has been established (July 2014).
- Ratification of Protocol of 2014 to the Forced Labour Convention (in June 2017) at ILO.
- Bureau of Women's Affairs changed to Bureau of Gender Affairs (March 2016) and gender focal points established in each ministry for better policy coherence (gender mainstreaming), encouraged by the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean Gender Equality Observatory.
- The MNS established a Crime Observatory (September 2013).
- Occupational Safety and Health Act 2017 has been tabled (white paper). The ILO Decent Work Agenda inspired this and supports Jamaica's own decent work agenda, which aims to encourage work equity and security governed by the MLSS. Labour Market Reform Agenda Report was developed.

Additionally, Jamaica is a signatory to several international conventions that support the articulation of fundamental human rights.

²⁵ Namely the Vienna Convention on Consular Relations (Protecting Migrants' Rights to Consular Access and Protection); the UN Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (applied to refugee situations before 1951); the UN Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees (applied to refugee situations after 1951); the UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families; International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention concerning Migration for Employment (No. 97); and the ILO Convention concerning Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers (No. 143).

International conventions

Treaties relating to migrants and the free movement of people that Jamaica has ratified are chiefly those listed below (Table 10).

Table 10: Jamaica's ratification of human rights treaties

Title of treaty/Instrument	Signature	Party
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights	19 December 1966	3 October 1975
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)	19 December 1966	03 October 1975
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	17 July 1980	19 October 1984
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination	14 August 1966	04 June 1971
Convention on the Rights of the Child	26 January 1990	14 May 1991
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	30 March 2007	30 March 2007
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families	25 September 2008	25 September 2008
Universal Declaration of Human Rights	(Voted on 10 December 1948) Jamaica did not vote because was not yet independent but principles later enshrined in constitutional law	
United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime	26 September 2001	29 September 2003 ratification
The Caribbean Community (Free Movement of Skilled Persons under the CSME)	July 1997	July 1997
Millennium Declaration, which emphasizes humanitarian law, international human rights and sustainable development	8 September 2000	

Recent developments in relation to international conventions include the formulation of a protocol for the treatment of refugees. Worthy of note is that even prior to the protocol on refugees, the treatment afforded to refugees historically has been in keeping with international standards; for example, the MLSS reports that following the Haitian earthquake in 2009, refugees were provided with medical assistance, food and shelter, pending the decision as to their formal status as refugees (Thomas-Hope, Knight and Noel, 2012).

Social protection

The concept of social protection encapsulates several human rights issues but is distinct from human rights. Social protection is directly linked to Vision 2030 Jamaica, where it is a defined national outcome (Government of Jamaica, 2015:14). Jamaica has not yet formally ratified the minimum level of

social protection that the country will offer to migrants. However, the UN and the ILO's Social Protection Floor Initiative, which promotes basic social security guarantees, is providing the basis for evaluating the level of social protection benefits to the accorded migrants. As a signatory to the CARICOM Agreement on Social Security, Jamaica is required to commit to providing invalid, disability, old age/retirement and death/survivor benefits to CARICOM nationals on established, reciprocal terms to ensure equality of treatment when persons move within the region. Jamaica has bilateral social security agreements with the United Kingdom, Canada and CARICOM. These agreements enable countries to coordinate their social security programmes, thereby protecting certain social security rights of both migrants and citizens in each country respectively (Government of Jamaica, 2015b).

The significance of the strengthening of the legislative, policy and strategic planning and implementation framework for social protection, including component elements such as poverty reduction, represents the development of a coordinated and structured road map for achieving national and international development goals regarding the achievement of effective social protection. A coordinated framework also facilitates improved monitoring and evaluation of national processes and better informs programme design and implementation of both new and existing social security programmes, including those that fall under the remit of the MLSS (PIOJ, 2015).

In terms of social protection, immigrants have access to local pension and health-related benefits, in the same manner as Jamaicans. Therefore, if employed, immigrants are required to participate in the NIS, which is a compulsory contributory pension scheme, and are entitled to participate in other public or private sector pension arrangements. They are also entitled to health-care services and subsidies for health-care support (such as the National Health Fund and the Drugs for the Elderly Programme). In the area of social assistance or welfare, there is some lack of clarity concerning immigrants' entitlements to existing programmes, such as the conditional cash transfer programme, the Programme for Advancement through Health and Education (PATH). Nevertheless, under the **Deportation (Commonwealth Citizens) Act** and the **Aliens Act**, a destitute immigrant may be repatriated.

The migration of working age parents has also had a negative impact on Jamaican families, especially children. The recently enacted **Child Care and Protection Act (2004)** provided an important statutory provision for protecting these children by sanctioning the discharge of responsibilities necessary to prevent abuse or abandonment.

Some social protection for migrant workers is assured through reciprocal social security agreements with the United Kingdom and Canada, permitting portability of pension benefits. To date, there is only an informal agreement of this nature with the United States. Furthermore, as previously indicated (part B.3. on emigrants), the recent policy dictates that no wage deductions can be made for workers on the OWP, which means that these workers stand to lose out in relation to the pension benefits to be obtained from the NIS. Within the region, the CARICOM Agreement on Social Security (CASS) was signed by Member States in 1996 to permit portability of pension rights and ensure equity in treatment of migrant workers across countries. Benefits are provided for invalidity, disablement, old age and retirement, survivors and death allowances. It is reported that applications for benefit from the CASS to date have been few, but analysis has shown that there is need for refinement of the agreement, and it has been recommended that steps be taken by CARICOM Member States to further enhance portability by harmonizing country regulations and in the medium to long term, develop a unified regulatory framework (Forteza, 2008).

In March 2014, Jamaica made an important step towards defining a structured set of parameters for effective social protection, when the **Jamaica Social Protection Strategy (SPS)** was approved by the Cabinet (op.cit.). The SPS provides a comprehensive, rights-based perspective to systematic interventions in social protection, and also defines elements of the country's social protection floor. While recognizing that significant efforts are already in place through initiatives to address aspects of social protection, the SPS will strengthen the delivery of interventions through State and non-State entities by providing a strategic framework within a common vision. Importantly, the issue of migration has been flagged within the SPS as a cross-cutting dynamic with serious social protection impact.

Jamaica has existing social protection measures that promote, protect and safeguard basic human rights. Measures range from the existing education and health systems, social housing, insurance schemes and more direct social safety net mechanisms such as **PATH**. Recent research on migrant families in Jamaica shows that numerous migrant families were not fully utilizing social assistance programmes. It was observed that less than 15 per cent of migrant households overall utilized the existing social assistance schemes provided by the Government. This occurs although there were high levels of awareness by migrant households of these schemes (specifically PATH). The policy presents an opportunity to address these issues.

One critical aspect of social protection is the health system within a country. Health personnel are stationed for limited times of the day at Jamaica's international airports (and attendant quarantine facilities) to give advice or take action where persons are arriving from (health) high-risk locations.

With respect to overseas health programmes, two of the major countries to which Jamaicans migrate (i.e. United Kingdom and Canada) have offered highly subsidized health care for all, including regular migrants. Within the context of the United States, with the enactment of the Affordable Care Act, 2010 (proposed as a tax cut in 2017) in the United States, all citizens including naturalized migrants have been, up to the present time, afforded quality health care through a plethora of reform measures that lowered the cost of care while providing increased coverage. These schemes are not portable; as such, there is an opportunity for Jamaica to promote cross-border health exchanges (including insurance). This trajectory also offers opportunities for the development of geriatric care and health tourism for migrants and returned residents. If these opportunities were maximized, it would improve not just the health indicators of the nation but also Jamaica's overall development index.

Jamaica has a contributory NIS, which is administered by the MLSS for hired workers and the self-employed (3% of income). It is also open to Jamaican migrants overseas, including those desiring to make voluntary contributions. The challenge of maximizing this option was that the NIS was, in the past, still using the method of inserting stamps into a card that made it impractical for Jamaican emigrants overseas to contribute. The system has been modernized recently to facilitate easier payment methods for Jamaicans in the diaspora. In addition, there is the need for greater education to emigrants to increase their social protection benefit especially those who are nearing retirement.

C.2. Key institutional actors involved in migration management and diasporas

C.2.1. Government agencies

The development of policies in relation to migration and development has been led by PIOJ and MFAFT. Multisectoral and multi-agency teams from MDAs, the private sector, NGOs and civil society bodies supported the development of the policy and contributed to the recommended outcomes and actions that will promote policy coherence at all levels.

The STATIN is tasked under an MOU of the Mainstreaming Migration into National Development Strategies Project to facilitate the development and implementation of the national migration database. Work undertaken by STATIN to date has included the following:

- Development of meta data sheets;
- Development of migration and development indicator mapping list;
- Development of migration database framework platform;
- Preliminary sourcing of data from respective MDAs to upload on migration database, Passport Immigration and Citizenship Agency, MLSS and Jamaica Customs Agency; and
- Execution of the Population and Housing Censuses and the Survey of Living Conditions, together with the processing, management and reporting of the data output.

There are six agencies of government with prime responsibility for migration matters, as follows:

- MNS
- PICA
- MLSS
- JCF
- MFAFT
- MOJ

The MNS has the role of protecting Jamaica against internal and external threats and ensuring the safety of Jamaica's borders. The PICA operates as the front-line agency at the border, and the police force (JCF) is a department of the ministry. MNS maintains responsibility for deportees entering the country, ensuring verification of their identity and having the responsibility to see to their reintegration and rehabilitation. MNS is also the lead agency responsible for enforcing the Trafficking in Persons Act and is supported in this by the other five government agencies and others as well.

PICA is an executive agency of the MNS and has responsibility for border control, providing services related to the acquisition of passports, and granting permanent residence and citizenship status. On internal matters, PICA maintains a close working relationship with the MLSS and JCF, while it liaises with the MFAFT on matters affecting other nation States. PICA works closely with MLSS because the issuance of work permits (and exemptions) that are administered by MLSS is a critical feature of immigration processes. They are the main avenue

by which non-visitors either enter or remain in the island, as noted above. The JCF addresses matters concerning the security profiling of persons at the request of agencies, such as PICA, MLSS and MFAFT.

The MLSS has the following mandates: (a) protect Jamaican workers' rights, whether local or overseas; (b) uphold local labour guidelines, policies and laws; (c) eliminate the worst forms of child labour; and (d) protect the well-being of vulnerable or at-risk persons in Jamaica, such as those below the poverty line, those with disabilities and the elderly. In relation to migration, the ministry processes workers that are being recruited to meet the needs of the local labour market, primarily doing so by granting work permits and exemptions in accordance with national policy. It also manages the circular migration of Jamaican labour for temporary employment under the Government's OWP, while it also licenses, regulates and monitors the operations of private employment agencies or recruiters of workers for permanent or short-term employment both locally and overseas.

The MFAFT, through its headquarters in Kingston and its global network of Missions and Honorary Consuls, assists in border control by the provision of information to those wishing to enter the country and by processing and issuing visas to foreign nationals in collaboration with PICA. Additionally, it is integrally involved in the negotiation of international agreements, at the unilateral and bilateral levels, aimed at border control. The MFAFT promotes and safeguards the interests of Jamaica and Jamaicans overseas; inter alia, the Missions accept applications for Jamaican passports and Jamaican citizenship, disburses pensions payments and protects the rights of those detained or incarcerated or being deported. The ministry also safeguards the rights of minors who have been placed in foster care. In this regard, the ministry works collaboratively with the Child Protection and Family Services Agency. MFAFT also has prime responsibility for relations with the diaspora and for strengthening their linkages with national development. One of the means of diaspora engagement is biennial diaspora conferences, and through the Diaspora Advisory Board – which was established to work closely with the ministry – consists of representatives from the United Kingdom, Canada and the United States. A second means of diaspora engagement as already mentioned is through the Jamaica Diaspora Foundation Limited and its operational arm, the Diaspora Institute. MFAFT also links members of the diaspora to Jamaica Promotions Ltd. (JAMPRO), which is the government agency responsible for promoting investment in Jamaica and has offices in Toronto, Canada and London, United Kingdom. A Joint Select Committee of Parliament ensures broad-based involvement in diaspora matters at the highest level of decision-making.

The MOJ is responsible for providing legal advice to all government agencies and ensuring the protection of the human rights of all persons in the country. NATFATIP is located in the MOJ with special responsibilities in relation to trafficking in persons.

The agencies described above are linked to each other through their various responsibilities in relation to migration and the overseas communities (Table 11).

Table 11: Matrix of institutional responsibilities for migration issues

Issues	PICA	MLSS	MFAFT	MNS	MOJ	JCF
Border control	Support		Support	Main		Support
Employment/Imported labour	Support	Main				
Circular migration/ Exported labour	Support	Main	Support			
Refugees	Support	Support		Main		Support
Deportees			Support	Main		Support
Trafficking in persons	Support	Support	Support	Main	Support	Support
Permanent residence/ Citizenship	Main	Support		Support		Support
Human rights/Social protection		Main			Main	Support
Diaspora/Returning residents/Investments			Main			

In addition to the six main players, the Jamaica Customs Department plays a vital role in relation to the entry of goods brought in by new and returning migrants; the PIOJ has monitored and given policy advice on migration matters, established the national migration and development policy and has responsibility for the institutional framework for promoting more coherent and coordinated migration management. Additionally, many employers in both public and private sectors are involved in migration, as they recruit manpower to compensate for local skill shortages, as for example, for the health sector.

C.2.2. Non-governmental and private sector organizations

The involvement of NGOs in migration-related issues centre around deportees, the diaspora, returning residents and trafficking in persons.

Partnership with NGOs

The NODM was established as an NGO in 2011 with support of the British High Commission, to assist deported persons and administrative removals to return and reintegrate into society. The NODM has been a key partner with the British High Commission since 2011, providing assistance in encouraging and facilitating compliant removals and reducing the motivation to travel illegally back to the United Kingdom. The executive members of NODM who were responsible for managing the organization on a day-to-day basis were themselves forcibly returned to Jamaica from their former migration destination countries. This meant that they had valuable insights into the removal process and the concerns, anxieties and challenges faced by persons on, and following, their forced return to Jamaica.

Other NGOs with which the programme has worked have included the following:

- (a) Open Arms – based in Kingston, this NGO provides short-term emergency accommodation, case working support, counselling, re-documentation and skills training (including barbering, information technology, sewing and entrepreneurship) for United Kingdom (and other) deportees.
- (b) Open Heart – based in Montego Bay, Open Heart provides daily drop-in services for homeless men and women providing meals, clothing and counselling support for those in need. Residential and training facilities are also offered at a night shelter outside of the city centre. Agricultural skills training programmes are provided through a working farm located in the hills of Montego Bay. United Kingdom deportees have priority both within the night shelter and on the training programme.
- (c) Portland Rehabilitation Management – based in Portland, Portland Rehabilitation offers accommodation, case working support, counselling and mental health care.
- (d) Marie Atkins and Good Samaritans – both offer emergency overnight accommodation. Marie Atkins provides support to both men and women (and their dependants), while the Good Samaritans provide support to men only. Funds from the RRP were used to help refurbish their facilities.

International NGOs have also been involved in extending programmes to assist the reintegration of deported persons. Among the main players are the following:

- (a) The Family Unification Resettlement Initiative was established in 2002. This group, which has offices in both Jamaica and the United States, liaises with government agencies to help deportees reintegrate, including assistance to find living arrangements, seeking counselling and access vocational training.
- (b) Open Doors established a drop-in centre in Kingston, Jamaica, in November 2006. The role of this centre in the context of migration relates to its work as a refuge and service to deported persons who are homeless, as well as trafficked persons by providing temporary accommodation.
- (c) Hope for Children Development Co. and Help Age International implemented a component to increase the protection and social inclusion of families of migrants particularly in multi-generational households in inner city communities (Help Age International and Hope for Children Development Company Ltd., 2010).

Other organizations include Community Group Homes, Second Chance, the Returning Residents Association and the Salvation Army. Services provided are wide ranging and include emergency accommodation, assistance with reconnecting with family and friends, counselling, health care and referrals for training. Hibiscus, which is now closed, had provided emergency accommodation for returned females and their dependants with case working support and advice.

The main local players for NGOs working with the diaspora are the Diaspora Foundation and the Returning Residents Associations. Returning residents comprise the membership of approximately 30 associations and including interest groups in Jamaica, plus a number of others overseas. They provide information using multimedia sources, networking and a variety of services to assist in easing the resettlement process of subsequent returning residents. Some support is made available to the Government in its anti-trafficking thrust by NGOs, particularly Women Incorporated and People's Action for Community Transformation, a coalition of 26 community-based organizations and NGOs working primarily in eastern Jamaica. It provides assistance to victims of trafficking, such as shelter, food and clothing and help to sensitize the general population about trafficking.

The European Commission-United Nations former Joint Migration and Development Initiative had targeted 16 countries, including Jamaica, in 2009, supporting projects for civil society and local authorities to link migration and development and eventually feed into policymaking. Three component projects were implemented by Jamaican NGOs association with international groups in 2010: (a) Hibiscus Centre; (b) Caribbean Enterprise Network (CENUK) (an overseas NGOs, also based in the United Kingdom that contributes to diaspora involvement); and (c) the Diaspora Foundation in partnership with Kajans Women's Enterprise, a diaspora organization from the United Kingdom, which established a web-based portal for connecting Jamaica and the diaspora, to comprise databases, such as a diaspora skills bank/jobs bank, community-based projects in Jamaica and so on, thereby strengthening communication links.

A number of initiatives through partnerships have been launched since 2010, and most recently one between the Small Business Association of Jamaica, CENUK and the Jamaica Stock Exchange marked the signing of a MOU on 28 February 2017.²⁶

The private sector

In the private sector, the JNB (formerly the JNBS), Grace Kennedy Money Services (Western Union) and VMBS are the main organizations promoting diaspora involvement in national development by providing loans for investment purposes. Services offered to facilitate this include remittance operations, linkages with local investment opportunities, information dissemination and sponsorship of government agencies' involvement in overseas investment seminars.

International organizations

Internationally, close relationships with other State parties are maintained, particularly in the main destination countries, to ensure that migration-related policy guidelines are kept updated and understood and all relevant information, such as security profiles of migrants, is shared. PICA also works closely with INTERPOL on border security matters. To address trafficking, the countries with which the Government of Jamaica mainly cooperates are the United States, India, Panama and the Dominican Republic as these are reported as the main countries where Jamaican victims of human trafficking have been located.

²⁶ See www.jamstockex.com/tag/caribbean-enterprise-network/

In relation to deportees, as noted above, the Government of the United Kingdom has greatly helped in the development of an appropriate Jamaican response to the problem through the Jamaica Rehabilitation and Reintegration Programme discussed above. The IOM has also provided assistance to asylum seekers and irregular migrants for their reintegration in Jamaica. This includes vocational training, accommodation and small business support inter alia. They have also given technical assistance for training immigration, customs and police officers in relation to profiling human traffickers and victims. Additionally, support was recently given in Jamaica to assist trafficking victims from India with shelter, food, medical care and voluntary repatriation. Finally, the Government was assisted by IOM and the Global Migration Group with the provision of a Migration and Development Profile 2011, followed by the formulation of the migration and development policy.

Funding sources for governance

In Jamaica, there will be a predictable source of financing supported by the Government of Jamaica budget, private sector especially remittance companies, and diaspora financial contributions and institutional capacity-building, to enable these administrative and governance arrangements to work effectively. These funds will be complemented by major projects funded by international bodies, such as the IOM, European Union, IADB and the World Bank.

C.3. Analysis of policy coherence

C.3.1. Policy coherence in migration management

A close-knit working relationship has had to be maintained between the various government agencies handling migration matters. Until very recently (within the last decade), this has not been through committee-based interaction, but primarily ad hoc coordination in response to the necessity of information sharing as it arose. Decision-making was generally not a joint agency responsibility but took place unilaterally. Between the Government and non-State agencies, there used to be even less interaction, but coordination increased as a result of the anti-trafficking thrust, work with deportees and the new thrust emerging after the results of the formation of the NWGIMD, the recommendations of Migration Profile 2011 and formulation of the National Migration Policy.

Immigration and emigration

It was recommended that, given that work permits were aligned with immigration, improved communication was needed between PICA and MLSS. A one-stop shop for work permit and immigration matters was recommended. In a broader sense, it was noted that greater policy coherence and awareness building were needed at the time of issuance of visas. This was also being done, but not systematically.

In an overlap with labour mobility, policy coherence also seemed to be an issue with one aspect of the farm workers programme. Stakeholders from outside of the MLSS suggested that the ministry needed to better inform farm work applicants about visa eligibility requirements so that those who are not eligible or likely to become eligible do not pay costly visa fees unnecessarily.

Diaspora

Efforts to mobilize the diaspora for development have been a priority of the Government of Jamaica in the overall thrust towards optimizing the connection between migration and development. Diaspora initiatives by the Government of Jamaica have been supported by a number by the private sector and non-governmental sector, as well as by international organizations.

The Effective and Sustainable Diaspora Engagement for Development in the Caribbean (ESDEDC) project is implemented by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in close collaboration with government ministries responsible for external affairs in Belize, Guyana, Jamaica and Suriname. This project complements the effort of each government as they seek to capitalize on the human and financial resources available among the diaspora community within host and home countries.

Through specific actions, ESDEDC will help the Government of Jamaica to bridge the gaps with its diaspora residing in Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States, as well as with other countries with smaller diaspora populations by facilitating the following: (a) transfer of skills; (b) FDI; (c) sourcing of developmental funds; and (d) other resources that can support the growth and development of Jamaica. To achieve these objectives, the Government of Jamaica intends to furnish the Jamaican diaspora with key information and tools to encourage their investment towards economic growth in Jamaica. In addition, the Government of Jamaica will explore more meaningful ways of garnering both human and financial resources for the establishment of community and

entrepreneurial development initiatives that will enable growth, productivity, exports and employment in strategic sectors (ESDEDC, 2017b).

During the period 2013 to 2015, IOM and the Government of Jamaica implemented the Mapping Jamaica's Diaspora Project (launched in 2014). The Mapping Jamaica's Diaspora Project was designed to ascertain the location, interests and skills of the Jamaican diaspora globally with a view to identifying opportunities for further engagement. The project was funded by the IOM through its Development Fund in the amount of USD 100,000.00 for an 18-month project beginning January 2014 to September 2015. The project was further extended to 21 months to facilitate data collection. It will also facilitate the analysis and assessment of possible linkages between diaspora interests in local investment and the Government's priority development areas for the upcoming period, FY 2017/2018.

The Mapping Project took the form of an online survey, which was hosted on a website that is now inactive. There were two survey instruments, a general survey to be completed by individuals and another to be completed by diaspora groups and associations. The surveys were developed by a working group comprising the IOM, Jamaica Diaspora Institute, MFAFT, PIOJ and STATIN. Further, in an effort to accommodate individuals who did not wish to complete the online surveys (particularly the older diaspora members in the United Kingdom), hard copies of both surveys were developed and circulated to all Missions overseas and the Diaspora Advisory Board Members for dissemination.

The outcome of this project is the development of a Toolkit for Diaspora investors. It will be a guide for potential investors from the diaspora seeking to do business in Jamaica. The Individuals Survey sought information on the following:

- Biographical data of the individuals;
- Country of residence;
- Jamaican heritage (birth, descent, marriage, naturalization or registration);
- Education and professional expertise;
- Issues and concerns in Jamaica and the country of residence;
- Type and frequency of contribution given to Jamaica's development (monetary, charitable or investment among others); and
- Areas in which the individual would support Jamaica's development (volunteer, community development, charitable contribution, investment among others).

Additionally, a Diaspora Group Survey requested information with respect to the membership, activities, support received and the challenges faced in carrying out the activities. The survey also featured the six major development projects that present real opportunities for investment for the diaspora, namely the Global Logistics Hub, agro parks, ICT parks, planned redevelopment of Downtown Kingston, medical tourism and the creative industries and sports.

There were 2,321 individuals who completed the survey and 30 diaspora groups by September 2015 (date of last report) (MFAFT, 2017e).

In a further reference to policy coherence, it was suggested that there was a need for education programmes in investment, and that these should be integrated into regular programmes relating to migration. It was further mentioned that Jamaica should look into policies abroad where Jamaica and Jamaicans are considered to be high risk, thus leading to remittances costing more and the imposition of regulations that are impeding legitimate money flow. This needed to be better understood and channelled for Jamaica's development advantage.

Gender

Milestones such as the 2016 transformation of the Bureau of Women's Affairs into the Bureau of Gender Affairs, as well as the challenge of adequately disaggregating and collecting data by sex were the main gender issues that arose. While progress made in gender mainstreaming was acknowledged, there was still room for improvement. Using the OWP as an example, it was noted that for the farm component, only 20 per cent of participants were female, whereas the majority of hospitality participants were female, and that policies surrounding these and other migration policies or programmes should keep gender considerations at the forefront.

Social protection

Another issue raised by stakeholders was the lack of coordination among critical government agencies in the supervision and monitoring of children and other dependants in immigrant and emigrant families. Greater collaborative efforts are needed among institutions, such as the MOE, MOH, MLSS, CDA, Social Development Commission, JCF, National Council for Senior Citizens and Jamaica Council for Persons with Disabilities.

These services have included improved knowledge of and access to education, health and social protection programmes for migrant families. In addition, departments such as the Family Services Unit of the MLSS emphasize the need for strengthened capacity to provide outreach and counselling services to circular migrants in particular.

Another critical aspect of the impact of the migration process is on the family maintenance arrangements for dependants left behind. As indicated above (Part B6) lack of data or published official statistics in this area have been identified as an issue that must be addressed to ensure that information is available for evidence-based planning and policymaking. There are reciprocal agreements on the maintenance for dependants with partner countries, such as the United Kingdom, Canada and the United States, (applicable in only four states in the United States). It is, therefore, important to strengthen the capacity of institutions such as the MFAFT and the courts that are involved in reciprocal maintenance arrangements while simultaneously expanding the arrangements in the United States to become more effective, wide-reaching and sustainable as part of Jamaica's foreign policy thrust (PIOJ, 2017).

Public order, safety and security

Governments across the world, being cognizant of the threat of terrorism on State development have implemented more efficient and sophisticated mechanisms to improve information gathering and intelligence; and foster greater cooperation among regional law enforcement agencies to enhance public order, safety and security measures in countries of origin, transit and destination. Similarly, the increase in the operations of transnational organized criminal networks has provided a catalyst for the maintenance of public order, safety and security and has given rise to new frameworks that promote mutual legal assistance in the areas of extradition, law enforcement cooperation and technical assistance and training, international migration has gained prominence on the international security agenda as a challenge for countries of origin, transit and destination.

Within the context of the above-mentioned, since 2001 (ratified 2003), the Government has been signatory to the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime. This declaration among signatory countries establishes protocols to prevent and suppress trafficking in persons, as well as the smuggling of migrants by land, sea and air. Related laws have been enacted

within the framework of regional and international agreements and provide a legal framework for addressing issues relating to the possession of illegal drugs, non-discrimination, trafficking in persons and other matters (op.cit.). Although laws exist, there are, however, numerous challenges with respect to their enforcement. Accordingly, emphasis must be placed on national and regional security priorities that safeguard and promote the fundamental rights and freedoms of citizens and migrants.

Data research and information systems

Data sharing is hampered by challenges that agents face in populating the collective database managed by the national planning and statistics agencies (PIOJ, 2013; STATIN, 2012). More inter-agency collaboration is required to produce a robust and comprehensive database that would support evidence-based decisions relating to migration management, which is the objective of mainstreaming migration into development.

C.3.2. Inter-agency coordinating committees

There are now three inter-agency coordinating committees convened and chaired by MLSS, as follows:

- Work Permit Committee;
- Free Movement of Persons Committee Convened and chaired by MNS; and
- NATFATIP.

The Work Permit Committee has 15 representatives from the six main agencies plus other relevant bodies (for example, employers) and meets weekly or biweekly to assess applications. These are made in triplicate to MLSS, of which one is sent to PICA and the other to the employer (ministry or another agency).

The Free Movement Committee reviews applications from Jamaicans for CARICOM Skill Certificates and verifies the certificates of those coming to Jamaica. It meets infrequently, however, as the meetings of the Work Permit Committee is often used to execute these tasks.

The anti-trafficking task force meets monthly and consists of government ministries, agencies and NGOs that maintain a close working relationship in discharging its focus through three sub-committees dealing respectively with prevention, protection and prosecution. An effective quarterly NGO Forum

has also been operating to address deportee issues. It was started under the British High Commission as a project, but has gained its own momentum with MNS assuming leadership, thereby enhancing local ownership of the forum. Additionally, the degree of involvement of civil society is heightened by rotating chairmanship among the participating agencies.

A national working group was also established in 2010, the NWGIMD. This is an inter-agency group with overall objectives to:

- (a) Oversee the development of the National Policy and Plan of Action on International Migration and Development, which was completed; and
- (b) Operate as a standing committee for implementation of the national policy and facilitation of institutional coherence on migration and development issues in Jamaica. In this capacity, the NWGIMD encourages all stakeholders to identify, formulate and implement policy and programme objectives for migration and development and ensure inter-institutional coherence in order to maximize the benefits of migration. In addition, one of its remits is to improve the Government's capacity to monitor and manage international migration in line with Jamaica's socioeconomic development objectives.

C.3.3. Mainstreaming migration into development plans

The main plan currently guiding national development is Vision 2030 Jamaica. In the document, the issue of migration is not mainstreamed as a central feature of socioeconomic development, but is handled as a demographic matter where the primary aim identified is to strengthen the country's ability to monitor migration flows. In the more detailed Population Sector Plan, there is specific reference to ensuring that migration meets the development needs of the country with strategies to be employed including diaspora mobilization, border management, labour mobility and mitigating the negative impact of migration on families, particularly children. However, while so far migration has been tied to demography, efforts to mainstream demographic issues into development planning have been made since the 1980s. Further, as noted earlier, the *Migration in Jamaica: A Country Profile 2010*, followed by the development of a National Migration Policy, together with the updated *Migration in Jamaica: A Country Profile 2018*, are in keeping with the objective of aiming to enhance the potential of migration as a developmental tool.

C.3.4. Jamaica's diaspora and development

Early efforts to mobilize the diaspora for development have been a priority of the Government of Jamaica in the overall thrust towards optimizing the connection between migration and development. The Government of Jamaica's diaspora initiatives have included the following (MFAFT, 2017b):

- Returning Residents Programme, 1993;
- Return of Qualified Jamaicans for National Development, 1994;
- National Diaspora Policy (draft), 2013;
- Mapping Jamaica's Diaspora Project, 2014 (funded by IOM);
- ESDEDC 2016 (Toolkit for Diaspora Investors being developed) funded by IOM;
- Expansion of Network of Honorary Consuls to be Trade Consuls 2016 (EGC Recommendation); and
- Repurpose Jamaica Diaspora Foundation into Global Connect Jamaica (EGC recommendation).

In the past, benefits from the diaspora were seen in terms of the purchase of local assets in the form of real estate, corporate and government bonds and stocks. Then the Return of Talent Programme of the 1990s focused on harnessing skills, and the escalation in remittances since then highlighted the potential of migrants as financial contributors to national development. A recent comprehensive study identified close to 200 diaspora associations in the three main host countries that were involved in four main areas of assistance, namely education, social services, health, foundations and business, investment and trade (Ying, Manderson and Smith, 2010). The Government's investment agency, Jamaica Promotions Corporation (JAMPRO), was mandated to develop a strategy for attracting such investments from the Jamaican community abroad. Similarly, the portal being developed by JNBS that was mentioned above is intended to facilitate the diaspora direct investments. As stated above, the biennial Diaspora Convention and the Foundation, as well as the Institute and Advisory Board, established since 2008, is currently the main mechanism for maintaining and strengthening the linkages with communities in the diaspora and encouraging their involvement in national development.

C.3.5. Overall assessment of the migration policy context

The migration issues facing Jamaica are primarily related to the following: (a) labour oversupply and mobility resulting in brain drain or waste; (b) skill shortages; (c) absentee parents; (d) engagement of the diaspora (skills and

financial resources); and (e) return and irregular migration (that is, deportees and trafficking in persons). The responsiveness of policymakers to these challenges has been uneven. In relation to labour oversupply and mobility, the OWP has worked well, but difficulties over the years have highlighted the need for services to protect the safety and well-being of the migrant workers. Although the programme has been enhanced in recent years by the inclusion of the new group of contracts in Canada (since 2014) to include trades and heavy vehicle driving. Nevertheless, the programme has tapped only a small segment of the Jamaican labour force. One option would be to take steps to explore similar opportunities, especially in light of reports of increasing skill shortages in the developed countries. But, in the long run, given the numerous societal challenges and social protection risks involved in large-scale low-skilled temporary migration, government policies and multi-stakeholder collaborative efforts to increase the employment opportunities in Jamaica needs to be the priority.

Labour oversupply and skill shortages

Migration-related policies to remedy skill shortages have included ad hoc recruitment except in the health sector and lately in the security force. The use of bilateral agreements in the former sector has been effective, and this has been supplemented by private arrangements, thereby greatly augmenting manpower resources in the sector. Nevertheless, critical shortages persist in certain occupation areas. Similar strategies have not been employed in the education sector, which also suffers from shortages in particular areas. The policy response of increased training output in skill shortage areas and attempting to stem the outflow of skills by bonding have also not adequately addressed the problem. Often, it simply amounts to training human capital for export while bonds are paid off and the country is left with its skill requirements still unmet.

Children and youth

Some of the social problems involving children and youth from inner cities and rural areas have been related to absentee parents, but policies to address this migration-related problem have not yet been put in place. The Child Care and Protection Act helps to bring child abuse cases to light and provides for punishment of offenders, but policies and programmes to prevent abuse and neglect (such as the Overseas Workers Family Services) have been limited.

In relation to deportees and trafficking, the Government – though slow in responding to the relatively new trends in these movements – has now done

so and has benefited from interventions from the international community and NGOs. Partnerships in these areas have, therefore, proven very valuable, but the current programmes still seem to be insufficient to fully address the problems especially relating to robust intelligence as a critical management mechanism. The well-being of deportees is, therefore, not adequately protected, and this is also true to some extent of immigrants in Jamaica. For example, when unscrupulous businesspersons keep recruited workers in substandard living and working arrangements, the MLSS does not have the licence to visit and police these conditions as they are in private domains. Finally, in relation to migrant Jamaicans, both within and outside the region, more attention needs to be paid to social security provisioning. CASS has been determined to have latent portability issues, and it is alarming that there is no bilateral agreement for portability of pension rights with the United States, which is the country with the largest number of Jamaican migrants.

CSME free movement of labour

In addition to the above internal problems, intraregional mobility of labour poses a challenge. Labour migration within CARICOM is considered critical to the region's economic performance in the current globally competitive environment. Notwithstanding this, uneven compliance with CSME agreements, an apparent lack of policy coherence and administrative inefficiencies across Member States, seem to be militating against the free movement of skills. While Jamaica has complied fully with the CSME agreements, Jamaican administrators point to the need to give the new paradigm more time for full implementation by other countries. In relation to Jamaican migrants, both within and outside the Caribbean region, more attention needs to be paid to social security provisioning. Among other factors, gaining agreement for the portability of pension rights with the United States remains ongoing.

C.3.6. Impact of recent reforms

Temporary labour migration programme

Over the years, the MLSS has sought to emphasize the expansion of overseas job opportunities for Jamaicans. Apart from the Seasonal Agricultural Workers' Programme (SAWP), opportunities have been secured for Jamaicans in skilled occupations, to include mechanics, chefs/cooks, licensed practical nurses, food counter supervisors, low-skilled occupations, drivers, registered care aides, food service attendants, hospitality workers and construction workers.

In June 2014, the Government of Canada announced changes to the TFWP. The TFWP is the general arrangement under which workers from Jamaica travel to Canada under the SAWP and the Low Skill Programmes. The new measures were introduced to ensure that the movement of workers under the TFWP remains beneficial to Canada, and that Canadians have first access to jobs in the Canadian labour market. Included among the changes are the following:

- The application of a cap on temporary foreign workers;
- Employers in certain low-skill occupations in areas of high unemployment will not be able to hire temporary foreign workers; and
- Increased fees to employers for the processing of foreign workers.

These measures mentioned above have affected migration opportunities for occupations in food services, hospitality and the retail trade. Generally, the level of activity associated with the recruitment of particularly food server attendants and hospitality workers has declined significantly. The labour contracts for heavy vehicle drivers and skilled mechanics have not been impacted. The number of workers participating in the SAWP and the agricultural stream of the Low Skill Programme should not be affected. However, if there is an increase in general wage levels, there is a possibility that more of these jobs could become more attractive to Canadians and its residents, thus reducing the need of guest workers (MLSS, 2015).

Development

Finally, the main strategic policies for 2015–2018 relating to development are set within the general policy context of Vision 2030 Jamaica – National Development Plan, the Government of Jamaica Medium Term Economic Programme for financial years 2015/16–2017/18, the new Whole of Government Business Plan 2015–2018 and the Growth Agenda (PIOJ, 2015). The policy context for 2015–2018 has also affected the international situation, including Jamaica’s relationship with the IMF and the articulation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) outlined in the post-2015 development agenda, Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

PART D: CONCLUSIONS

D.I. Main findings on current migration trends

The main findings on current migration trends relate to the development in the migration policy framework and the implications of this for national development and human welfare.

Policy framework

The key aspect of the findings was that the object of the project, Mainstreaming Migration into National Development, which was launched on 5 May 2011, resulted in the formulation of a ministry paper: National Policy on International Migration and Development Policy (IMDP), which has been tabled as a white paper (Government of Jamaica, 2017).

A number of other successes were noted as follows:

- The development of a National Migration Database has been partially achieved. Indicators and metadata sheets have been completed and a database design is complete. However, significant work remains with data sourcing, cleaning and inputs.
- A five-year implementation plan for the draft International Migration and Development (IMD) policy commenced.
- The capacity of government MDAs to implement national policy on international migration developed was partially achieved, and there have been capacity development workshops in results-based management.
- Results-based Management/Monitoring and Evaluation Training and Trafficking Sensitization workshops have been held with the members of the named NWGIMD. There is evidence of an improved governance framework with the establishment of the International Migration and Development Monitoring Board, which will be used to highlight and drive actions in migration and development across MDAs.
- An indirect positive effect of the Mainstreaming Migration and Development project has been the following: (a) enhanced knowledge of MDAs and other agencies about migration issues; (b) continue the process towards coherence in the development of policies to manage migration in the context of development; and (c) expansion of the membership of the NWGIMD.

- A further positive development has been the growing synergy between national government agencies and local government units (LGUs) as partners in various migration and development programmes and the LGU's interest in advancing migration and development and/or to integrating migration in their local development plans (Ruiz, 2008).
- The government policy and programmes to engage the diaspora and leverage international funds and cooperation from NGOs to support the effort have brought about a dynamic partnership with emigrants still residing abroad together with second and third generation Jamaicans.

Consequences of migration for development and human welfare in Jamaica

There have been outstanding successes in achieving some of the stated objectives of migration for development. For example:

- Vast sums of money (USD 2.2 billion in 2016) have been remitted from migrants abroad.
- Remittances have supported many households and the foreign exchange received by the BOJ has been of major value, exceeding all other sources of foreign exchange inputs.
- The increased number of persons obtaining short-term employment through the Foreign Workers Programmes has greatly increased low-skilled worker access to temporary work at higher wages than they would have earned at home. The unemployment rate has trended down since 2014 after rising significantly after the 2008 global economic crisis, which greatly affected Jamaica's economic performance in the years following.

The consequences of migration for sustained development is less clear. As observed in other developing countries (Asis, 2008, cited in IOM, 2013a), some of the "success" could be counterproductive in that needed reforms may have been delayed because overseas employment has continued to help to keep the economy afloat, as it had done for decades in the past.

While sustainable solutions would not be instant by any means, nevertheless, the successes of managed labour migration, such as TFWP, in providing short-term relief in the face of low national employment capacity for the low-skilled, though successful as short-term strategy, need also to be recognized as short term in their developmental impact. The triple approach of deployment-protection-maximizing benefits, which has been in place for decades, needs to be explicitly linked more to development (op cit.). While it

is acknowledged that the economy is unable to offer competitive and adequate employment options to its labour force, the option of working abroad becomes a quick recourse, in which case, the State obliges itself to respect and protect the human rights of migrants in their choice at every stage of the migration cycle. To carry out this obligation properly would make considerable demands on national capacity and resources.

The factor that is most commonly identified to be a positive impact of migration is the receipt of remittances from migrants abroad, together with the transfer of migrants' earnings, pensions and other benefits on their return. The evidence suggests that there are negative but modest impacts on labour force participation, as the receipt of remittances can mean households would be less likely to take up employment. From the perspective of the Government of Jamaica, if not the households themselves, this may present a problem as it is looking to generate sustainable sources of national income, especially to harness the talents of its people through employment in domestic businesses and creative enterprises.

Migration has had both positive and negative socioeconomic developmental impacts, and at different levels of scale – from the individual and household at one end, and the national macroeconomic and societal development at the other. Further, the assessment of the impact of migration on development has to be set within a time frame of short term (10-year) expectations and targets, medium-term (25-year) targets and long-term (50 plus years) targets. Therefore, the question is whether at these different levels of scale (micro to macro) and in different time projections (short to long terms), the consequences of migration for development are on balance following a positive trend or trajectory. The positive consequences of migration must play a transformative role in terms of changing or neutralizing the persisting factors that challenge progress.

To implement such a programme, the national environment has to be facilitating, attractive and safe to investors and workforce alike. These goals are enshrined in Vision 2030 Jamaica, and their articulation remains urgent. Careful scrutiny of areas in which they are not effectively articulated with respect to the consequences of migration would be beneficial.

D.2. Possible future trends in migration

Based on recent trends, the following migration characteristics are anticipated in the foreseeable future:

- Continued high-selective migration with a continuing high rate of emigration of tertiary-educated professionals and students. In the short to medium term, the opportunities for emigration, especially to the United States, can be expected to trend downwards, the movement to the United Kingdom will remain minimal, and the upward trend in the flow to Canada of this group is likely to continue.
- The highly educated are also highly competitive in other labour markets – for example, in the Middle East. Therefore, new destinations will be sought and found as traditional ones become less available or appealing.
- The need for immigrants to fill the labour force gaps in professional and also technical capacity in specific sectors can be expected to continue.
- There is likely to be an increased trend in emigration to, and immigration from, CSME Member States in response to the inclusion in other Member States, for example, Trinidad and Tobago, of new categories of workers able to move freely.
- The recent efforts on the part of the Government of Jamaica to connect the diaspora with the homeland will continue in the short and medium term. The biannual conference, where leaders of the diaspora, the Government and civil society reflect on the ways in which the Jamaican diaspora can become more involved in the socioeconomic development of the country, will continue.
- Trafficking in persons is likely to continue in the short and medium term. Although there are more efforts in place to identify and assist victims and charge perpetrators, nevertheless, the movement is unlikely to be reduced significantly in the short to medium term because the victims are targeted among the poor. The numbers of young persons among the poor who are lacking educational qualifications and employment prospects continue to be significant. There is still insufficient intelligence to reduce the existing high level of impunity that has to be addressed among the perpetrators of trafficking.
- Remittances are likely to be maintained at the recent high level in the short and medium term; this will not necessarily be the case in the long term. The full potential benefit will depend on the development of effective instruments to encourage savings and investment. However, there needs to be caution taken on depending on remittances for development as

the sums remitted depend on the continued high levels of emigration to traditional or new destinations. Money transferred through social security payments and pensions depend on maintaining the voluntary return of migrants to Jamaica when they retire from active employment abroad, and there is no certainty that this movement will continue at the rates that occurred in the recent past.

- Deportation will continue to be high in the short and medium term, as there is no indication of a change in policies in the main migrant destination countries. This situation points to the need to establish a major programme for the rehabilitation and resettlement of deported persons.
- Numbers of temporary migration to the United States and Canada on OWPs are likely to continue at current rates in the near future, but caution needs to be exercised in depending on these. There have already been signals in the case of the programmes in Canada, that if they become too competitive in relation to domestic labour, the terms of current agreements could change, and there is a risk that they could be reduced in scale.

D.3. Recommendations regarding improving migration statistics

D.3.1. Identification and explanation of existing data gaps and problems encountered in data collection

The availability of timely, reliable and accurate data is a prerequisite for evidence-based policy and its implementation in effective migration management. Data gaps relating to migration are partly due to the inherent difficulty of capturing information on migrant flows because of the fluidity and circularity of many movements. But there are data gaps that should be addressed. A major step forward since 2011 was the creation of a database relating to migration and development. Nevertheless, there are a number of challenges, including those indicated below.

Immigration data

Jamaica currently has a weak capacity to capture and produce basic data on migrant stocks and migration flows and the socioeconomic data needed to carry out policy-relevant analyses on ways and means of reaping the benefits of migration for individuals, communities and the national state of human development. This is partly due to the inherent difficulty of capturing information on migrant flows because of the fluidity and circularity of many

movements. But there is also information that could be documented but not currently accessible in disaggregated form, to provide the level of detail that is required. For example, this applies to data on immigrants entering in all four categories: (a) returning residents; (b) deportees; (c) Commonwealth citizens; and (d) aliens. For most categories, disaggregated data are unavailable for one or a combination of information on numbers/volume of flow, demographic characteristics, educational levels, occupations and country of last residence or of citizenship.

Since immigrants all have to be processed in one way or another – either to be “landed” or granted permission to work, whether through work permits, CSME skills certificates, as well as dependants and accompanying persons – full data should be captured, complete databases generated and disaggregated data available as officially required.

Emigration data

Emigration data are difficult, if not impossible, to capture at source. Further, the use of censuses to document emigration is unreliable. The questions asked as well as the answers given on the migration histories of respondents and household members have many limitations in producing accurate data. There is a problem of knowledge and recall about the emigration of persons who were still living abroad. If the entire household has emigrated, there is no one there to provide the information.

The movement through the ports of departure is not an appropriate proxy for emigration. The net of outflows and inflows provide information about the extent and dominant direction of movement – in the case of Jamaica, the outflow. Many such movements represent multiple entries and departures by the same persons for a variety of reasons, an unknown proportion of which would be for purposes of residence. It does not provide information on, nor can it be used as a measure of emigration, which involves at least one year’s residence abroad by definition (IOM).

General outward and inward movement

The data collected from airline departure information and immigration landing forms on movement in and out of the country needs to be reviewed and its particular benefits for migration management assessed. The resources deployed in the production, examination and computer input and management of the huge amount of information collected should be rationalized, and resources that can be released could be deployed to other areas of immigrant surveillance and customs checks for security purposes.

Data on emigration needs to be obtained from the destination countries. The immigration and border control authorities in the destination countries carefully monitor and record the entries of all foreigners. The data on persons granted permanent legal status have been successfully obtained in the past from countries of the main migration corridor, namely United States, Canada and United Kingdom. Negotiations need to be continued with these countries to obtain the data that is required by Jamaica and other countries approached on the basis of known destinations of Jamaican emigrants currently residing abroad.

The numbers of foreign-born persons in the population in destination countries captured in the country censuses and documented in international data sets have usefully provided data on Jamaicans living in OECD countries. Jamaicans living in other than OECD countries are not available in this way and would have to be gathered through accessing the relevant country censuses or immigration, and these can be and are used to determine immigrant stocks. The CARICOM Censuses of Population and Housing could be used in a similar manner to capture data on Jamaican migrant stocks in each of the Member States.

Some difficulties that remain in the implementation of reintegration programmes have to do with knowing the number of returning migrants, instituting the proper policies for the different types of returning migrants, and providing a mechanism that facilitates the consultation of migrants who want to avail themselves of services provided by the Government.

It was pointed out in the ESSJ (2015) that the volume of non-cash remittances flowing to and from Jamaica is not known or disaggregated, and this poses a challenge to development planning. The challenge, on the one hand, is quantifying the impact on development, of barrels and packages from migrants overseas to their family members, MDAs and/or charitable institutions. There is, therefore, the need for a defined classification system for such charitable goods entering and leaving, as this does not currently exist. The implementation of such a system would make collection and dissemination of the relevant data easier, for example, through Jamaica Customs and Excise (PIOJ, 2015:6–10).

As migration, migrants and mobility are increasingly being considered in the context of the Global Development Agenda and in national planning strategies, the demand for timely, accurate, nationally relevant and internationally comparable migration data and indicators is expected to rise. The report of the Secretary-General on international migration statistics, presented to the United Nations Statistical Commission at its Forty-fifth session in 2014–

2016, emphasized that more needs to be done to encourage the tabulation and dissemination of census data on international migration, to harness the use of migration data generated by administrative sources, to enhance the capacity of developing countries in collecting and using migration data and to exchange statistical information between countries. The report recommended that the international statistical community establish a dedicated capacity-development programme to improve the collection, processing and analysis of migration data for policy planning. In a similar vein, the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, held in Geneva in October 2013, called for further work on labour migration statistics to inform labour migration policies.

To strengthen the evidence base on international migration, the Global Migration Group (GMG) agencies have invested in data collection activities, methodological work on indicators, capacity development, knowledge sharing, surveys and research studies. The Global Migration Database, maintained by the Population Division of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), continues to be updated and will be used to inform future revisions of estimates of the global migrant stock by age, sex and country of birth. In collaboration with UNICEF, the Population Division produced the 2014 edition of a common set of indicators, covering 232 countries and areas, complementing the repository of Migration Profiles maintained by the Global Forum on Migration and Development. Other GMG entities also continue to contribute to the global migration evidence base. For example, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime collected data for the *2014 Global Report on Trafficking in Persons* and has expanded its case law database on human trafficking, while IOM has started to track the number of migrant deaths in border regions and launched a related study. The *2013 Education for All Global Monitoring Report*, published by UNESCO in early 2014, found that migrant children in secondary school in developed countries lag behind native-born students on reading benchmarks.

The GMG continues to advocate for the use of surveys for measuring the scale and impact of migration. For example, UNICEF, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and IOM are preparing a report on the impact of migration on families left behind and on those who have returned from abroad, using both qualitative and quantitative survey methods. Drawing on the Gallup World Poll, based on interviews with 25,000 migrants in over 150 countries, IOM developed a set of indicators on the well-being of migrants around the world in its *2013 World Migration Report*. In collaboration with Gallup, IOM has launched a multi-year world migration survey programme, starting with an inaugural International Migration Barometer in 2014 (IOM, 2013b).

In the area of capacity development, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), the Economic Free Trade Association and IOM organized a workshop on the collection and use of migration statistics for the countries of Eastern Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia. UNECE's 2014 work session on migration statistics will address the measurement of integration, return and circular migration, and the impact of migration. The GMG, with the support of Global Knowledge Partnership in Migration and Development (KNOMAD), is preparing a practical guide to measuring international migration and its impacts on development. UN DESA, in collaboration with key stakeholders, will organize up to three workshops to improve the collection and use of migration data during the 2014–2015 biennium (op.cit.).

In April 2014, UNFPA and the United Nations Population Division, with the support of KNOMAD, organized a seminar on the role of migration in population modelling. Experts presented methodologies for improving estimates of the stocks and flows of international migrants and projecting future migration trends. The seminar found that the lack of consistent and complete migration data and the inherent challenges in forecasting migration continue to be an impediment to standardized approaches and reliable migration projections (op.cit.).

Summary of data gaps

- Data are not in all cases accessible in disaggregated form to provide the level of detail that is required. For example, this applies to data on immigrants entering in all four categories (a) returning residents; (b) deportees; (c) Commonwealth citizens; and (d) aliens. For each category, disaggregated data are unavailable for one or a combination of information on numbers/volume of flow, demographic characteristics, educational levels, occupations and country of last residence or of citizenship. Lack of disaggregation of the data required by specific entities to facilitate proper decision-making; and insufficient use of data to inform corporate planning and development processes.
- Even though a database has been established, there has been no consistent process of populating it. Where data are not collected in Jamaica, such as for emigrants, this information should be consistently obtained from the destination countries and entered into the national database. In some cases, aggregate figures are recorded, with no breakdown of socioeconomic characteristics or migration profile of the individuals or, in the case of immigrants, the countries from which they have come. This occurs with respect to deported persons, return migrants and foreign-

born immigrants and the family members who accompany them. This also includes persons who enter from CSME Member States with Skills Certificates and are therefore exempt from work permits.

- The method of collecting data on return migration needs clarification in order to avoid misinterpretation.
- Accurate information on the emigration of professionals from critical sectors, such as health, education and the police force, has not been documented, despite the high visibility and unprecedented rates of departure from the 1990s.
- Data on flows versus stocks of labour immigrants are not clear. The total of persons to whom work permits granted and renewed signify the stock at the particular time, not the flow.
- Missing years in data sets is a challenge to detailed identification of trends.
- Volume of flows and disaggregated data on immigration and emigration with respect to the free movement of labour between CSME Member States should be recorded.
- Within CARICOM, a common template is provided by the Secretariat with recommended questions to be included in the Census of Population and Housing in all CARICOM Member States.
- Data are not always accurately descriptive of intended aspects of migration, for example, emigrants versus outward moves of a variety of types and duration; labour immigrant flows versus work permits assigned. The data collected from airline departure information immigration landing forms on movement in and out of the country needs to be reviewed.
- Data on Jamaican students pursuing postgraduate programmes abroad are not collated. Whatever data exists on students are not disaggregated according to the nature and duration of study or by the demographic characteristics of the students. The mismatch between numbers of persons being trained in particular fields (for example, business and management) and the opportunities for employment are not coordinated. The result is that the absorptive capacity for such work and careers is low and encourages persons to look overseas for employment.

In addition, resource and capacity constraints pervade all areas of the public sector as evidenced by current budget constraints. These include inadequate provisions for institutional and human resources (due to unavailability of skills, on the one hand, and also the inability to adequately remunerate those skills) and weak links between this policy and related policies, plans and programmes. The need for communication and public sensitization programmes are critical to ensure policy effectiveness.

Recommended actions/strategies to improve migration data

- There is a need for each relevant agency to be required to populate the integrated and common computerized system for the collection of migration and development, such as a banner system, without leaving gaps.
- A cadre of persons who are technically highly efficient and proficient to enter the data should provide the technical input for the work. Succession planning should be put in place so that high levels of competency are ensured in the long term.
- This will allow improved generation of data, easy access to the information, as well as easy sharing and amalgamation of data sets.
- All relevant government agencies should be able to generate the relevant data (migration and social and economic variables) using a common format. From this, annual reports would be generated and shared as appropriate.
- The MFAFT should obtain emigration data through the overseas missions that should be required to obtain and record such information.
- There is need for the development of a common data collection system and computer programme for inputting the data across CARICOM so that data can be shared with other CARICOM States for monitoring the migration of persons between the CSME Member States.

D.4. Recommendations on future research on migration

Data management project

The output would be an assessment of the type of data that are essential to assessing migration in the context of development. Based on the type of data identified, there would be a fully populated database on migration and development. The outcome would be a reduced frequency of subsequent updates of the Migration and Development Profile and, instead, a continuous system of data collection and recording, completed and audited on an annual basis.

Labour force gaps and strategic needs research

The output would be a “best fit” model of strategic human capacity needs for national development. The outcome would be to improve the balance

between training programmes and labour market needs. Tertiary institutions in receipt of government subsidies should be urged to manage the numbers of places available for programmes offered in tertiary institutions to better fit the labour capacity, the employment capacity and potential capacity of the country. Strategic immigration policies for filling human capacity needs would also be more systematically assessed. The second major aspect is to guide strategic immigration.

Enhancing investment project

There is also an absence of work in Jamaica on the kinds of instruments that would attract significant savings and investment in national programmes. This is critical if substantial benefit is to be derived from the diaspora and other international players with the potential for sustainable impacts on development. Since remittances are private/personal funds, the way in which they could be directed into saving and harnessed for national programmes would have to be through attractive incentives and benefits to those who are being encouraged to invest. The output would be a detailed assessment of instruments and programmes that would significantly enhance investment. The outcome would be the formulation of a detailed investment implementation plan.

D.5. Recommendations on migration management

The following recommendations concerning migration management are made with a view to providing general themes that are of high relevance to the achievement of incorporating migration into development policy. These themes are as follows: (a) institutional and legislative legal framework; (b) data management; (c) human capacity development; (d) focus on building an enabling environment.

The specific mechanisms that would be incorporated into policy would be discussed and determined by the relevant groups representing the Government, thus ensuring a sense of ownership of the process by the relevant agencies of the Government of Jamaica.

Institutional and legislative framework

Better management of migration requires institutional arrangements that can support the proactive approach outlined above. This requires greater institutional capacity in key areas and heightened collaboration with structures and processes to facilitate this. Thus, cooperation should not be left to individual choice, but generated by institutionalized procedures.

The right legislative framework must also be in place to facilitate and promote successful management of migration flows. In general, review and updating of the policy and legislative framework is necessary to (a) streamline it (for instance, merging the Aliens Act and the Commonwealth Citizens Act); (b) make it more contemporary; (c) tighten the requirements for entry; (d) better address critical issues, such as smuggling of persons and undocumented workers; and (e) generally create a more regulated approach to migration matters. Provisions are also required to better protect the human rights of both emigrants from Jamaica and immigrants to Jamaica. For example, the appropriate authorities must be empowered to take all steps necessary to monitor the living and working conditions of recruited workers in Jamaica. On the other hand, Jamaica needs to be better equipped to protect the rights and responsibilities of Jamaicans overseas. This requires the strengthening of Jamaica's consular offices by building capacity in relation to welfare, legal and security matters and so on, whereby overseas Missions may undertake the provision of legal advice; gathering of intelligence and dissemination of information on all matters of importance to its constituents in foreign countries.

It has been stated that although there is an existing institutional and legal framework, there is need for the following: (a) reform; (b) resourcing of the existing legislative framework to support the intermediate results and broad actions of this policy; (c) updating laws with regard to fines and custodial sentences as well as cultural and technological changes; and (d) reviewing the mandates of MDAs in line with the goals under the priority areas (PIOJ, 2015; MDP:38). It goes on to suggest that there is an urgent need not just for policy coherence but also for an effective institutional framework to facilitate these changes. There exist policies and sector plans that are facilitative and promote growth in the country, at the same time that there are austerity measures and restrictive taxation policies. There must be agreement in these areas from a policy perspective and a common vision if they are to be effective when initiatives and projects are being marketed to the diaspora, other groups of migrants and partner countries (op. cit.).

Other aspects of migration management have been suggested to improve the organizational structures of migration management, including the following:

- (a) Through the country of origin's consulates and embassies in destination countries, governments can monitor the treatment of their expatriate workers, provide services for filing complaints about false contracts and labour disputes, and establish a network with

- local lawyers to help them through any legal disputes.
- (b) Hold pre-departure seminars to brief migrating temporary workers on what to expect in the destination country, provide information about their prospective employers and contacts at migrant community organizations, how to send remittances and available savings instruments, and how to plan for their eventual repatriation and reintegration after conclusion of their contract. If NGOs conduct these seminars in joint partnership with the Government, cost effectiveness could be maximized.
 - (c) Protect migrant workers abroad through a migrant welfare fund, managed by the country of origin's government. Such a fund could provide several specialized services for migrants including emergency repatriation in the event of a national crisis or other emergency and other optional services, such as life insurance, welfare assistance and reintegration preparedness, and repatriation of the migrant's body in the event of death while working abroad (IOM, 2013a).

Data management

The data relating to all types of migrants require the filling of a number of currently existing gaps (for details, see Appendix IV). There is need for the creation of an integrated and common computerized system for the collection of migration and other data relating to development variables of which all relevant agencies would be part of the network. It is also necessary that the data that are recorded be easily accessible to the appropriate authorities and agencies.

Human resource capacity management

In spite of the data deficiencies, the migration profile has established, inter alia, that the outflow of skills from Jamaica far exceeds the replacement inflow. Thus, Jamaica is a net contributor to the global pool of human capital. The losses are due to a number of factors around which better management of migration could improve the situation, and efforts are required to improve the net flow to the advantage of Jamaica's development.

Immigration policy

Labour immigration has in the past, and still currently, provides a replacement population in a number of sectors, notably health. The development of a strategic immigration policy would more systematically address the human capacity needs and gaps in the labour market.

Regulation of recruitment

The Department of Labour and Social Services should issue licences to private recruitment agencies and maintain information on their information and the persons recruited. It informs potential overseas workers of agencies that have issued false contracts or have not complied with rules during the deployment process. The Government of Jamaica could publish an updated list of overseas job openings, recruitment agencies' contact information, and the number of vacancies available through their website. It could also provide a quality control service by rating the status of the private recruitment agencies.

Protection of migrants and migrant households

There is need for increased public sensitization to ensure migrants are fully aware of their rights and obligations and are knowledgeable of existing laws, customs and risks in host countries. This is especially warranted for vulnerable groups, such as children, female migrants, trafficked victims, refugees and asylum seekers.

Public information

Targeted public information could provide improved access to the existing government (and non-governmental) services for families where a critical member is considering migration or has migrated. Targeted public education is also recommended to: (a) provide graphic information on the realities and risks in becoming victims of trafficking; and (b) engaging in illegal activities and of illegal migration, including extension of stay. A more structured approach to the migration of minors and dependants must also be considered. Stronger linkages between migrants and Jamaican authorities would help in the social protection of migrants and their families and be of benefit to all concerned.

Focus on building an enabling environment

Building the absorptive capacity of the economy is the major key to reducing outflow and encourage return. Additionally, a priority would be on maximizing the many positive aspects of Jamaica, its natural/physical, as well as social and cultural assets and minimizing the negative factors that encourage emigration, and discourage voluntary return and investment of talent and money.

The main challenges to achieving this situation, as articulated in Vision 2013 Jamaica (PIOJ, 2015:40), are as follows:

- High levels of crime and violence;
- Inefficient justice system;
- Consistently low macroeconomic growth;
- Lack of competitiveness and low productivity;
- Persistent fiscal deficits and high public debt;
- High levels of unemployment and poverty;
- Low levels of primary and secondary student education outcomes, particularly among males;
- Rising incidence of chronic diseases and HIV/AIDs;
- High dependency on imported petroleum and inefficient use of energy;
- High cost of production inputs including energy and capital;
- Low priority on environment management;
- Vulnerability to disasters and the impact of climate change; and
- Inadequate transparency and accountability in governance.

Growth of the economy and employment capacity

Business and government need to work together to identify areas that offer the higher levels of employment and income, particularly agriculture and tourism. The factors inhibiting the participation of migrant investors in SMEs, particularly their inclusion in the value chain of production need to be identified and addressed. A strategic approach to identifying SME investment opportunities could then be developed and promoted.

Crime and corruption

A major obstacle is the high level of crime and corruption. Jamaica's high rate of violent crime has been consistently regarded as one of the main factors affecting the country's development, discouraging investment, imposing costs on the health and well-being of the people and on the economy. This view has been validated by the most recent round of national prioritization carried out for the preparation of Ministry of Finance 2015–2018. Therefore, there is urgent need to take decisive steps to address the roots of violent crime by holistic development programmes in the most volatile and vulnerable communities. To this end, reforms are required within the security forces and the justice system to improve efficiency, effectiveness and accountability. A particular area of focus will be to improve the conditions and treatment of children and youth in the protection and care of the state (PIOJ, 2015:44). Despite the figures indicating

that there has been a reduction in major crimes, the number is still far too high for there to be an appropriate level of public confidence.

This involves investment in security for persons/companies operating businesses, safety for persons for nationals and non-nationals alike. For this, efforts to continue to bring crime to levels where they are not only evidently lower in the data but perceptibly much lower by the law-abiding citizens in the public at large. Corruption has to be vigorously and effectively addressed if significant improvements are going to be made and seen to be made.

Facilitation of transactions

There need to be a more efficient environment for conducting business. Easier, quicker and more efficient means of doing transactions in the government sector and the financial sector and one-stop centres with clear information on procedure are needed to reduce the time spent by members of the public engaged in work, and it would reduce the corruption encouraged by persons attempting to bypass the delays. Online transactions are increasing, but delays and multiple venues for completing single tasks still exist.

Challenges and opportunities

In conclusion, Jamaica continues to face a number of challenges and opportunities in the various spheres of development, which must be addressed in relation to mainstreaming migration into development planning. The range of development challenges and opportunities that have been here identified at the nexus of migration and development are validated in the context of Vision 2030 Jamaica, which provides the framework for Jamaica's development in the medium term.

ANNEXES

Annex I: Glossary of terms

Asylum seeker is a person seeking to be admitted into a country as refugee and awaiting decision on their application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments. In case of a negative decision, they must leave the country and may be expelled, as may any alien in an irregular situation, unless permission to stay is provided on humanitarian or other related grounds (IOM, 2004).

Country of usual residence is the country in which a person lives, that is to say, the country in which he or she has a place to live where he or she normally spends the daily period of rest. Temporary travel abroad for purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage does not change a person's country of usual residence (UN DESA/ Statistics Division, 1998).

Descendants of long-term emigrant is the group of persons born abroad whose parents are long-term emigrants (this group is often referred to as the "second generation") (Own definition based on UN DESA/Statistics Division, 1998 and United Nations, 2006).

Family reunification/reunion is the process whereby family members already separated through forced or voluntary migration regroup in a country other than the one of their origin. (IOM, 2004b).

Immigrant is an individual that must be a resident in Jamaica for six months or more (STATIN (PIOJ, 2011:20.10)).

Irregular migrant is someone who, owing to illegal entry or the expiry of his or her visa, lacks legal status in a transit or host country. The term applies to migrants who infringe a country's admission rules and any other person not authorized to remain in the host country (also called clandestine/ illegal/undocumented migrant or migrant in an irregular situation) (IOM, 2004b).

Long-term migrant is 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 the country of arrival, the person will be a long-term immigrant. (UN DESA/Statistics Division, 1998).

Permanent labour migrant is a person moving from his/her home State to another State for the purpose of employment and who has been granted by a host State to live and work therein on a permanent (unlimited) basis. (Own definition based on IOM, 2004b).

Refugee (recognized) is a person, who “owing to well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinions, 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) (IOM, 2004b).

Remittances are monies earned or acquired by non-nationals that are transferred back to their country of origin (IOM, 2004b).

Temporary labour migrant is a skilled, semi-skilled or untrained worker who remains in the receiving country for definite periods as determined in a work contract with an individual worker or a service contract concluded with an enterprise. (IOM, 2004b).

Visitor (in the migration context) is a person who seeks to enter for a temporary period (IOM, 2004b).

Annex II: Summary of sources of data

II. I: Sources of statistical data

1. Bank of Jamaica (BOJ)
2. Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC)
3. Institute of International Education (IIE)
4. Inter-American Development Bank (IADB)
5. International Monetary Fund (IMF)
6. International Organization for Migration (IOM)
7. Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF)
8. Jamaica Customs Agency
9. Jamaica Tourist Board (JTB)
10. LASCO Financial Services Limited (LFSL)
11. Ministry of Education, Youth and Information (MOEYI)
12. Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT)
13. Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS)
14. Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA)
15. Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ)
16. Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN)
17. Statistics Canada (STATCAN)
18. United Kingdom Office for National Statistics (ONS)
19. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
20. United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
21. United States of America Department of Homeland Security
22. University of Technology, Jamaica
23. University of the West Indies, Mona Campus
24. World Bank

II.2: Stakeholders consulted

Organization	Name
Bank of Jamaica	Mr Eliud George Ramocan
Bureau of Gender Affairs	Ms Karen Small
Family Unification Resettlement Initiative	Ms Marleen Brown
HEART Trust/National Training Agency	Mr Kenneth Morrison
High Commission of Canada	Ms Jacqueline Stephenson
Jamaica Constabulary Force	Inspector Terence McLean
	Mr Carlington Neil
	Ms Patrae Rowe
	Ms Sylven Robinson
Jamaica Customs Agency	Ms Shornalee Jackson
LASCO Financial Services Limited	Mr Ramon Davis
Ministry of Economic Growth and Job Creation	Mr Omar Chedda
Ministry of Education, Youth and Information	Mr Peter L. Gordon
Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade	Ms Desreine Taylor
Ministry of Health	Ms Maureen Innis Morgan
Ministry of Justice	Ms Keshia West
Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Mr Rajiv Clarke
	Ms Sherene Watson
Ministry of Local Government and Community Development	Ms Sherona Campbell
Ministry of National Security	Ms Chadine Allen
	Ms Latoya Barnett Gibbs
	Ms Tracy-Ann Brown
Office of the Children's Advocate	Ms Danielle Jones
Office of the Children's Registry	Ms Warren Thompson
Office of the National Rapporteur on Human Trafficking	Ms Tameisha Udosen
Open Arms	Ms Yvonne Grant
Passport Immigration and Citizenship Agency	Ms Grace Dillon
	Mr Rory Welsh
Planning Institute of Jamaica	Ms Alecia Bennett-Bryan
	Ms Marcia Brown
	Ms Stacey Clarke Callum
	Ms Kadeen Campbell
	Ms Shelly Ann Edwards
	Ms Christena McCarthy
	Ms Antonette Richards
	Ms Odelia Wilson
Portland Rehabilitation Management Centre	Ms Amanda Thompson
Statistical Institute of Jamaica	Ms Sydna Amos
	Ms Juliet McCalla-Smith
University Council of Jamaica	Ms Angela Penny

Annex III: Statistical tables

Table A1: Return migrants to Jamaica, by decade, 1950s–2010s

Table A1.a: Voluntary returnees to Jamaica, by decade, 1950s–2010s

Decade	United Kingdom	United States	Canada	Other	Total	Average/year
1950s	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	468*	
1960s	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2,658*	266
1970s	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2,723*	272
1980s	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	9,373*	937
1990s	7,678 +	6,109 +	1,926 +	952 +	22,485*	2,249 +
2000s	4,167	5,819	1,268	913	11,385	1,139
2010–2016	1,371	3,121	903	1,015	6,410	916
Total	13,216	15,049	4,097	2,880	55,500+	

Source: 2001 Census of Population and Housing; and Jamaica Customs and Excise.

Table A1.b: Forced returnees to Jamaica, by decade, 1990s to 2010s

Decade	United States	Canada	United Kingdom	Others	Total	Average/year
1995–1999	6,465	1,603	846	364	9,278	2,319.5
2000–2009	13,208	5,685	9,006	3,439	31,338	7,835
2010–2016	7,227	1,402	2,247	4,746	15,622	2,231

Source: Economic Social Survey of Jamaica (ESSJ) and Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF) Information Gathering and Storage Unit (IGS) National Intelligence Bureau.

Table A2: Population distribution by age and sex, 2006–2016

Table A2.a: Population of Jamaica by sex, 2007–2016

Age	2006		2007		2008		2009	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0–4	107,000	104,600	104,400	101,700	114,100	110,400	112,600	109,200
5–9	115,600	112,400	113,000	110,100	126,100	121,900	122,600	118,600
10–14	136,300	130,600	132,000	126,700	143,600	133,900	143,500	133,100
15–19	139,400	134,600	141,600	136,400	127,400	121,400	127,600	121,800
20–24	124,700	125,100	126,300	125,400	100,600	106,900	100,800	107,200
25–29	109,600	116,000	110,400	116,200	102,200	113,200	102,300	113,200
30–34	88,000	97,900	89,500	98,900	104,800	116,700	105,700	117,700
35–39	86,700	97,100	85,700	96,000	107,300	119,800	107,400	122,200
40–44	85,400	88,000	85,900	92,200	95,700	97,300	97,900	99,200
45–49	78,600	75,700	80,400	79,000	66,000	67,100	67,100	68,000
50–54	66,900	70,000	68,500	69,900	60,300	54,900	61,500	55,500

Age	2006		2007		2008		2009	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
50–55	50,400	49,700	52,100	51,600	44,700	40,500	45,300	40,700
60–64	44,100	43,400	45,000	43,300	33,400	35,000	33,500	35,000
65–69	32,400	32,600	33,900	33,600	31,300	33,700	31,400	33,800
70–74	24,600	26,600	25,000	26,600	28,000	31,100	28,300	31,400
Over 75	43,400	58,100	44,100	58,700	41,400	61,700	41,800	62,900
Total	1,333,100	1,362,400	1,337,800	1,366,300	1,326,900	1,365,500	1,329,300	1,369,500

Source: Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN), 2011 and ESSJ (Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ)/STATIN), 2011.

Table A2.b: Population by age and sex, 2010–2013

Age	2010		2011		2012		2013	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0–4	107,000	104,600	104,400	101,700	102,400	99,600	99,500	95,900
5–9	115,600	112,400	113,000	110,100	110,600	107,700	108,700	106,300
10–14	136,300	130,600	132,000	126,700	127,400	122,400	123,300	118,600
15–19	139,400	134,600	141,600	136,400	142,000	136,900	138,800	134,300
20–24	124,700	125,100	126,300	125,400	127,500	125,700	130,000	127,300
25–29	109,600	116,000	110,400	116,200	110,900	115,400	112,100	115,200
30–34	88,000	97,900	89,500	98,900	93,300	102,000	97,800	105,500
35–39	86,700	97,100	85,700	96,000	83,600	94,200	82,500	93,100
40–44	85,400	88,000	85,900	92,200	86,500	93,300	85,700	93,300
45–49	78,600	75,700	80,400	79,000	80,500	81,400	81,300	83,900
50–54	66,900	70,000	68,500	69,900	71,100	70,900	73,300	72,000
50–55	50,400	49,700	52,100	51,600	54,900	55,200	57,700	58,300
60–64	44,100	43,400	45,000	43,300	45,400	43,600	45,800	44,500
65–69	32,400	32,600	33,900	33,600	35,300	34,900	36,700	36,100
70–74	24,600	26,600	25,000	26,600	25,400	27,000	26,100	27,400
Over 75	43,400	58,100	44,100	58,700	44,900	59,600	46,100	60,700
Total	1,333,100	1,362,400	1,337,800	1,366,300	1,341,700	1,369,800	1,345,400	1,372,400

Source: ESSJ (PIOJ/ STATIN), 2013 and 2016.

Table A2.c: Population by age and sex, 2014–2016

Age	2014		2015		2016	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0–4	96,600	92,900	95,100	91,100	93,100	89,300
5–9	106,700	104,500	104,000	101,700	101,700	98,900
10–14	118,800	114,600	112,400	109,300	109,000	106,400
15–19	134,500	129,900	132,000	126,800	127,400	122,400
20–24	132,800	129,100	134,300	130,400	136,500	132,200
25–29	114,800	117,100	118,200	119,500	120,200	120,000
30–34	101,000	108,300	103,600	110,100	104,600	110,500
35–39	82,800	92,800	83,200	92,700	84,900	93,800
40–44	84,300	93,000	83,000	92,300	81,700	91,500
45–49	81,600	85,500	82,100	87,200	82,400	88,300
50–54	75,000	73,000	76,000	73,100	77,400	75,500
50–55	60,400	61,700	63,500	65,500	65,500	66,800
60–64	46,800	45,500	47,400	46,200	49,000	48,700
65–69	37,900	37,400	40,100	39,600	41,400	40,300
70–74	27,100	28,200	28,000	29,000	29,600	30,500
Over 75	46,900	61,700	47,600	62,300	48,300	63,000
Total	1,348,000	1,375,200	1,350,500	1,376,800	1,352,700	1,378,100

Source: ESSJ (PIOJ/STATIN).

Note: Figures for 2016 are provisional.

Table A3: Population distribution by age, 2007–2016

Years	0–14	15–64	65 and over
	%	%	%
2007	30.7	60.1	9.2
2008	29.1	61.1	9.8
2009	29.8	61.0	9.2
2010	29.2	60.8	10.0
2012	26.6	63.9	9.5
2013	26.5	64.1	9.4
2014	26.3	64.0	9.7
2015	22.5	68.4	9.1
2016	21.0	68.8	9.3

Source: STATIN, Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions (JSLC), 2014 and unpublished STATIN data.

“There was no survey fielded in 2011” (STATIN, JSLC 2012: 1.2 footnote 1).

Table A4: Percentage distribution of the population by parish, 2012 to 2016

Parish	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	% distribution 2016
Kingston and St Andrew	666,000	667,600	668,900	669,900	670,800	24.6
St Thomas	94,400	94,600	94,800	94,900	95,100	3.5
Portland	82,200	82,400	82,500	82,700	82,800	3.0
St Mary	114,200	114,500	114,700	114,900	115,000	4.2
St Ann	173,200	173,700	174,000	174,200	174,500	6.4
Trelawny	75,600	75,700	75,900	76,000	76,100	2.8
St James	184,700	185,100	185,500	185,700	186,000	6.8
Hanover	69,900	70,000	70,200	70,300	70,400	2.6
Westmoreland	144,800	145,200	145,500	145,700	145,800	5.3
St Elizabeth	151,000	151,400	151,600	151,900	152,100	5.6
Manchester	190,800	191,300	191,600	191,900	192,200	7.0
Clarendon	246,300	246,900	247,400	247,800	248,100	9.1
St Catherine	518,400	519,600	520,600	521,400	522,000	19.1
Total	2,711,500	2,718,000	2,723,200	2,727,300	2,730,900	100.0

Source: STATIN, Demographic Statistics 2016, Kingston, 2017.

Table A5: Employment rate by age group and sex, 2006–2016

Years	14–24	Male	Female	25 and over	Male	Female
		14–24	14–24		25 and over	25 and over
007	76.3	83	68	92.3	94.9	89.2
2008	74.1	80.6	66.4	92.1	93.7	88.7
2009	72.9	77.5	66.8	91.1	93.2	87.9
2010	69.2	74.8	62.1	90.3	90.3	86.9
2011	69.9	76.1	62.1	90.1	93.1	86.6
2012	66.6	73.5	57.5	88.9	92.5	86.1
2013	62.3	70	52	88.9	92.4	84.7
2014	65.8	73	55.9	89.9	93.1	86.1
2015	67.2	73.4	58.7	89.9	93.3	86
2016	68.2	73	62.2	90.3	93.8	86.3

Source: ESSJ, 2006–2016.

Table A6: Employed labour force by industry group, 2016

Industry group	No.	% of employed labour force
(a) Wholesale and retail; (b) Repair of motor vehicle and equipment	233,200	20.6
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	207,100	18.3
Construction	81,500	7.2
Hotels and restaurants and associated services	80,700	7.1
Transport storage and communication	71,800	6.4
Manufacturing	71,700	6.3
Real estate renting and business activities	70,700	6.3
Education	70,000	6.2
Public administration and defence; Compulsory social security	57,200	5.1
Private households with employed persons	55,600	4.9
Other community social and personal service activities	54,200	4.8
Health and social work	32,600	2.9
Financial intermediation	26,200	2.3
Electricity gas and water supply	8,000	0.7
Mining and quarrying	6,900	0.6
Industry not specified	3,100	0.3

Source: <http://statinja.gov.jm/LabourForce/NewLFS.aspx>

Table A7: Unemployment rates by sex, 2000–2016

Year	Males	Females	Average
2000	10.2	22.3	16.25
2001	10.3	21.0	15.65
2002	9.9	19.6	14.75
2003	7.8	16.0	11.90
2004	7.9	16.4	12.15
2005	7.6	15.8	11.70
2006	7.0	14.5	10.75
2007	6.1	14.3	10.20
2008	7.3	14.6	10.95
2009	8.6	14.8	11.70
2010	9.2	16.2	12.70
2011	9.3	16.7	13.00
2012	11.0	18.0	14.50
2013	11.0	20.0	15.50
2014	10.1	18.1	14.10
2015	9.9	17.8	13.85
2016	9.3	17.6	13.45

Source: STATIN, Demographic Statistics, 2016.

Table A8: Proportion of the population below the national poverty line, 2006–2015

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2012	2013	2014	2015
Kingston Metropolitan Area	9.4	6.2	7	12.8	14.4	19.7	17.8	15.3	14.3
Other towns	9.2	4	10.7	10.2	11.6	16.6	20	16.2	14.7
Rural areas	19.8	15.3	17.0	22.5	23.2	21.3	31.3	24.9	28.5
Jamaica	14.3	9.9	12.3	16.5	17.6	19.9	24.6	20	21.2

Source: PIOJ; STATIN, Survey of Living Conditions, 2015.

Note: No data for 2011.

Table A9: Annual flows of immigrants in Jamaica by category, 2007–2016

Years	Returning residents				Involuntary returned migrants				Common-wealth citizens	Aliens	Total
	United States	Canada	United Kingdom	Other	United States	Canada	United Kingdom	Others			
2007	631	130	421	159	1,329	218	870	567	4,933	2,171	11,429
2008	595	152	368	154	1,476	210	817	731	5,283	8,511	18,297
2009	628	108	256	178	1,472	223	619	762	4,696	1,197	10,139
2010	554	137	247	196	1,371	189	458	807	3,487	1,275	8,721
2011	522	147	208	191	1,379	226	315	709	3,495	1,318	8,510
2012	494	132	219	142	1,220	236	305	548	3,426	5,457	12,179
2013	403	138	180	118	1,050	186	291	612	3,165	7,289	13,432
2014	382	108	162	110	833	218	290	643	3,507	8,174	14,427
2015	420	118	191	125	708	201	310	760	3,660	8,058	14,551
2016	346	123	164	133	666	146	278	667	3,474	7,639	13,636
Total	4,975	1,293	2,416	1,506	11,504	2,053	4,553	6,806	39,126	51,089	125,321

Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2010–2016 editions. Where figures are adjusted over time, latest figure prevails.

Note: This group does not include diplomats who have been accredited in Jamaica.

Table A10: Annual flows of immigrants as a percentage of the working population and the total population, 2007–2016

Year	Population at end of year	Working age population	Immigrants	Immigrants as a % of the total population	Immigrants as a % of the working age population (15–64 years old)
2007	2,667,200	1,699,300	10,933	0.41	0.64
2008	2,676,700	1,715,200	18,059	0.67	1.05
2009	2,686,100	1,729,600	10,285	0.38	0.59
2010	2,695,500	1,771,300	8,721	0.32	0.49
2011	2,704,100	1,794,300	8,510	0.31	0.47
2012	2,711,500	1,814,300	12,149	0.45	0.67
2013	2,717,900	1,832,400	13,432	0.49	0.73
2014	2,723,200	1,849,900	14,427	0.53	0.78
2015	2,727,300	1,867,100	14,557	0.53	0.78
2016	2,730,900	1,879,300	13,636	0.50	0.73

Sources: Compiled and calculated from STATIN, 2011 and PIOJ, ESSJ, 2006–2016.

Table A11: Annual flows of labour immigrants to Jamaica, 2006–2016

Years	Work permit approval			Exemptions	Grand total
	New applicants	Renewals	Total (Work permit new approvals and renewals)		
2007	3,455	2,120	5,575	1,967	7,542
2008	2,884	2,200	5,084	2,077	7,161
2009	1,843	1,726	3,569	1,874	5,443
2010	1,729	1,666	3,395	1,829	5,224
2011	1,658	1,484	3,142	1,534	4,676
2012	1,801	1,536	3,337	1,671	5,008
2013	2,674	1,584	4,258	1,471	5,729
2014	2,281*	1,929*	4,535	1,292	5,827***
2015	2,583	2,127**	4,632	799	5,431***
2016	2,700	2,168	4,868	871	5,739
Total	23,600***	18,540***	42,395	15,385	57,780***

Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2010–2016; Ministry of Labour and Social Security annual performance reports 2014–2015 and 2016–2017.

*Reflects 2014/2015 fiscal year running from April 2014 to March 2015.

**Reflects 2015/2016 fiscal year running from April 2015 to March 2016.

***Total incorporates fiscal year figure for one or more of values.

Table A12: Annual flows of labour immigrants by country of birth, 2006–2016

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2014	2015	2016	Total
China	1,299	1,215	1,480	961	1,038	1,042	1,723	1,880	2,021	12,659
India	1,093	1,135	869	713	728	n.a.	554	708	728	6,528
United Kingdom	175	141	180	121	101	91	88	133	112	1142
Spain	n.a.	94	95	99	69	60	132	230	229	1008
Russian Federation	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	15	8	8	31
Germany	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	35	42	40	117
Romania	176	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	7	4	8	195
United States	588	322	282	226	167	178	234	308	268	2,573
Canada	117	124	123	70	133	82	56	68	94	867
Dominican Republic	712	975	519	253	77	105	2	252	284	3,179
Cuba	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	123	231	283	637
Trinidad and Tobago	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	30	17	22	69
Dominica	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	95	80	64	239
Guyana	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6	10	8	24
Nigeria	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	26	18	36	43	38	161
Mexico	n.a.	n.a.	257	119	65	103	151	304	368	1367

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2014	2015	2016	Total
Colombia	n.a.	n.a.	136	103	62	46	33	29	62	471
Australia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13	7	11	9	18	9	67
New Zealand	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3	2	1	3	1	10
All other countries	1,767	1,569	1,143	891	919	1,404	987	996	1,199	10,875
Total	5,927	5,575	5,084	3,569	3,395	3,142	4,317	5,364	5,846	42,219

Source: STATIN statistics, 2017.

Table A13: Annual flows of labour immigrants by occupation/type of employment, 2006–2016

Type of employment	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013*	2014*	2015*	2016*
Professionals, senior officials, technicians	3,766	3,064	3,018	2,616	2,610	2,519	2,723	2,888	3,122	3,806	4,529
Clerks	61	93	133	105	84	67	33	30	31	23	24
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	422	514	512	366	289	252	283	286	247	258	344
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	112	3	88	8	38	26	61	52	110	85	106
Craft and related trades workers	1448	1,808	1220	351	200	200	132	314	326	230	287
Plant, machine operators, assemblers	49	68	81	77	58	14	34	466	69	69	68
Elementary occupations	37	22	32	46	113	64	71	88	305	74	93
Occupation not specified	32	3	n.a.	n.a.	3	0	0	14	0	0	0
Total	5,927	5,575	5,084	3,569	3,395	3,142	3,337	4,138	4,210	4,545	5,451

Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2000–2016.

Table A14: Annual flows of refugees and asylum seekers to Jamaica, 2006–2015

Years	Cuba	Haiti	Other countries	Total
2006	14	Nil	Nil	14
2007	Nil	Nil	1 Eritrea	5
			3 Uganda	
			1 United States*	
2008	Nil	Nil	4 Myanmar	5
			1 Uganda	
2009	Nil	Nil	2 Nigeria	2
2010	Nil	62	Nil	62
2011	Nil	Nil	Nil	0
2012	Nil	Nil	1 Mexico	1
2013	2	0	2 Syrian Arab Republic	4
2014	0	0	0	0
2015	2	Nil	1 Bangladesh	5
			1 Jordan	
			1 Syrian Arab Republic	
2016	21	Nil	Nil	21
Total	39	62	18	119

Sources: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) popstats.unhcr.org; *PIOJ/STATIN, ESSJ, 2011–2016. Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency Jamaica (PICA) supplies figures for the ESSJ based on the number of persons granted refugee status in Jamaica. UNHCR approaches the collection of data on refugees, asylum seekers and other persons of concern from various perspectives. UNHCR statistics used in Table 12 reflect the number of persons reported to have applied for refugee status in the year stated.

Table A15: Annual flows of foreign graduate students to the University of the West Indies (UWI) and University of Technology, Jamaica (UTECH), 2006–2016

Sex	2006		2007		2008		2009		2010		2011	
	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH
Males	89	Nil	92	1	107	1	126	1	133	2	137	1
Females	121	Nil	125	Nil	119	1	172	1	255	1	248	Nil
Total	210	Nil	217	1	226	2	298	2	388	3	385	1

Sex	2012		2013		2014		2015		2016		Total
	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	UWI	UTECH	
Males	137	5	143	7	141	6	149	2	157	Nil	1,437
Females	248	3	293	8	294	6	291	5	340	13	2,544
Total	385	8	436	15	435	12	440	7	497	13	3,981

Sources: UWI Mona, Office of Planning and Institutional Research reports, 2004–2010 and disaggregated data provided by office in 2017. UWI 2014–2016 data included one student declared as “N”, which accounts for any +1 discrepancies in totalling; UTECH, Office of International Students and the School of Graduate Studies and Research. For both universities, the year refers to the beginning of the academic year.

Table A16: Naturalization of foreign-born persons in Jamaica, 2007–2015

Years	Total number of granted naturalization
2006	178
2007	177
2008	372
2009	326
2010	440
2011	0
2012	16
2013	37
2014	152
2015	217
Total	1,915

Source: PICA and Registrar General's Department.

Table A17: Annual flows of Jamaican emigrants to the major destination countries, 2006–2015

Years	United States	United Kingdom	Canada	Total
2006	24,976	2,526	1,686	29,188
2007	19,375	3,165	2,135	24,675
2008	18,477	2,715	2,325	23,517
2009	21,783	3,148	2,455	27,386
2010	19,825	2,958	2,310	25,093
2011	19,662	2,514	2,055	24,231
2012	20,705	3,005	2,185	25,895
2013	19,400	2,874	2,470	24,744
2014	19,026	2,372	3,055	24,453
2015	17,642	1,782	3,425	22,849
Total	200,871	27,059	24,101	252,031

Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2016, referring to persons granted permanent resident status in the United States and Canada; United States, Yearbooks 2010, 2011 and 2015.

Table A18: Emigration of Jamaicans to the United States by gender and age group, 2006–2015

Years	Under 18		18–24		25–34		35–44		45–54		55–64		65 and over		Unknown		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
2006	2,845	2,925	1,634	1,766	2,531	2,765	2,030	2,807	1,065	2,094	556	1,031	287	639	1	0	24,976
2007	2,124	2,200	1,327	1,375	2,093	2,059	1,599	2,187	854	1,615	404	789	261	488	0	0	19,375
2008	2,202	2,249	1,230	1,320	1,888	1,823	1,546	1,930	915	1,532	482	761	187	412	0	0	18,477
2009	2,360	2,561	1,566	1,495	2,343	2,258	1,867	2,300	1,034	1,818	475	971	242	493	0	0	21,783
2010	2,195	2,304	1,375	1,390	2,019	2,091	1,556	2,076	1,031	1,824	430	856	224	454	n.a.	n.a.	19,825
2011	2,281	2,341	1,322	1,400	1,870	1,972	1,603	2,126	949	1,797	499	935	185	381	n.a.	n.a.	19,661
2012	2,279	2,324	1,500	1,540	1,963	1,978	1,622	2,185	1,083	1,929	494	1,067	233	508	n.a.	n.a.	20,705
2013	2,097	2,091	1,223	1,289	1,819	1,809	1,469	1,852	1,017	1,809	490	1,031	232	478	2	692*	19,400
2014	2,193	2,128	1,324	1,314	1,748	1,769	1,529	1,978	1,053	1,834	514	963	232	447	n.a.	n.a.	19,026
2015	2,022	2,003	1,122	1,165	1,689	1,772	1,357	1,836	934	1,663	449	934	207	489	n.a.	n.a.	17,642
Total	22,598	23,126	13,623	14,054	19,963	20,296	16,178	21,277	9,935	17,915	4,793	9,338	2,290	4,789	3	692*	200,870

Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ various years, DHS statistics 2013–2015 from www.dhs.gov website.

Table A19: Jamaican emigrants to the United States by occupational status, fiscal years, 2006–2015

Occupational status	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
Management, professional and related occupations	1,066	880	997	1,138	1,010	1,020	1,079	1,129	1,157	2,433	11,909
Sales and office occupations	628	420	476	510	492	506	502	449	440	226	4,649
Farming, forestry and fisheries	243	171	179	243	253	270	329	298	297	68	2,351
Operators, fabricators and labourers (Construction, extraction, maintenance and repair occupations)	176	160	144	190	219	166	277	331	328	341	2,332
Precision production, craft, repair (Production, transportation and material moving occupations)	432	329	412	549	459	296	276	261*	296	116	3,426
Services	4,116	3,196	3,055	3,484	2,761	2,346	2,422	2,181	2,136	614	26,311
Military	0	0	3	0	0	D	D	D	4	3	10
Total workers	6,661	5,156	5,266	6,114	5,194	4,604	4,885	4,649*	4,658	3,801	50,988
Not reported/Unknown	8,223	6,173	5,188	5,620	5,392	5,954	6,295	6,120	5,967	6,705	61,637
No occupation/not working outside the home	10,092	8,046	8,043	10,049	9,239	9,064	9,525	8,623	8,401	7,136	88,218
Total	24,976	19,375	18,497	21,783	19,825	19,622	20,705	19,400*	19,026	17,642	200,851*

Source: ESSJ various years, DHS statistics 2013–2015 from www.dhs.gov website.

Table A20: Emigration of Jamaicans to Canada by age group, 2006–2015

Years	0–19	20–29	30–39	40–49	50–59	60 and over	Total
2006	600	300	420	235	90	40	1,685
2007	675	410	515	275	130	105	2,110
2008	740	425	565	355	125	100	2,310
2009	820	430	560	365	140	115	2,430
2010	700	460	555	320	155	120	2,310
2011	545	490	500	310	110	100	2,055
2012	600	460	555	345	135	90	2,185
2013	755	445	630	425	125	90	2,470
2014	885	630	775	425	205	135	3,055
2015	1,010	670	910	490	210	140	3,430
Total	7,330	4,720	5,985	3,545	1,425	1,035	24,040

Table A21: Jamaican emigrants to Canada by occupational status, 2006–2015

Occupational status	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
Professionals, senior officials and technicians	120	150	230	215	190	180	150	185	120	175	1,715
Clerks	5	25	10	20	15	15	5	5	10	5	115
Service workers and shop and market sales workers	60	75	65	80	70	110	40	70	65	5	640
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	30	40	55	35	40	0	0	0	0	0	200
Craft and related trades workers	40	80	75	75	100	85	15	45	75	90	680
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	25	25	20	10	25	35	0	0	0	0	140
Elementary occupations	40	85	70	95	65	50	25	10	0	45	485
Non-workers, new workers, homemakers, students, retirees	1,090	1,325	1,455	1,585	1,470	1,255	1,640	1,940	2,575	2,935	17,270
Unknown	275	305	330	315	280	325	310	215	210	175	2,740
Total emigrants	1,685	2,110	2,310	2,430	2,255	2,055	2,185	2,470	3,055	3,430	23,985

Sources: PIOJ, ESSJ, 2007–2016.

Table A22: Jamaicans entering the United Kingdom by purpose of journey, 2004–2016

Year	Total (rounded)	Work	Study	Family	Other
2004	19,900	735	320	365	18,500
2005	22,300	870	280	440	20,700
2006	21,000	845	240	555	19,400
2007	21,600	730	255	775	19,800
2008	23,000	680	215	830	21,200
2009	28,300	515	230	575	26,900
2010	28,000	445	215	705	26,600
2011	26,400	360	170	625	25,300
2012	24,700	390	170	495	23,700
2013	25,300	265	135	265	24,600
2014	27,600	290	145	215	26,900
2015	30,100	510	155	215	29,200
2016	30,600	375	300	175	29,700

Source: UK Government Statistics published on 24 August 2017.

Table A23: Number of Jamaicans pursuing higher degrees in the United States, and the percentage of the total number of Jamaican postgraduate students, 2001–2016

Jamaicans	Postgraduates	Percentage of total Jamaican postgraduate students
2001	883	20.9
2002	917	21.4
2003	1,152	24.4
2004	1,122	22.5
2005	1,082	24.8
2006	1,224	29.4
2007	1,251	30.4
2008	1,235	31.9
2009	1,034	26.5
2010	1,033	29.3
2011	827	26.07
2012	750	27.84
2013	664	26.57
2014	688	27.5
2015	664	27.21
2016	689	27.45

Source: Institute of International Education Open Doors, 2001–2010, 2011.

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