

Migration in Jamaica

A COUNTRY PROFILE 2010



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International Organization for Migration (IOM)



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This document “Migration in Jamaica: A Country Profile 2010” is a part of the project “Strengthening the dialogue and cooperation between the European Union-Latin America and the Caribbean to establish management models on migration and development policy.” The project aims at improving the capacity of national and regional institutions, for the creation and realization and sources of information on migration. It was created to strengthen political dialogue between the European Union and Latin America and the Caribbean.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BOJ	Bank of Jamaica
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CSME	Caribbean Single Market and Economy
CASS	CARICOM Agreement on Social Security
EC-UN JMDI	European Commission – United Nations Joint Migration and Development Initiative
ESSJ	Economic and Social Survey Jamaica
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOJ	Government of Jamaica
HDI	Human Development Index
ICI	Informal Commercial Importer
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
IIE	Institute of International Education
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
JAMPRO	Jamaica Promotions Corporation
JCF	Jamaica Constabulary Force
JCLO	Jamaica Central Labour Organization
JRRAP	Jamaica Reducing Re-offending Action Plan
JTB	Jamaica Tourist Board
KMA	Kingston Metropolitan Area
LAC	Latin American and the Caribbean
MFAFT	Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade
MLSS	Ministry of Labour and Social Security
MNS	Ministry of National Security
MOJ	Ministry of Justice
MP	Migration Profile
NCU	Northern Caribbean University
NWGIMD	National Working Group for International Migration and Development
ONS	Office for National Statistics
OCID	Organised Crime Investigation Division
PACT	People's Action for Community Transformation
PICA	Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency
PIOJ	Planning Institute of Jamaica
STATIN	Statistical Institute of Jamaica
UK	United Kingdom
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USA	United States of America
UTech	University of Technology, Jamaica
UWI	University of the West Indies
WB	World Bank

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Migration Profile (MP) gives a descriptive analysis of the main migration and development characteristics and trends for Jamaica. This is based on the available data and information; it therefore provides an evidence-based foundation for the formulation of policy relating to migration and its interconnectedness with socio-economic development. This approach is intended to become a tool for the Government of Jamaica to: a) enhance the knowledge base relating to migration; 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.

The scope of the MP is guided by the core and non-core indicators of migration that were included in the “Template for the Migration Profile for Jamaica” in the Terms of Reference (TOR) for this study. Likewise, the definitions used for different types of migrants in the MP were based on those provided in the TOR.

Migration characteristics and trends

The types of migration included are: immigration of foreign-born nationals, return of Jamaican nationals, emigration, the international outward and inward movement of students, visitors, refugees and asylum-seekers, and irregular migrants. The period under review is 2000–2010.

The foreign-born immigrant population is characterized as having high educational levels, but most do not remain in Jamaica in the long term, so are not ongoing contributors to the economy and society. Other groups coming into Jamaica are returning nationals, of which large numbers are deported to Jamaica, principally from the USA and the UK. This population requires considerable assistance for their rehabilitation and participation in the Jamaican society. Voluntary return migrants contribute in many ways to the labour force and, those that are retired, to investment in housing. Additionally, returnees engage in voluntary activities in local communities, assisting both materially and socially.

There is a continuing trend of high emigration among the young, skilled, working-age population as well as of young persons under the age of 20. The trend in the emigration of nurses and teachers that began in the 1990s has continued into the current period. Students at different levels of secondary and tertiary education are an important component of this movement. There is also high female labour migration linked to the absence of mothers, which has been economically positive but emotionally negative (with its effects on families), especially for children and the elderly who are left behind.

Some emigration is short-term and involves persons on short-term labour contracts through government managed programmes with the USA and Canada for work in agriculture and the hospitality industry. Trafficking in Persons is also usually circulatory and the migration itself occurs within legal channels, but the exploitative conditions with which it is associated contravene human rights. Trafficking has continued despite recent efforts to identify and restrict the practice, but persistent economic, social and educational deficiencies continue to be the basis of the vulnerability of young persons to exploitation by traffickers.

Remittances are sent, in kind and money from migrants abroad, principally as personal obligations. Although the sums of money remitted are typically very small, the total annual amount is substantial and contributed 14 per cent of GDP in 2010. Remittances are mostly used for household and living expenses, thus alleviating poverty, while the amounts directed into saving and investment are generally low. Attractive financial instruments and other inducements are needed to encourage significant savings and investment in national programmes. This is critical if substantial benefits are to be derived from the Jamaican diaspora with the potential for sustainable implications for development. Other benefits of linkages with the diaspora relate to the promotion of international trade in goods and services (including tourism) and the potential for the transfer of expertise to Jamaica in required fields.

Data

A number of data gaps in the indicators of migration were found to exist and are outlined in Annex IV. These gaps need to be closed. Further, there is a lack of coordination between the various government agencies with responsibility for the collection of migration-related data, with no consistent and integrated system of migration data collection for Jamaica. This matter needs to be addressed so as to facilitate the sharing and amalgamation of datasets across government agencies. Additionally, there is a low level of compliance on the part of Jamaica with CARICOM Census questions on migration. It is suggested that this situation be rectified, so that a regional perspective on Jamaica's intra-regional emigration and immigration trends can be identified and the potential contribution of this movement be incorporated into policy.

Consequences of migration for socio-economic development

Current trends in emigration have a major impact on human resource capacity and the nature and quality of the labour force. High levels of migration of specific professional groups, especially nurses and teachers, have a negative effect on the labour force and, through the erosion of staff quotas, on the essential health and education sectors. Meanwhile, immigration is currently an ad hoc measure for filling labour force vacancies. A national assessment of the human resource capacity needs would facilitate policies for coherent labour force planning. There has also been immigration associated with short-term loans and technical projects. These should be assessed for policy in light of their risk of undermining the development of the national labour force with long term negative effects.

Migration makes a positive contribution to development on account of the remittances received from abroad, especially in the alleviation of poverty through personal gifts in cash and kind as well as support received by communities and institutions, such as schools and health facilities. There are no data on the outward flow of money from Jamaica to persons in the Diaspora. While the impact on national development through the saving and investment of remittances is low, it is emphasised that remittances are private resources so that their use for national programmes must not be mandated but instead, encouraged through beneficial terms and incentives provided.

Both women and men form part of long term and short-term flows of labour migrants in all occupational categories. The implications for gender roles are complex and the extent and nature of change brought about through migration is not clear. The high migration of women is especially associated with the negative effects upon children and dependents left behind, despite the increased economic benefits of the remittances which typically are sent to support children and the family.

Migration also has implications for health both of the migrants themselves and the populations with which they come into contact at source and destination locations. Migrants may become exposed to new diseases in transit and at the destination; some migrants also develop mental health problems to which the stress of the migration experience contributes significantly.

Migration has been demonstrated to have both positive and negative effects on Jamaican culture. The positive effects are derived from the promotion of Jamaica through popular culture which has benefits for trade in goods and services, especially in the countries of the Jamaican diaspora. Negative effects relate to the culture of external orientation that migration has encouraged.

Legislative framework and governance

The main plan currently guiding national development is Vision 2030 Jamaica. There are six agencies of government with prime responsibility for migration matters and the legislative framework underpinning Jamaica's policies includes some eleven statutes currently in force, which were enacted specifically to deal with

migration. These laws fall into four main categories: immigration; employment of foreign nationals (including those who move within the CSME context of the Free Movement of Skilled Persons); emigration (relating to recruitment of workers, emigrants' protection, passport regulations); trafficking (prevention/suppression and punishment). Additionally, there are other laws that relate in various ways to migration, such as those that regulate employment agencies, customs, child care and protection and criminal justice.

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 CARICOM Single Market and Economy (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.

The migration issues facing Jamaica are primarily related to: labour oversupply/under-absorption and mobility resulting in brain drain or waste; skill shortages; absentee parents; engagement of the Diaspora (skills and financial resources); and return and irregular migration (that is, deportees and trafficking in persons). The responsiveness of policy makers to these challenges has been uneven, and much more needs to be done to ensure that there is a positive interface between migration and development in Jamaica.

Recommendations

The following recommendations concerning migration management are made with a view to providing general themes which are of high relevance to the achievement of incorporating migration into development policy. These themes are: 1) Data management; 2) Human resource capacity management; 3) Institutional arrangement and legislative framework; 4) Protection of migrants and migrant households; and 5) Linkages with the Diaspora. The mechanisms for addressing the migration challenges highlighted in these themes would be carried forward, by the relevant groups, for discussion of specific policies. While the policies should aim to minimize the negative and maximize the positive aspects of migration, they need to be cognizant of the importance of the freedom of individuals to choose their life paths and livelihoods. The preservation of this freedom, which includes the freedom to migrate, is in itself, an important aspect of development.

INTRODUCTION

I. Background to the Jamaica international migration profile

Migration has become increasingly recognized as an important aspect of European Union (EU) and Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) relations, as migration “has profoundly affected the EU-LAC Strategic Partnership since it was launched in Rio de Janeiro in 1999.”¹ The EU and LAC are actively involved in dialogue and developing bi-regional cooperation following the launch of the EU-LAC Structured and Comprehensive Dialogue on Migration in June 2009, and further commitments being undertaken by Governments at the Sixth EU-LAC Summit in May 2010. In order to facilitate the exchange of information on migration flows, and to strengthen policies aimed at linking migration and development, attention has been specifically focused on migration. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) in partnership with Fundación Internacional para Iberoamérica de Administración y Políticas Públicas (FIIAPP) were commissioned with the implementation of this project.²

2. Objectives of the Jamaica migration profile

The migration profile (MP) gives a descriptive analysis of the main migration characteristics and trends with respect to Jamaica based on the available data and information. In so doing, the MP provides an evidence-based foundation for the formulation of policy relating to migration and its interconnectedness with socio-economic development. This approach is intended to become a tool for the Government of Jamaica to:

- a) enhance the knowledge base relating to migration;
- b) identify the data gaps;
- c) provide the basis for coherence in the development of migration policies to effectively manage migration in the interest of national development.

3. Methodology

The methodology employed for the migration profile included procedures for: a) the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data on migration and related societal issues; b) dissemination of information at meetings with the National Working Group; and c) final evaluation and creation of an action plan for carrying forward the recommendations.

1 European Union – Latin America – Caribbean Information Sheet.

2 Ibid.

Definitions

Definitions of key terms used in this study are listed in Annex I.

Data sources

The data were obtained from: a) scholarly literature and official documentation; b) government collected data relating to all the relevant aspects of migration; and c) stakeholder interviews (see Annex II).

Scope of the Migration Profile

The scope of the MP was guided by the core and non-core indicators of migration that were provided by the “Template for the Migration Profile for Jamaica” in the Terms of Reference for this study (see Annex III).

Data Gaps

Gaps were encountered in the data relating to the core and non-core indicators included in the Template for the MP (see Annex IV). The data and existing gaps are further discussed in Part E.

PART A: BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION TRENDS FOR JAMAICA

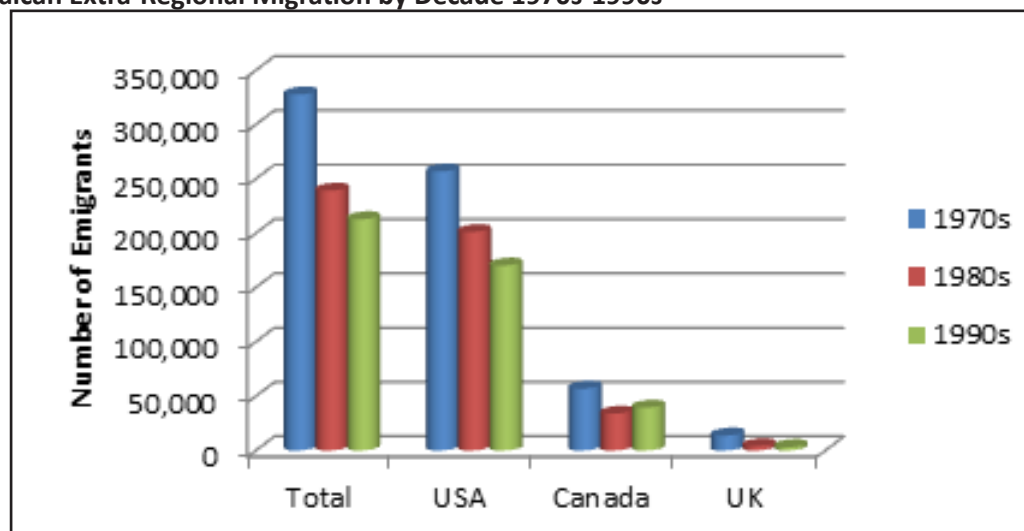
Jamaica's historical dependence on immigrant labour, together with the early emigration response to constraints at home and opportunities abroad, resulted in an enduring high propensity for migration. These factors are critical to an understanding of the current trends and characteristics of migration, and they are also significant in understanding the interrelationships between migration and development (see Thomas-Hope, 1998, 2002). In order to provide background to the current movements (taken here to be during the period 2000–2010), a brief overview follows of the main international migration trends over the three decades leading up to the turn of the 21st century.

Immigration and emigration

The 1970s to the end of the 20th century

Emigration dominated the flows of the late 20th century. From the 1970s to the 1990s, the total number of emigrants to the USA accounted for 80.33 per cent of Jamaica's overall recorded emigration. Emigrants from Jamaica to Canada over the same period accounted for 16.96 per cent of the total, and the UK, for 2.71 per cent. The trend was one of decline in the volume of flow to all three of these extra-regional destinations (see Figure 1). The average number of those going to the USA 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.

Figure 1: Jamaican Extra-Regional Migration by Decade 1970s-1990s

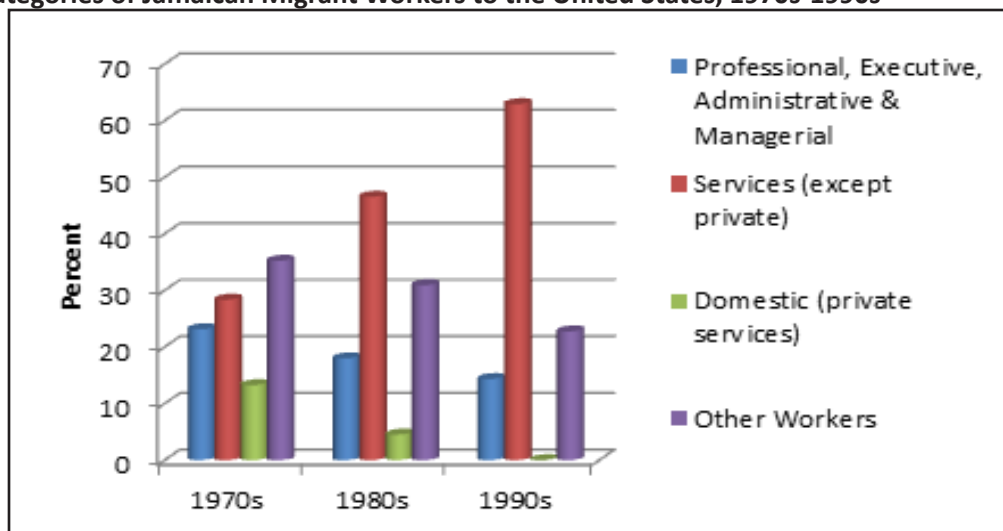


Source: Compiled from data in *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica*, volumes for 1970–2000.

In addition to the overall decline in numbers of Jamaican emigrants going to the USA and Canada, there was also a decline in the percentage of those in the professional, executive, administrative and managerial category. In the case of the USA, the professional, administrative and managerial category of emigrants decreased from around 23 per cent in the 1970s to less than 15 per cent in the 1990s (see Figure 2). At the same time, the percentage in the service category increased. Likewise, emigration to Canada showed a declining trend in the percentage of professional migrants from Jamaica, which accounted for around 13 per cent of the total in the 1970s, declining to slightly under 10 per cent in the 1990s (see Figure 3). Although the percentage of

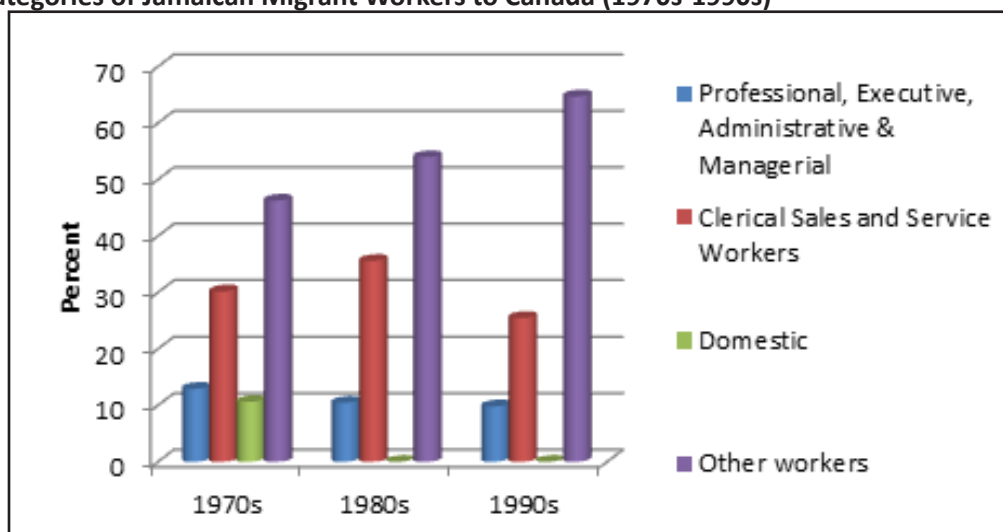
professionals in the migration flows to the USA and Canada declined, within that group, the emigration of nurses and teachers were particularly high (having been targeted for recruitment to work in the USA, Canada and the UK) and this factor had a negative impact on the health and education sectors (Morgan, Appleton and Sives, 2006; Mortley, 2009; Thomas-Hope, 2001).

Figure 2: Categories of Jamaican Migrant Workers to the United States, 1970s-1990s



Source: Compiled from data in: PIOJ, *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica*, volumes for 1970–2010.

Figure 3: Categories of Jamaican Migrant Workers to Canada (1970s-1990s)



Source: Compiled from data in: PIOJ, *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica*, volumes for 1970–1999.

There was also a trend from the 1970s of a large proportion of emigrants to the USA and Canada classified as having no occupation. This category included students and persons admitted under the terms of family reunification. In the case of Jamaicans to the USA, around 55 per cent of the migrants on average for the decade of the 1970s were listed as not being in the workforce. This figure increased over the following two decades to around 74 per cent by the end of the 1990s. The Jamaican emigrants to Canada who were recorded as having no occupation, accounted for an average of 62 per cent of the total in the decade of the 1970s, declining to an average of 54 per cent and 47 per cent in the 1980s and 1990s, respectively.

The loss of critical human resources consequent on the emigration of persons in professional and

managerial occupations to the USA and Canada was partly compensated for by immigration. This was chiefly of Commonwealth citizens, especially from the Indian subcontinent and CARICOM states, to whom Work Permits were issued for specific employment purposes. In the year 2000, there were 5,727 non-Jamaican Caribbean persons in Jamaica, which accounted for 22.7 per cent of the total non-national stock in the country (Thomas-Hope, 2009). US-born persons totalled 5,514 (22% of the total stock of non-nationals) at the time of the 2001 Jamaica Population Census, and UK-born persons totalled 4,222 (16.7% of immigrant stock).

Other migration trends of the late 20th century

Short-term labour migrants

The above figures of Jamaicans accorded migrant status in the USA do not include short-term contract workers, nor does the definition of “migrant” as guided by the Template for this Migration Profile 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 1960s, it has been negotiated bilaterally (GOJ and destination governments), managed and administered by the GOJ through the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, as follows:

- a) Farm Worker Programme to the USA;
- b) Hotel Worker Programme in the USA, to include waiters and chamber-maids;
- c) Farm Worker Programme to Canada;
- d) Factory Worker Programme to Canada; and
- e) Recruitment Programme of Miscellaneous Workers to Guantanamo Bay.³

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the number of men recruited to work in the farm worker programme in the USA was, for example, in the amounts of 12,051, 13,881 and 10,818, for 1989, 1990 and 1991, respectively (compiled from GOJ, Ministry of Labour and Social Security 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 USA and factory workers (mostly men) for Canada. For example, in 1999, short-term migrants on these programmes amounted to 2,462 to the USA and 5,075 to Canada (ibid.).

Return migrants

Data published in the Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (PIOJ, 1999) indicated a trend of increasing flows back to Jamaica of migrants (also termed return residents), returning in largest numbers from the UK and the USA. Returning migrants were not monitored and recorded prior to 1993. Taking data for the years 1993–1999, there was a total of 15,380 return voluntary return migrants recorded, of which 43.4 per cent came from the UK, 38.4 per cent from the USA, 12.1 per cent from Canada, and 6.1 per cent from all other countries combined. The difficulty with these data is that they do not include all returning residents. They are based on applications to the Customs Department for duty concessions on the importation of personal and household goods. Only one person per household makes the application and is, therefore, recorded. Further, the customs provision only applies to persons who can prove that they had resided abroad for a minimum of three years, or one-and-a-half years in the case of students, so those return migrants who do not meet these criteria are not recorded.

By the late 1990s, the numbers of recorded voluntary return migrant arrivals were exceeded by involuntary

³ The workers recruited for the Guantanamo Bay Programme includes small numbers, amounting to a total of some 25 to 35 persons in any one year, of barbers, store workers, drivers, electricians, welders, painters, food service workers and the like (Government of Jamaica, Ministry of Labour and Social Security statistics).

returnees, that is, persons deported from their migration destinations. So new was the evidence of this trend in deportee arrivals, that it was not monitored until 1995, at which time the Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF) documented the arrivals. The average number of persons deported to Jamaica in the second half of the 1990s was 1,293 from the USA, 320 from Canada, 169 from the UK, and 73 from other countries (PIOJ, ESSJ 1995–1999). The demographic and socio-economic characteristics and health status of the persons deported were not recorded, so no data are available in this regard that could be used in the development of reintegration programmes.

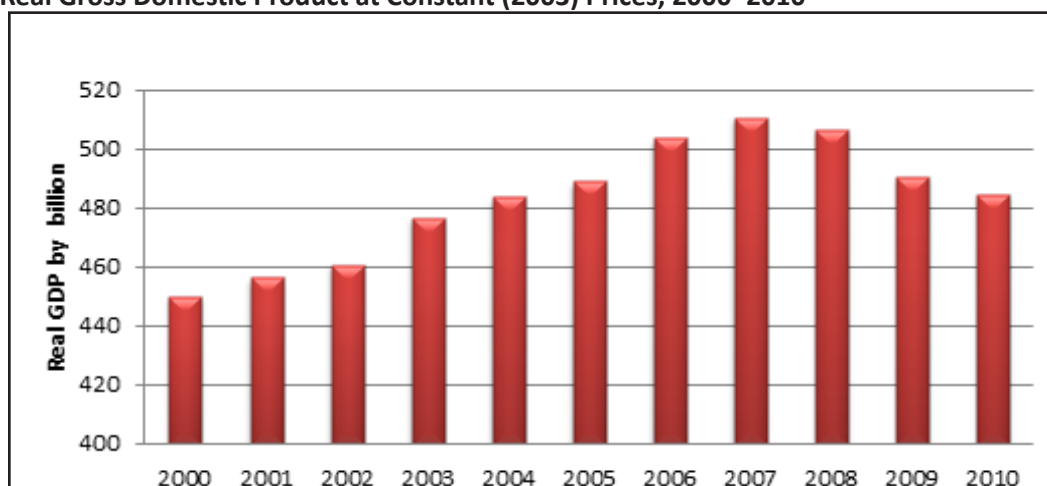
The trends of the late 20th century largely continued into the 21st century, and the current period which is outlined in Part B of this study.

PART B: CURRENT MIGRATION PATTERNS WITHIN THE DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

BI: Development, demographic change and net migration

Jamaica's socio-economic development has been significantly affected by the current global economic downturn following the 2008 financial crisis and its aftermath. As a small developing economy that is fully connected to the international market and also dependent on its performance, external shocks can be devastating to many productive sectors that rely heavily on foreign capital investments and the demands for raw materials and natural resources. The Real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) value declined considerably from 2008 (see Figure 4), and employment opportunities similarly declined in many sectors of the economy such as Mining and Quarrying, Manufacturing, Construction, Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repair and Installation Machinery, Transport, Storage and Communication (PIOJ, 2008–2011). The current situation is partly the consequence of the global economic downturn, but structurally the results of social and economic policies that have been implemented by successive governments over the last 20 years. For example, the fundamental elements of the economy took long to recover from Jamaica's financial sector downturn in the early 1990s. The economy was characterised by consecutive fiscal deficits, negative balance of payments and external trade, continued devaluation of the Jamaican dollar, high interest rates and high inflation rates.⁴

Figure 4: Real Gross Domestic Product at Constant (2003) Prices, 2000–2010



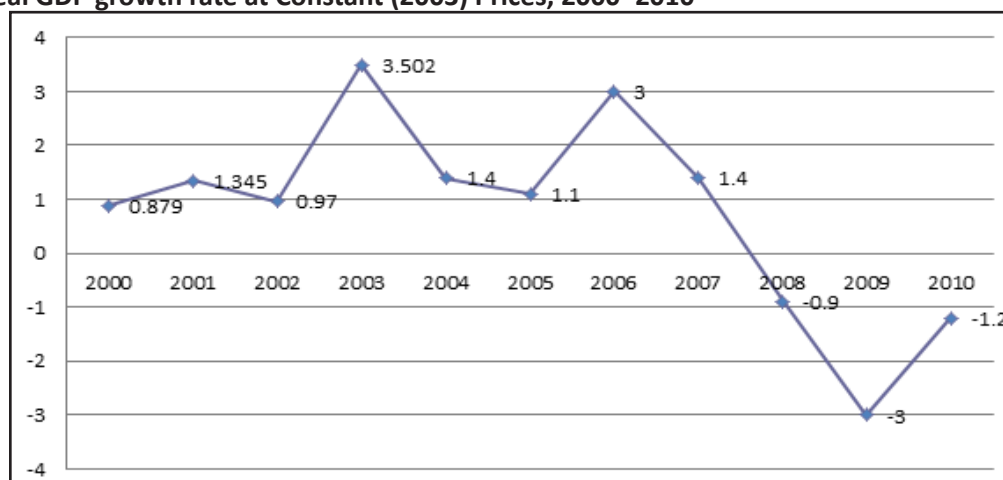
Sources: PIOJ, *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ)*, 2004–2010.

While there has been a decline in economic activities, there are, nevertheless, signs of improvement in some key indicators that may prompt and sustain a rebound of the economy. For example, current monetary policies have led to the lowering of interest rates to single digits, the Jamaican dollar has been fairly stable in regard to other major international currencies, and there has been a relative control of the inflation rate and a strengthened confidence in the economy (PIOJ, 2009, 2010).

With reference to the growth rate, real GDP increased in 2003 and in 2006, after which it decreased dramatically until 2009, and recovered slightly in 2010 (see Figure 5). The GDP growth rate of -3 per cent in 2009 was far below the unchanging growth rate of the general population (0.2%).

⁴ When compiling and combining data between 2000 and 2010 from the *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ)*, which is published every year by the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ), preference is given to data from most recent reports in order to include corrections and revisions that have been made to data and information analysed in previous reports. This process allows us to carry out the analysis on most revised data and information. For example, the most revised data for the year 2000 are compiled in the *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica 2004*. Data for the year 2010 are provisional in most cases.

Figure 5: Real GDP growth rate at Constant (2003) Prices, 2000–2010



Sources: PIOJ, *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ)*, 2004–2010.

The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita showed a steady increase over the period 2000–2007 (see Table 1). The GDP per capita level increased from approximately JMD86,200.00 in 2000 to JMD189,700.00 in 2007. This declined from roughly JMD187,700.00 in 2008 to JMD179,300.00 in 2010. The decline in GDP per capita was in line with the decrease of the Real GDP and the slow growth of the general population.

Table 1: GDP per capita level, 2000–2010

Years	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
JMD'000	86.2	87	87.5	181.1	182.8	183.8	187.9	189.7	187.7	182.1	179.3

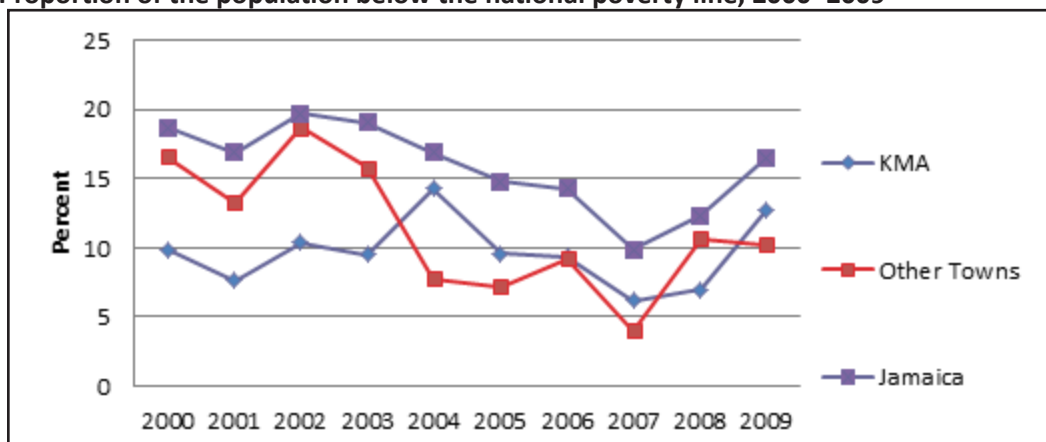
Sources: PIOJ, *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ)*, 2004–2010.

One of the major consequences of the global economic downturn has been the increase in poverty. The Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions (JSLC), has been jointly conducted every year by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) and the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ). These studies have facilitated a consumption-based methodology to determine the poverty line that separates the poor from the non-poor. The consumption based methodology, developed by Seebohm Rowntree in the UK in 1901, is the oldest method that sought to scientifically measure poverty (Noel, 2007). 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 PPP 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.

The poverty threshold in 2009 was slightly lower than the level recorded for 2000 (see Figure 6). The rural population remained the most affected by poverty in the country. Jamaicans residing in “Other Towns”⁵ (category used by STATIN) experienced less poverty than those living in the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA). However, less poverty in Other Towns is not necessarily due to more job opportunities in these urban centres. For example, households in Other Towns received more money from remittances than those living in either the KMA or “Rural Areas” (PIOJ/STATIN, 2010). Furthermore, the sustained investment in road and housing infrastructure in parishes neighbouring the KMA could be another reason explaining the level of poverty in Other Towns when compared to the other regions. While many people come to work in Kingston, they reside in Other Towns adjacent to the KMA.

⁵ STATIN divides the country into three geographical areas. The Kingston Metropolitan Area consists of urban areas within the Parishes of Kingston and St. Andrew. Other Towns refer to urban areas classified as towns by the parish council. Rural Areas means geographic locations that are not classified as urban areas.

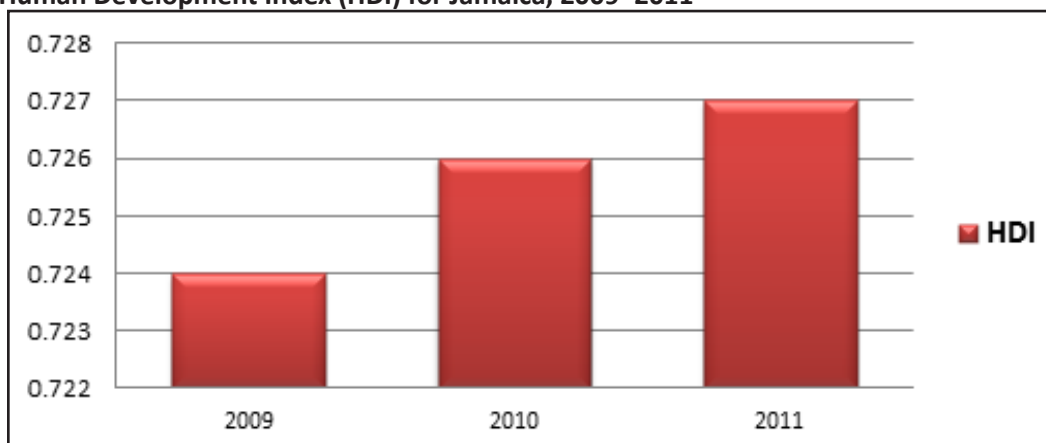
Figure 6: Proportion of the population below the national poverty line, 2000–2009



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

At another level, the Human Development Index (HDI) for Jamaica in 2011 was higher in relative terms than previous values (Figure 7), indicative of an upward trend in this composite measure of education, health and economic factors. Between 2000 and 2011 the Index increased by an average annual growth of 0.62 per cent (UNDP, 2011). With regard to the education and health sectors, there was universal access to healthcare services through the “no user fee policy” in public hospitals introduced in 2007 and continued improvements in education, especially childhood education.

Figure 7: Human Development Index (HDI) for Jamaica, 2009–2011



Source: Human Development Report, 2011.

Population size continued to increase slowly. It increased by a net total of 108,700 between 2000 and 2010 (see Table 2). As expected, the female population continued to exceed the male population by an average of more than 5,000 persons per year. In 2010, females accounted for 50.7 per cent of the population and males 49.3 per cent. The distribution by percentage has not changed since 2003.

Table 2: Population of Jamaica by sex, 2000–2010

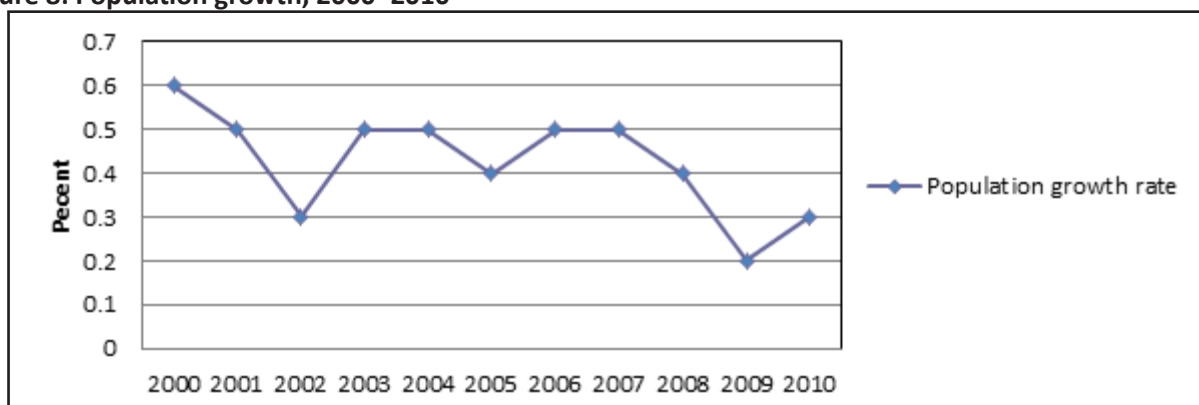
Sex	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Males	1,278,100	1,285,400	1,289,900	1,296,300	1,302,500	1,308,800	1,315,200	1,321,600	1,326,900	1,329,300	1,325,800
Females	1,319,000	1,325,700	1,329,500	1,335,700	1,341,600	1,347,900	1,354,300	1,360,500	1,365,500	1,369,500	1,380,000
Total	2,597,100	2,611,100	2,619,400	2,632,000	2,644,100	2,656,700	2,669,500	2,682,100	2,692,400	2,698,800	2,705,800

Males and Females as percentages of the total population

Sex	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Males	49.2	49.2	49.2	49.3	49.3	49.3	49.3	49.3	49.3	49.3	49.3
Females	50.8	50.8	50.8	50.7	50.7	50.7	50.7	50.7	50.7	50.7	50.7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Sources: Demographic Statistics 2010, STATIN 2011.

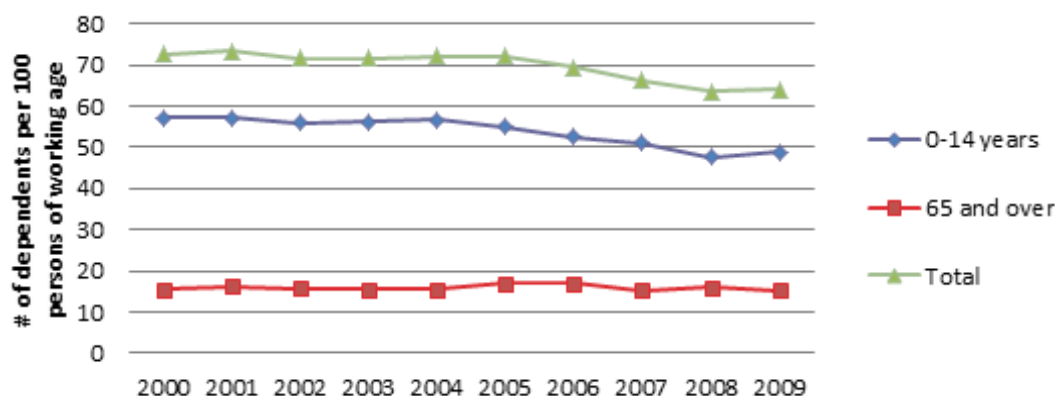
Population growth has remained stable at an annual average of 0.4 per cent (Figure 8), but with a decreasing trend from 2007. When comparing years over the last decade, 2009 recorded the lowest rate of growth at 0.2 per cent, while the growth rate for 2010 was similar to that recorded in 2002. Deaths have been reduced from 17,400 in 2000 to 16,100 in 2010. The decline in the fertility rate led to the decline in the natural growth of the population (PIOJ, 2010). For example, live births declined from 56,100 in 2000 to 41,600 in 2010 (PIOJ, 2011). As will be discussed later, the growth of the population was also impacted on by the migration trends where an annual outflow of more than 20,000 persons emigrated to other countries between 2000 and 2010.

Figure 8: Population growth, 2000–2010

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

The age dependency ratio for the period of 2000–2009 reveals an ongoing demographic transition in Jamaica (PIOJ/STATIN, 2010). The data confirm the slow population growth rate which resulted in a reduction in the proportion of children (0–14 years) and an increase in the active population (15–64 years). The age dependency ratio for children fell from 57.3 child dependents per 100 persons of working age in 2000, to 48.9 dependents in 2009 (see Figure 9). By contrast, the elderly dependent population fluctuated between 15 elderly dependents per 100 persons of working age and 17 for the same period.

Figure 9: Age dependency ratio, 2000–2009



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

In terms of the age distribution of the general population, there is a continued increase of the elderly (65 years old and over). The elderly increased from 8.9 per cent of the total population in 2000 to 9.3 per cent in 2009 (see Table 4). Males slightly outnumbered females in the age group 0–19 years. The same trend can be observed for ages 50–64 years. Females outnumbered males when comparing data between the age group 20–49 year old and 65 year old and over, indicating a predominance of women among the elderly. This could have socio-economic implications for retirement funds, given that there are fewer females in the labour market. The continued increase of the elderly population and the slow growth of the young population also have implications for development planning and the future of the labour force. This is where immigrant workers may play a significant role in increasing the labour force in Jamaica. However, it would seem that the changes in the age structure of the Jamaican population could be a reflection of economic and social gains of previous decades in terms of the benefits of health care services in reducing fertility and mortality.

Table 3: Age distribution of the population, 2000–2009

Years	0–14	15–64	65 and over	Total
	%	%	%	
2000	33.2	57.9	8.9	100
2001	33.0	57.7	9.3	100
2002	32.7	58.2	9.1	100
2003	32.7	58.2	9.1	100
2004	32.9	58.1	9.0	100
2005	32.0	58.1	9.9	100
2006	31.0	59.0	10.0	100
2007	30.7	60.1	9.2	100
2008	29.1	61.1	9.8	100
2009	29.8	61.0	9.2	100

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

More than 50 per cent of the Jamaican population lived in urban areas. The percentage has varied between 50 per cent and 52 per cent since 2000 (PIOJ, 2005–2010). There are significant differences between the three major regions (see Table 4). The available data has not been disaggregated by sex. The elderly primarily resided in the rural areas. Similarly, more children lived in Rural Areas compared with the other regions. Two observations can be made in this regard. Firstly, given the high level of internal migration in Jamaica, some parents who migrate to the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA) and Other Towns, leave their children with their grandparents and other relatives in the rural areas. Secondly, women in the Rural Areas have higher fertility rates than those living in the other regions, which may be related to factors such as level of education, types of

occupation and family values. By contrast, there was a high proportion of the active population in the KMA when compared with Other Towns and Rural Areas. This may be explained by the concentration of most of the tertiary institutions, businesses and employment opportunities in this region, which attract persons of working age.

Table 4: Age distribution of the population for the KMA, Other Towns and Rural Areas, 2000–2009

Years	Kingston Metropolitan Area			Other Towns			Rural Areas		
	0–14	15–64	65+	0–14	15–64	65+	0–14	15–64	65+
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
2000	29.8	63.2	7.2	33.4	56.5	10.2	35.4	55.0	9.7
2001	30.2	63.1	6.7	32.0	57.3	10.8	35.0	54.6	10.5
2002	29.5	62.6	7.9	33.6	58.0	8.4	34.2	55.7	10.1
2003	29.1	62.7	8.2	34.7	56.9	8.4	33.9	56.4	9.7
2004	31.3	60.3	8.4	30.6	59.8	9.7	35.0	56.0	9.0
2005	29.6	60.1	10.4	29.7	59.3	11.0	35.0	55.8	9.2
2006	29.8	60.8	9.4	29.5	58.7	11.8	32.6	57.7	9.7
2007	27.3	63.5	9.3	30.2	61.3	8.5	33.6	57.1	9.4
2008	26.0	64.3	9.7	29.5	61.1	9.4	31.7	58.8	9.8
2009	26.4	64.4	9.2	29.5	61.7	8.8	32.4	55.0	9.6*

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

As discussed in Part A, migration is integral to Jamaica and the Caribbean in general. Since emigration is linked to socio-economic opportunities in receiving countries, able-bodied and skilled persons (15–64 years old) are more likely to emigrate than the other age cohorts of the population. STATIN (2011) provided some estimates for net external movements between 2000 and 2010 (see Table 5). According to the PIOJ (2010:20.1), “net external movement is a proxy for emigration and it is based on movements of Jamaican nationals to and from the island in any given year.” There are significant differences in the annual net external movement. Combined net external movements for the period 2001–2010 were estimated to be -216,200. With regard to the net external movement rate, it fell between 5 per cent and 10 per cent between 2000 and 2010. More Jamaicans were estimated to have left the country between 2000 and 2003 compared with the 2007–2010 periods.

Table 5: Net external population movements and rate, 2000–2010

Year	Population	Net external movement	Percentage
2000	2,597,100	-23,300	-9.04
2001	2,611,100	-23,900	-9.18
2002	2,619,400	-23,300	-9.91
2003	2,632,000	-17,800	-6.77
2004	2,644,100	-18,100	-6.85
2005	2,656,700	-20,600	-7.76
2006	2,669,500	-17,100	-6.42
2007	2,682,100	-16,000	-5.98
2008	2,692,400	-17,600	-6.55
2009	2,698,800	-20,000	-7.42
2010	2,705,800	-18,500	-6.84
Total		-216,200	

Source: Demographic Statistics 2010, STATIN, 2011.

B2: 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” (Terms of Reference for the MP).

The above definition differs from that used by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) where, *“an individual must be resident in Jamaica for six months or more to be categorized as an immigrant”* (PIOJ, 2011: 2010). This difference will be taken into consideration when calculating the total number of immigrants, including labour immigrants to Jamaica between 2000 and 2010.⁶ The data used with respect to immigrants were collected or compiled by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN), the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ), the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS), the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA), the Jamaica Tourist Board (JTB), the Jamaica Customs Department, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the University of the West Indies (UWI), Mona Campus, and the University of Technology (UTech), Jamaica.

Immigrants in Jamaica are classified according to five categories, namely: Returning Residents, Deportees, Asylum-seekers and Refugees, Commonwealth Citizens, and Aliens (PIOJ, 2010). However, there were limited data on asylum-seekers and refugees in the PIOJ’s annual publication of the Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), so that data on this category of immigrants were obtained through the Jamaica office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

In accordance with the definition of immigrant to include the five categories of persons indicated above, there was a total flow of 109,102 persons to Jamaica from 2000 to 2010. The Commonwealth Citizens group was dominant with 36,381 persons. They were followed by the Deportees (34,155 persons), non-commonwealth foreign-born nationals (termed “Aliens” in the data) (26,305 persons), and the Returning Residents (12,261 persons).⁷ The total flow of immigrants is by no means a true indication of the volume of foreigners in Jamaica. For instance, the categories ‘Commonwealth Citizens and Aliens’ are made of citizens from several Caribbean countries attending the Regional University of the West Indies or other Jamaican universities and immigrant workers recruited by several state agencies, national and international organizations. However, the data source did not indicate the flow of immigrants from these two groups who returned to their home country or migrated to another country after completing their course of study or their period of employment in Jamaica. Data from the 2001 census revealed that there were 25,230 foreigners in Jamaica, approximately 1.0 per cent of the overall population (STATIN, 2005). The World Bank (2011) has estimated the total stock of foreigners in Jamaica at 30,000, which is approximately 1.1 per cent as a percentage of the total population (www.worldbank.org/prospects/migration and remittances).

With respect to annual flows of persons to Jamaica, the volume in 2008 was nearly twice the annual average of 9,918 persons for the 2000–2010 period, 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. 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, with a boom in 2008, the number of aliens who were admitted in Jamaica decreased dramatically by more than 75 per cent in 2009 and 2010 when

6 In a study on the impact of migration on development in Jamaica commissioned by the International Public Policy Research (IPPR), a migrant was defined as “someone who has spent three months or more living continuously in a country other than that of his/her birth” (Thomas-Hope et al., 2009: 11). That definition was specific to that study which collected empirical data by means of a national sample of 486 adult persons consisting of non-migrants, absent migrants and return migrants. Such a contextual definition allows the researchers to capture short-term, irregular and seasonal movement, as well as more permanent emigration (Thomas-Hope et al., 2009).

7 As indicated in Part A of this report, the data for voluntary returning residents are incomplete.

compared with 2008. In contrast, the decline in the category ‘Commonwealth citizens’ was only relative to previous years, since the annual flows of for 2009 and 2010 were still above the annual average of 3,307 for 2000 to 2010 (see Table 6).

Table 6: Annual flows of Immigrants in Jamaica by category, 2000–2010

Years	Returning Residents	Deportees	Commonwealth Citizens	Aliens	Total
2000	1,282	1,730	2,600	1,198	6,810
2001	1,177	2,529	2,791	1,253	7,750
2002	1,110	3,332	2,237	1,202	7,880
2003	1,169	3,940	1,215	1,203	7,527
2004	1,208	4,226	1,000	1,662	8,096
2005	1,299	3,320	1,500	2,075	8,194
2006	1,236	3,004	5,930	4,962	15,132
2007	1,341	2,984	4,933	2,171	11,429
2008	1,269	3,234	5,283	8,511	18,297
2009	1,170	3,076	4,696	1,197	10,139
2010	1050	2,825	4,196	871	8,942
Total	13,311	34,199	36,381	26,305	110,196

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

Examination of the flows of immigrants to Jamaica by country of last residence between 2000 and 2010⁸ shows that most of the Returning Residents and Deportees came from the USA and the UK. Of the 12,261 Returning Residents recorded, 5,816 returned from the USA, and 4,167 from the UK between 2000 and 2009 (see Table 7). There was a similar trend in the arrival of deported persons, with a total of 34,199 for the 2000–2010 period of which 16,338 were from the USA and 11,446 from the UK. The category “Other” for deportees was four times greater than the same category for returning residents. The available data were not disaggregated by country of birth, age, sex and duration of stay for the remaining categories of immigrants.

Table 7: Annual flows of immigrants in Jamaica by last country of residence, 2000–2010

Years	Returning Residents				Deportees				Commonwealth Citizens	Aliens	Total
	USA	Canada	UK	Other	USA	Canada	UK	Others			
2000	501	132	594	55	1,252	146	249	82	2,600	1,198	6,765
2001	427	144	531	75	1,410	203	765	151	2,791	1,253	7,750
2002	501	119	413	77	1,567	141	1,462	162	2,237	1,202	7,881
2003	573	147	416	33	1,671	167	1,982	120	1,215	1,203	7,527
2004	638	140	381	49	1,871	202	1,993	160	1,000	1,662	8,096
2005	659	148	424	68	1,513	217	1,291	299	1,500	2,075	8,194
2006	663	143	363	67	1,406	217	940	441	5,930	4,962	15,132
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	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1371	189	458	807	4,196	871	7,892
Total	5,816	1,363	4,167	915	16,338	2,133	11,446	4,282	36,381	26,305	109,102

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

⁸ The total and annual flows of returning residents and deportees were analysed by country of last residence rather than country of birth. This decision was based on the assumption that most individuals in these two categories would have been originally Jamaican-born or of Jamaican descent. The variable duration of stay would not apply to these two categories of immigrants (returning residents and deportees). The commonwealth citizens’ category includes individuals from the Caribbean English-speaking countries, while the aliens’ category represents all other countries. There is some level of breakdown of the Commonwealth Citizens and Aliens categories in the stock and annual flows of labour immigrants.

The annual contribution of immigrants to Jamaica's total population growth was between 0.26 per cent and 0.68 per cent (see Table 8). From 2006 to 2009, in each consecutive year their contribution was equal or above the annual average of 0.38 per cent.

Table 8: Annual flows of immigrants as a percentage of the total population, 2000–2010

Year	Population	Immigrants	As a percentage of total population
2000	2,597,100	6,765	0.26
2001	2,611,100	7,750	0.30
2002	2,619,400	7,881	0.30
2003	2,632,000	7,527	0.29
2004	2,644,100	8,096	0.31
2005	2,656,700	8,194	0.31
2006	2,669,500	15,132	0.57
2007	2,682,100	11,429	0.43
2008	2,692,400	18,297	0.68
2009	2,698,800	10,139	0.38
2010	2,705,800	8,779	0.32

Sources: Compiled and calculated from STATIN, 2011 and PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

“Commonwealth Citizens” accounted for the highest percentage of immigrants to Jamaica with an annual average of 0.12 per cent. The contribution of returning residents and deportees made only a very small contribution to the total population (see Table 9).

Table 9: Annual flows of immigrants as a percentage of total population by country, 2000–2010

Years	Returning residents				Deportees				Comm. Citizens	Aliens	Total
	USA	Canada	UK	Others	USA	Canada	UK	Others			
2000	0.019	0.005	0.023	0.002	0.048	0.006	0.009	0.002	0.100	0.046	0.261
2001	0.016	0.006	0.020	0.003	0.054	0.008	0.029	0.006	0.107	0.048	0.297
2002	0.019	0.005	0.016	0.003	0.060	0.005	0.056	0.006	0.085	0.046	0.301
2003	0.022	0.006	0.016	0.001	0.063	0.006	0.075	0.005	0.046	0.046	0.286
2004	0.024	0.005	0.014	0.002	0.071	0.008	0.075	0.006	0.038	0.063	0.306
2005	0.025	0.006	0.016	0.003	0.057	0.008	0.049	0.011	0.056	0.078	0.308
2006	0.025	0.005	0.014	0.003	0.053	0.008	0.035	0.017	0.222	0.186	0.567
2007	0.024	0.005	0.016	0.006	0.050	0.008	0.032	0.021	0.184	0.081	0.426
2008	0.022	0.006	0.014	0.006	0.055	0.008	0.030	0.027	0.196	0.316	0.680
2009	0.023	0.004	0.009	0.007	0.055	0.008	0.023	0.028	0.174	0.044	0.376
2010	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.051	0.007	0.017	0.030	0.155	0.032	0.292

Sources: Compiled and calculated from PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica, 2004–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

As stated above, the data for annual flows of immigrants were not disaggregated by age group so that an accurate estimation of immigrants as a percentage of the working age population cannot be made. In Jamaica, the working age population consists of persons between 15 years old and 64 years old (PIOJ, 2011). This differs from the Jamaican 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). When calculating the number of immigrants as a percentage of the working age population, the annual average amounted to 0.60 per cent (Table 10). As expected, the immigrants represented a larger percentage of the economically active population than that of the total population. In 2008, they accounted for 1.07 per cent of the working age population.

Table 10: Immigrants as a percentage of the working age population, 2000–2010

Year	Working age population	Immigrants	As a percentage of the working age population (15–64 years old)
2000	1,556,105	6,765	0.43
2001	1,564,600	7,750	0.5
2002	1,591,500	7,881	0.5
2003	1,615,200	7,527	0.47
2004	1,633,800	8,096	0.5
2005	1,656,000	8,194	0.49
2006	1,677,300	15,132	0.9
2007	1,699,300	11,429	0.67
2008	1,715,200	18,297	1.07
2009	1,729,600	10,139	0.59
2010	1,735,700	8,942	0.52

Sources: Compiled and calculated from STATIN, 2011 and PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2005–2010.

Data provided by the Immigration Section of the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) indicated that 1,493 foreigners were granted Jamaican citizenship between 2006 and 2010 (see Table 11). Further details in terms of sex, age groups and country of origin were not provided.

The naturalization process in Jamaica takes between 1 and 24 months, and applies to select groups of immigrants who have met specific criteria. Based on the World Bank estimate of a total foreign born population of 30,000 in Jamaica in 2010, naturalization as a percentage of the foreign-born population was only 1.47 per cent in that year.

Table 11: Naturalization of foreign-born persons in Jamaica, 2006–2010

Years	Total of Naturalization
2006	178
2007	177
2008	372
2009	326
2010	440
Total	1,493

Sources: Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) and PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2010.

B2.1: 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 (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 (Terms of Reference for the Migration Profile).

The number of foreign nationals having refugee status or seeking asylum in Jamaica is very low when compared to other developing and industrialized countries. 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. Nonetheless, Jamaica received a number of refugees and asylum-seekers⁹ between 2000 and 2010 (see Table 12).

Table 12: Annual flows of refugees and asylum-seekers to Jamaica, 2000–2010

Years	Cuba	Haiti	Other Countries	Total
2000	nil	nil	2 Sierra Leone	2
2001	nil	120	1 Colombia	121
2002	nil	nil	1 Sierra Leone	1
2003	14	2	3 Burma ³	19
2004	nil	569	1 Rwanda 3 Burma	573
2005	26	421	nil	447
2006	14	nil	nil	14
2007	nil	nil	1 Eritrea 3 Uganda 1 USA*	5
2008	nil	nil	4 Burma 1 Uganda	5
2009	nil	nil	2 Nigeria	2
2010	nil	62	nil	62
Total	54	1,164	23	1,251

Sources: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR);

*PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2007.

Haitians and Cubans were the two dominant groups of foreign nationals applying for asylum and refugee status in Jamaica. The number of Haitian nationals seeking asylum in Jamaica amounted to 1,155 from 2001 to 2010. By contrast, a total of 54 Cubans applied for asylum between 2001 and 2006. Most of the Haitians landed in Jamaica in 2004 and 2005 during the civil unrest prevailing in Haiti and in 2010, following the earthquake in January of that year that devastated the West and South-east administrative divisions of Haiti. The data source did not indicate the number of foreign nationals who were granted permission to stay in Jamaica, repatriated to their native countries or settled elsewhere. Combined information from the Haiti-Jamaica Society (HJS) and the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) indicated that a large number of the Haitian refugees and asylum-seekers were repatriated to Haiti as they did not meet the requirements and criteria that make them eligible for refugee status under the 1951 Convention and the 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees.

B2.2: Labour immigrants

The global economic downturn has significantly affected the labour market in Jamaica. Domestic economic activities have contracted, resulting in a reduction of the employed labour force. The unemployment rate has continued to increase from its lowest rate of 9.8 per cent in 2007. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security (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 vacancy on the MLSS's website and prove 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 JMD1,000 to JMD14,000. Work permits fees were also restructured according to duration of the permit to be JMD27,000 for 3 months or less; JMD54,000 for 6 months or less; JMD81,000 for 9 months or less and \$JMD108,000 for one year or less. The nominal minimum wage,

⁹ The Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) was 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 (UNCHR) in Jamaica. Therefore, the data obtained from this office was used.

which is annually reviewed, was increased in 2009 to JMD4,070¹⁰ per 40-hour week for persons employed in garment manufacturing, retail petrol, dry goods and hotels. Industrial security guards received a nominal minimum wage of JMD6,050 per week. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security did not make any adjustment to the nominal minimum wage in 2010.

The Planning Institute of Jamaica (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 from a tri-partite perspective (PIOJ, 2011). This forum also brought attention to the importance of labour migration to Jamaica as both a country of origin and destination.

The Foreign Nationals and Commonwealth Citizens (Employment) Act, known as the Work Permit Act, gives authority to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS) to process persons migrating to Jamaica for employment purposes (see Section D). A total of 29,978 persons were granted exemption from the requirements of a work permit by the MLSS between 2001 and 2010. In addition, 27,694 work permits were granted to new applicants, compared to 18,167 that were renewed during 2000–2010 period. The numbers of new applications for work permits were very high from 2005 to 2007, but they decreased in the following three consecutive years (2008–2010). Work permit renewals remained fairly constant until 2010, when there was a decline (see Table 13).

Table 13: Annual flows of labour immigrants to Jamaica, 2000–2010

Years	Work Permit Approval		Total	Exemptions	Grand Total
	New applicants	Renewals			
2000	1,628	872	2,500	n.a.	2,500
2001	1,946	932	2,878	4,271	7,149
2002	2,109	1,013	3,122	4,224	7,346
2003	2,511	1,332	3,843	4,353	8,196
2004	2,325	1,538	3,863	4,219	8,082
2005	3,331	2,774	6,105	2,769	8,874
2006	3,933	1,994	5,927	2,395	8,322
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
Total	27,694	18,167	45,861	29,978	75,839

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica, 2000–2010. n.a. = data are not available.

The distribution of work permit approvals by sex showed a preponderance of males over females (see Figure 10). This is accounted for by the lower number of female applications to work in Jamaica. An exception was the year 2003, when 50.7 per cent of work permit approvals were granted to female immigrant workers. From 2008, the percentage of male workers who received work permits continued to decline, suggesting a slight increase in the proportion of female immigrant workers.

¹⁰ JMD = approximately USD0.13

Figure 10: Work permit approvals by sex, 2000–2010



Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

A large number of labour immigrants worked as professionals, senior officials and technicians in Jamaica (see Table 14). They represented a total of 32,460 persons and an annual average of 72 per cent of work permits approved by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS). The remaining labour immigrants were hired as service workers in shop and market sales (3,598), craft and related trades (6,410), plant and machine operators and assemblers (1,130). The labour immigrants were employed by both public and private sectors. 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. There were no available data about the age of the labour immigrants for whom work permits were approved.

Table 14: Annual flows of labour immigrants by type of employment, 2000–2010

Occupational Categories	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Total
Professionals, Senior officials & Technicians	1,768	2,284	2,611	2,983	3,017	4,723	3,766	3,064	3,018	2,616	2,610	32,460
Clerks	4	11	8	22	45	105	61	93	133	105	84	671
Service workers, Shop & Market sales workers	161	176	172	254	278	454	422	514	512	366	289	3,598
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	29	7	91	95	36	58	112	3	88	8	38	565
Craft and related trades workers	41	61	159	443	412	328	1,448	1,808	1,220	351	200	6,471
Plant, machine operators & assemblers	311	235	n.a.	26	56	169	49	68	81	77	58	1,130
Elementary occupations	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	11	1	229	37	22	32	46	113	491
Occupation not specified	186	104	81	9	18	39	32	3	n.a.	n.a.	3	475
Total	2,500	2,878	3,122	3,843	3,863	6,105	5,927	5,575	5,084	3,569	3,395	45,861

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

Work permits are approved for varying periods. A larger percentage of work permits were approved for less than 12 months between 2005 and 2010 than in the previous five years (see Table 15).

Table 15: Duration of work permits for labour immigrants by percentage, 2000–2010

Months	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Up to 11	30.8	34.7	35.8	26.7	47.2	74.8	54.4	56.6	49.2	52.5	52.5
12 and over	69.2	65.3	64.2	73.3	n.a.	25.2	45.6	43.4	23.0	47.5	47.5
Not stated	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	52.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	27.8	n.a.	n.a.
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

The data source did not contain much detailed information for 2004 and 2008. While the data source provided information regarding the duration of work permits, annual flows of immigrant workers could not be based on this report's definition of long term migrant, as persons taking residence in a foreign country for 12 months or more. For some years, half of the labour immigrants would not have been considered as long term migrants within the context of this report. However, the same workers could have their work permits renewed for several consecutive times. Therefore, one needs more details to analyse the renewal process before concluding on the duration of work permits for the labour immigrants.

The labour immigrants in Jamaica originated from countries in all five continents, though the list only contains select countries from which the largest numbers of immigrants had originated (see Table 16). Annual flows of labour immigrants by country of birth indicate different dynamics throughout the years between source countries. China (8,614) and India (7,317) were the two top source countries of labour immigrants during the last 11 years in Jamaica. Three other important source countries worth mentioning are the United States of America (3,001), Dominican Republic (2,536) and the United Kingdom (1,008) (see Table 16). Migrant workers were employed by national or international companies operating in Jamaica on contract to the Government.

Table 16: Annual flows of labour immigrants by country of birth, 2000–2010

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Total
China	448	n.a.	532	732	909	n.a.	1,299	1,215	1,480	961	1,038	8,614
India	451	n.a.	674	806	848	n.a.	1093	1135	869	713	728	7,317
UK	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	153	137	n.a.	175	141	180	121	101	1,008
Spain	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	94	95	99	69	357
Russia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	77	78	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	155
Germany	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	60	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	60
Romania	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	176	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	176
USA	359	n.a.	n.a.	614	443	n.a.	588	322	282	226	167	3,001
Canada	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	121	115	n.a.	117	124	123	70	133	803
Dom Republic	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	712	975	519	253	77	2,536
Cuba	110	101	n.a.	162	121	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	494
Trinidad & Tobago	47	67	n.a.	71	60	n.a.-	n.a.-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	245
Dominica	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	104	107	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	211
Guyana	48	33	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.-	n.a.	n.a.	81
Nigeria	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	26	26
Mexico	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	257	119	65	441
Colombia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	136	103	62	301
Australia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13	7	20
New Zealand	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3	3
All other countries	1,037	2,677	1,916	943	1,045	n.a.	1,767	1,569	1,143	891	919	13,907
Total	2,500	2,878	3,122	3,843	3,863	6,105	5,927	5,575	5,084	3,569	3,395	45,861

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

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 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, gender disaggregated data are 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 receiving work permits increased almost three times as fast as the overall labour force, and males contributed most to this rapid increase. There were declines in the total number of work permit approvals every year from 2006 to 2010 (see Tables 17 and 18).

Table 17: Changes in native labour force by sex, 2000–2010

Years	Total			Males			Females		
	Annual flows	Annual Difference	Growth rate	Annual flows	Annual difference	Growth rate	Annual flows	Annual difference	Growth rate
2000	1,105,300	n.a.	n.a.	615,000	n.a.	n.a.	490,300	n.a.	n.a.
2001	1,104,800	-500	-0.05	618,100	3,100	0.50	486,700	-3,600	-0.74
2002	1,124,400	103,400	8.56	618,400	49,900	7.47	506,100	53,500	9.90
2003	1,189,700	-18,500	-1.56	663,300	-4,700	-0.71	526,400	-13,800	-2.62
2004	1,194,800	5,100	0.43	663,500	200	0.03	531,300	4,900	0.92
2005	1,223,100	28,300	2.31	668,150	4,650	0.70	541,600	10,300	1.90
2006	1,253,100	30,000	2.39	695,600	27,450	3.95	557,500	15,900	2.85
2007	1,276,900	23,800	1.86	706,800	11,200	1.58	570,100	12,600	2.21
2008	1,299,600	22,700	1.75	713,200	6,400	0.90	586,400	16,300	2.78
2009	1,269,800	-29,800	-2.35	698,200	-15,000	-2.15	571,700	-14,700	-2.57
2010	1,249,600	-20,200	-1.62	685,800	-12,400	-1.81	563,900	-7,800	-1.38

Sources: Compiled and calculated from PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

Table 18: Changes in immigrant labour force by sex, 2000–2010

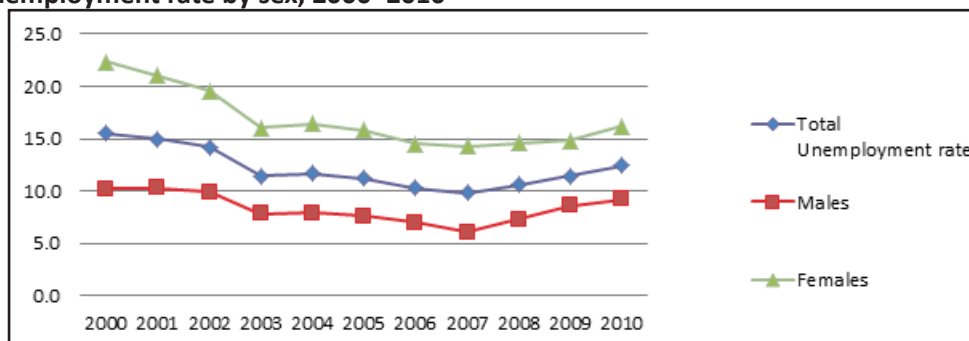
Years	Total			Males			Females		
	Annual flows	Annual Difference	Growth rate	Annual flows	Annual difference	Growth rate	Annual flows	Annual difference	Growth rate
1999	2,354	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2000	2,500	146	5.84	1,783	n.a.	n.a.	718	n.a.	n.a.
2001	2,878	378	13.1	2,072	290	14.0	806	88	11.0
2002	3,122	244	7.8	2,310	238	10.3	812	6	0.7
2003	3,843	721	18.8	1,895	-416	-21.9	1,948	1,137	58.3
2004	3,863	20	0.5	2,696	802	29.7	1,167	-782	-67.0
2005	6,105	2,242	36.7	4,536	1,840	40.6	1,569	402	25.6
2006	5,927	-178	-3.0	4,854	318	6.6	1,073	-496	-46.3
2007	5,575	-352	-6.3	4,633	-221	-4.8	1,500	427	28.5
2008	5,084	-491	-9.7	4,118	-515	-12.5	966	-534	-55.3
2009	3,569	-1,515	-42.4	2,759	-1,359	-49.3	810	-156	-19.2
2010	3,395	-174	-5.1	2,543	-216	-8.5	852	42	4.9

Sources: Compiled and calculated from PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

It is not possible to calculate the unemployment rate for labour immigrants given that their entry and hiring is subject to work permit approval by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. It was also not possible to disaggregate unemployment data by level of education and region (see Figure 11). Unemployment by major demographic groups is shown in Annex III. There has been a higher proportion of unemployed females than males. Females were almost twice as likely as males to be unemployed.

Figure 11: Unemployment rate by sex, 2000–2010



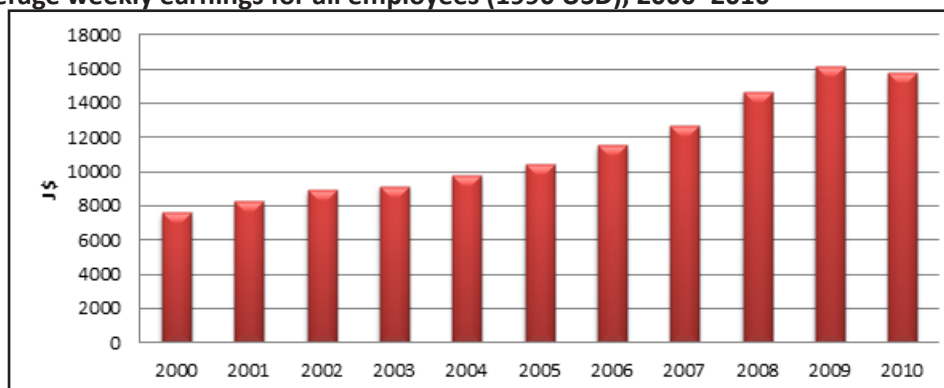
Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

The contribution of the informal economy to GDP was estimated at 40 per cent in the most recent study conducted in 2004 (PIOJ, 2004). In relation to the size of the informal economy, “own account workers” and “employers” were used as proxies for the self-employed. In 2009, this group amounted to 39.9 per cent of total employed.

Skill shortages in the Jamaican labour market are most acutely felt in the health and education sectors. In relation to health, the Caribbean Commission on Health and Development Report (2005) stated that there were 2,256 Registered Nurses in the sector while the vacancy rate was 58.3 per cent (Mortley, 2009). In a World Bank study (2009) a slight improvement was reported for the year 2007 when 2,835 Registered Nurses were employed with a vacancy rate of 34.2 per cent. This study also highlighted the role of replacement migration where the foreign nurses in Jamaica who, at the time of the research reflected in the 2009 studies, amounted to 91 persons from seven countries, with the majority being from Nigeria (47) and Cuba (32).

The data for the average weekly earnings of all employees were based on a survey of employment, earnings and hours worked in large establishments collected by the STATIN. In other words, the data do not necessarily apply to professionals. The average weekly earnings have doubled from 2000 to 2010. This may be due to the fact that the nominal minimum wage has been reviewed annually and increased. The average weekly earnings for 2010 were slightly lower than for 2009 as the nominal minimum wage was not increased (see Figure 12).

Figure 12: Average weekly earnings for all employees (1990 USD), 2000–2010



Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2000–2010.

B2.3: Foreign students (Postgraduate and PhD)

There are 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). The Faculty of Graduate Studies at the Northern Caribbean University did not provide any data regarding foreign students enrolling in their graduate programmes. The annual flows of foreign graduate students enrolling at the UWI, Mona Campus, and the UTech are indicated in Table 19. There were no data available for age or country of birth. The UWI data were obtained from the annual reports published by the Office of Planning and Institutional Research. These data are also available on the University's official website. The UTech data were submitted by the Office of International Students and the School of Graduate Studies and Research. There was a total of 1,652 foreign graduate students (Postgraduate and PhD) attending both universities, of which the larger number was female.

Table 19: Annual flows of foreign graduate students to the University of the West Indies and the University of Technology, Jamaica, 2004–2010

Sex	2004		2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		2010		Total
	UWI	UTech	UWI	UTech	UWI	UTech	UWI	UTech	UWI	UTech	UWI	UTech	UWI	UTech	
Males	78	n.a.	76	1	89	n.a.	92	1	107	1	126	1	117	2	691
Females	112	n.a.	132		121	n.a.	125	n.a.	119	1	172	1	177	1	961
Total	190	n.a.	208	1	210	n.a.	217	1	226	2	298	2	294	3	1,652

Sources: UWI Mona, Office of Planning and Institutional Research reports, 2004–2010; UTech, Office of International Students and the School of Graduate Studies and Research. n.a. = data are not available

The majority of the foreign postgraduate students were from the Caribbean region, especially Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados and Guyana. Since the UWI operates three autonomous campuses in three separate countries in the Caribbean, students from the Eastern and Southern Caribbean mainly seek admission at the Mona Campus, Jamaica for postgraduate programmes that are not available on the other two campuses. The percentage of foreign students of the total at the Mona Campus fluctuated annually between 5 and 15 per cent. The student/teacher ratio at the University of the West Indies, Mona Campus indicates a significant increase from 17:1 in 2003 to 32:1 in 2009 (see Table 20). The change may be due to a reduction in the number of part-time lecturers, the registration of more students and the freezing of staff vacancies, since the beginning of the global economic downturn and reduction in funds allocated by the Government of Jamaica to the University. No data for the student/teacher ratio were available for UTech and NCU.

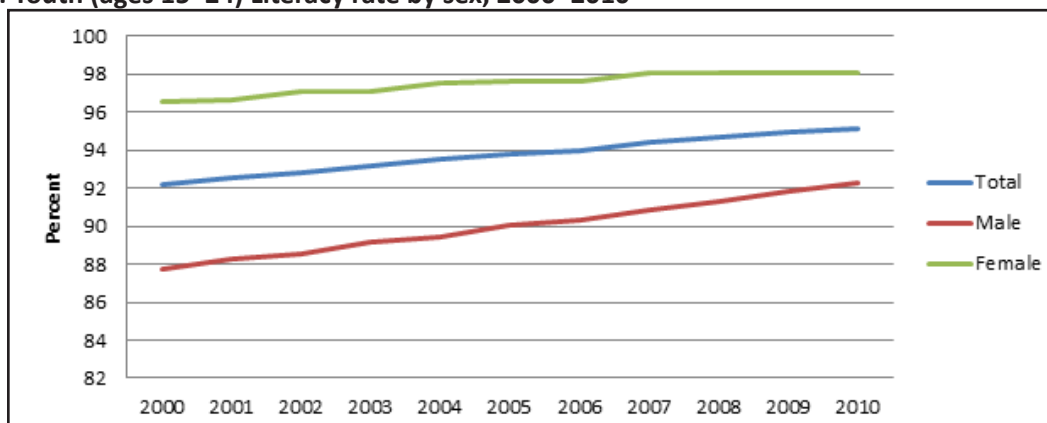
Table 20: Student-teacher ratio at the University of the West Indies, 2003–2009

Categories	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Students	10,582	11,482	12,124	11,812	14,346	14,414	15,481
Teachers	606	574	614	638	510	504	489
Ratio	17:1	20:1	20:1	19:1	28:1	29:1	32:1

Sources: UWI Mona, Office of Planning and Institutional Research reports, 2003–2010.

At another level of education, the youth (15–24) literacy rate for Jamaica between 2000 and 2010 shows male students making improvements by bridging the 9 per cent gap that had previously separated them from female students (see Figure 13). Male youth have increased from an 88 per cent literacy rate in 2000 to 92 per cent in 2010. However, they were still 6 per cent below the female cohort. The youth female literacy rate has remained almost constant at 98 per cent since 2007.

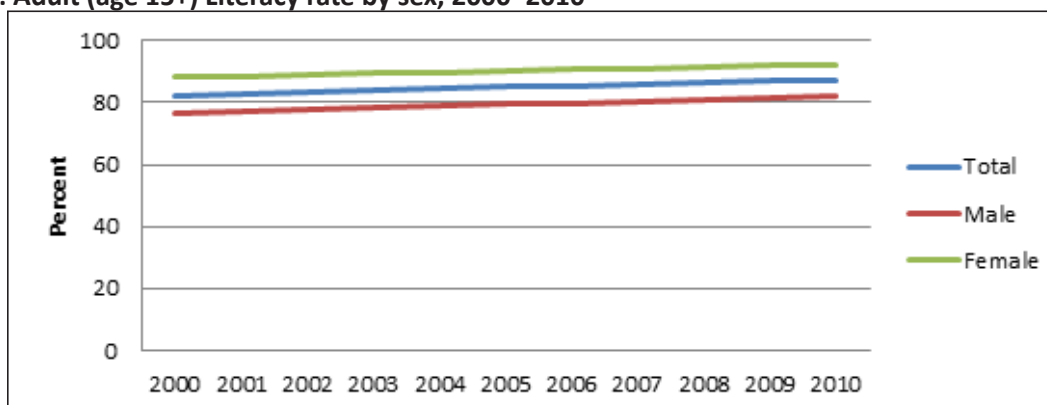
Figure 13: Youth (ages 15–24) Literacy rate by sex, 2000–2010



Source: Data obtained from the Planning Institute of Jamaica.

The adult literacy rate improved between 2000 and 2010. The female adult literacy rate increased by 4 per cent from 88 per cent in 2000 to 92 per cent in 2010 (see Figure 14). By contrast, male adult literacy rates showed only a negligible change, so that the 10 per cent gap in male and female literacy rates remained.

Figure 14: Adult (age 15+) Literacy rate by sex, 2000–2010



Source: Data obtained from the Planning Institute of Jamaica.

B2.4: Inland tourists

Tourism is a leading source of foreign currency for Jamaica and the Jamaica Tourist Board (JTB) publishes an annual report. More than 15 million tourists visited or were on cruise ships that berthed at Jamaican ports over the period (see Table 21). While tourists arrived from countries in all five continents, the largest percentage (60%) was from the USA. This was followed by Canada and European Union countries (see Table 22). Additionally, there were 1.2 million (an annual average of more than 100,000) Jamaicans living abroad who visited between 2000 and 2010.

Table 21: Annual flows of tourists visiting Jamaica, 2000–2010

Years	Foreign nationals	Non-resident Jamaicans	Total Stopovers
2000	1,219,311	103,379	1,322,690
2001	1,186,996	89,520	1,276,516
2002	1,179,083	87,283	1,266,366
2003	1,262,108	88,177	1,350,285
2004	1,326,918	88,176	1,414,786
2005	1,386,996	91,667	1,478,663
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
Total	15,789,127	1,220,132	17,009,259

Source: Jamaica Tourist Board, Annual Travel Statistics, 2011.

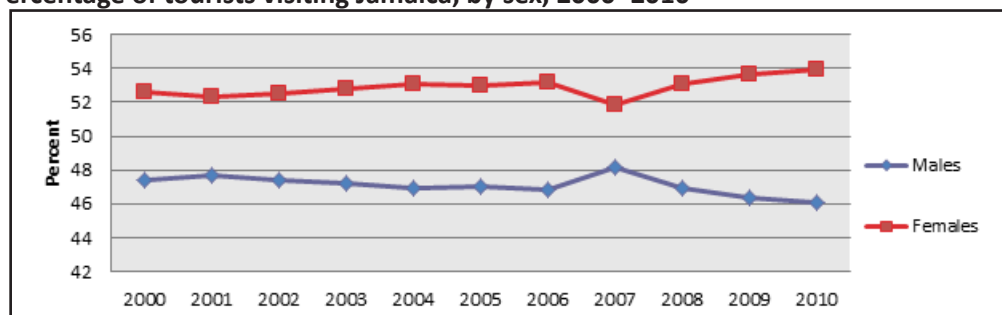
Data on the age and sex of tourists from the USA and Canada showed that females outnumbered males by 53 per cent to 47 per cent over the period (see Figure 15). There were no available demographic data for tourists from Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean region.

Table 22: Annual flows of tourists visiting Jamaica by major country and geographical region, 2000–2010

Years	USA	Canada	Europe	Caribbean	Latin America	Asia& Pacific	Japan4	Other countries	Total
2000	942,561	107,492	198,979	43,971	14,703	10,099	n.a.	4,885	1,322,690
2001	916,681	111,158	180,632	40,845	14,815	7,859	n.a.	4,526	1,276,516
2002	925,629	97,413	179,089	41,138	11,864	7,062	n.a.	4,171	1,266,366
2003	968,315	95,265	218,500	45,213	10,886	n.a.	4,182	7,924	1,350,285
2004	996,131	105,623	241,925	49,443	10,643	n.a.	4,430	6,591	1,414,786
2005	1,058,317	116,862	233,879	50,239	8,428	6,770	n.a.	4,168	1,478,663
2006	1,190,721	153,569	256,074	55,948	11,101	6,711	n.a.	4,781	1,678,905
2007	1,132,532	190,650	288,894	62,967	12,169	7,045	n.a.	6,528	1,700,785
2008	1,150,942	236,193	284,700	67,231	16,122	6,003	n.a.	6,080	1,767,271
2009	1,172,844	290,307	276,799	65,333	14,492	6,168	n.a.	5,154	1,831,097
2010	1,242,943	325,191	271,315	58,299	13,442	5,791	n.a.	4,697	1,921,678

Source: Jamaica Tourist Board, Annual Travel Statistics, 2000–2010.

Figure 15: Percentage of tourists visiting Jamaica, by sex, 2000–2010



Source: Jamaica Tourist Board, Annual Travel Statistics, 2000–2010.

The distribution of tourists by age group showed that most were in the age group 25–64 years and the dominant group was 35–49 years (see Table 23). There was an increasing trend in the proportion of the older age group (above 50 years), rising from 19.3 per cent of the total to 28.5 per cent, while the numbers of younger tourists declined.

The data suggest that 13,208,209 tourists visited Jamaica between 2000 and 2010 for leisure, recreation and holiday (Table 24). Visiting friends and relatives accounted for 1,450,575 visitors, and was therefore the second reason. Doing business was the last reason for visiting Jamaica and remained consistently less than 10 per cent of the visitors throughout the 11 year period.

Table 23: Age groups of tourists to Jamaica as a percentage of Total Tourists, 2000–2010

Age group	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
under 18	12.7	12.3	12.5	12.8	13.4	13.1	13.1	12.3	12	11.7	11.8
18–24	10.7	10.2	9.3	9.3	9.1	8.7	8.5	8.1	8.2	8.2	7.7
25–34	26.0	25.0	24.3	23.3	22.3	21.9	21.4	21.2	21.4	21.9	21.5
35–49	31.3	31.9	32.4	32.4	32.4	32.5	32.2	32.0	31.4	30.7	30.5
50–64	15.0	16.1	16.8	17.4	17.8	18.6	19.3	20.5	20.9	21.3	22.2
65 and over	4.3	4.5	4.7	4.8	5.0	5.2	5.5	5.9	6.1	6.2	6.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Jamaica Tourist Board, Annual Travel Statistics, 2000–2010.

Table 24: Annual flows of tourists visiting Jamaica by purpose of visits, 2000–2010

Years	Leisure, recreation and holiday	Visiting friends & relatives	Business	Other/not stated	Total
2000	1,031,992	110,559	66,675	113,464	1,322,690
2001	997,703	100,077	68,437	110,299	1,276,516
2002	962,124	91,156	73,135	139,951	1,266,366
2003	1,064,215	98,467	70,571	117,032	1,350,285
2004	1,132,383	87,489	77,719	117,195	1,414,786
2005	1,165,918	109,482	83,811	119,452	1,478,663
2006	1,346,748	121,698	100,649	109,810	1,678,905
2007	1,291,448	169,083	104,049	136,205	1,700,785
2008	1,328,887	183,182	109,334	145,868	1,767,271
2009	1,403,812	186,265	101,310	139,710	1,831,097
2010	1,482,979	193,117	102,743	142,839	1,921,678
Total	13,208,209	1,450,575	958,433	1,391,825	17,009,042

Source: Jamaica Tourist Board, Annual Travel Statistics, 2000–2010.

Policies and programmes in the tourism sector are primarily guided by the Vision 2030 Jamaica – National Development Plan¹¹ and the Master Tourism Plan. The tourism sector has been providing thousands of jobs over the years and contributed an average gross foreign exchange earnings estimated at more than USD 1.8 billion from 2000 to 2010 (JTB, 2010). Further, the tourism sector provided direct employment for more than 70,000 persons during the course of 2010.

¹¹ Vision 2030 Jamaica is a national development plan that provides the vision and institutional frameworks for Jamaica's long term socio-economic and sustainable development. The Tourism Sector Plan contains a specific section dealing with the continued development of the tourism sector and its long term sustainability.

B2.5: Irregular immigrants

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). Most irregular immigrants in Jamaica would have been legally permitted to enter the country and officially authorized to stay based on their purpose of visit but had stayed beyond the designated time. There is no information regarding any estimates of irregular immigrants in Jamaica. This situation may be due to the fact that Jamaica has not apparently experienced any problems relating to illegal immigrants. As the law now stands, any immigrant who resides in Jamaica beyond the period authorized by the Immigration Section of the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) is subject to deportation.

B3: Emigrants

Official data on Jamaican emigration generated by the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) and the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ) are sourced from the destination countries. Information that will be used in this subsection was collected and/or compiled from the PIOJ, the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA), the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), and the International Organization for Migration (IOM). Emigration data are published by age and sex for the USA and only by age group for Canada, but duration of stay is not included given that these individuals were granted permanent residence. Data regarding the UK are not disaggregated by age or sex and there is a paucity of data regarding Jamaican emigration to Caribbean countries and other parts of the world. Nationals of CARICOM states were not recorded in the Jamaica 2001 Population and Housing Census (Thomas-Hope, 2009a). The data from the CARICOM censuses of 2010/2011 are not yet available, but it does not appear that the source of CARICOM immigrants will be available from the latest census round either.

A total of 254,655 Jamaican nationals were granted permanent residence in the USA, UK and Canada between 2000 and 2010. The USA remains the top destination country for most Jamaican emigrants. In 2010, 33.4 per cent of Caribbean nationals who were granted permanent resident status in the USA came from Jamaica (STATIN, 2011). Persons from Jamaica were only outnumbered, in terms of Caribbean nationals, by those from Haiti (38%). Jamaicans migrated to the USA between 2000 and 2010 at an annual average of 17,879, which was approximately six times greater than the number of Jamaicans obtaining permanent resident status in the UK which was at an annual average of 3,087, and eight times greater than the numbers to Canada (see Table 25).

The age of most persons who migrated to the USA was under 44 years (see Table 26). Young persons under the age of 18 emigrate in large numbers. This is explained partly by the fact that many parents who have already migrated to the USA make application for their children to be granted visas join them, and partly because there is a trend for students to study in US colleges and many go first to US secondary schools in order to be eligible for places in state colleges. Females outnumbered males in the 35–44 age cohort, to some extent reflecting the gender selectivity of the labour market, including the demand for nurses and teachers, in that age group. There were also a greater numbers of female than male migrants to the USA in the 65 years and over age group. This reflects the greater number of older women (rather than men) who join their children who have already migrated to the USA.

Table 25: Annual flows of Jamaican emigrants to selected countries, 2000–2010

Years	USA	UK	Canada	Total
2000	15,949	2,095	2,462	20,506
2001	15,322	2,855	2,775	20,952
2002	14,835	2,675	2,457	19,967
2003	13,347	4,500	1,983	19,830
2004	14,430	2,930	2,131	19,491
2005	18,346	2,780	1,880	23,006
2006	24,976	2,900	1,685	29,561
2007	19,375	2,440	2,110	23,925
2008	18,477	2,750	2,310	23,537
2009	21,783	4,635	2,430	28,848
2010	19,825*	3,402	1,805	25,032
Total	196,665	33,962	24,028	254,655

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2010.

*Demographic Statistics 2010, STATIN, 2011.

Table 26: Emigration of Jamaicans to the USA by gender and age group, 2003–2009

Years	Under 18		18–24		25–34		35–44		45–54		55–64		65 & over		Unknown		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
2003	1,982	2,030	936	899	1,242	1,226	1,010	1,295	540	902	266	528	159	332	n.a.	n.a.	13,347
2004	1,779	1,732	977	988	1,547	1,687	1,202	1,531	619	952	330	552	151	367	n.a.	n.a.	14,414
2005	2,249	2,265	1,133	1,335	1,895	2,057	1,430	2,078	789	1,344	354	731	215	470	1	n.a.	18,346
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	n.a.	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	n.a.	n.a.	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	n.a.	n.a.	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	n.a.	n.a.	21,783
Total	15,541	15,962	8,803	9,178	13,539	13,875	10,684	14,128	5,816	10,257	2,867	5,363	1,502	3,201	2	0	130,718

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

A total of 24,028 Jamaican nationals migrated to Canada between 2000 and 2010. Data for 2010 are provisional and changes are therefore expected (PIOJ, 2011). 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 (see Table 27). The explanation for the large number of persons under age 19 in the emigration flows is the same as for the USA. In the case of Canada, this group of migrants accounts for nearly twice as many persons as in any other age cohort.

Table 27: Emigration of Jamaicans to Canada by age group, 2000–2010

Years	0–19	20–29	30–39	40–49	50–59	60 and over	Unknown	Total
2000	1,122	433	619	361	154	106	n.a.	2,462
2001	1,096	433	619	364	156	106	n.a.	2,770
2002	962	347	571	158	158	103	158	2,457
2003	744	253	510	103	103	119	151	1,983
2004	702	369	491	144	144	127	154	2,131
2005	712	368	418	63	63	64	192	1,880
2006	600	300	420	235	90	40	n.a.	1,685
2007	675	410	515	275	130	105	n.a.	2,110
2008	740	425	565	355	125	100	n.a.	2,310
2009	820	430	560	365	140	115	n.a.	2,430
2010	550	370	435	235	125	90	n.a.	1,805
Total	8,723	4,138	5,723	2,658	1,388	1,075	655	24,028

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

B3.1: Refugees and asylum-seekers abroad

Reports of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (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 UNHCR reports present tables indicating the asylum and refugee numbers (see Table 28).

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 becoming refugees and asylum-seekers 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.

Table 28: Annual flows of Jamaican refugees and asylum-seekers abroad, 2000–2010

Category	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Refugees	200	300	600	700	600	800	660	766	826	909	1,057
Asylum-seekers	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	273	244	404	582	562
Total	200	300	600	700	600	800	933	1,010	1,230	1,491	1,619

Source: UNHCR, Statistical Yearbook, 2000–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

Unlike Haiti and Guyana, Jamaica was not one of the top 25 countries with a large number of refugee applicants in Canada. Some data were obtained with regard to Jamaicans seeking asylum in the USA, which showed a trend of increasing numbers from 2007 (see Table 29). Some cases were classified as ‘D’ which means that disclosure standards were not met. Data were also supplied for other foreign nationals who entered the USA from Jamaica as country of last residence. The data did not include country of birth for these persons.

Table 29: Annual flows of Jamaican refugees and asylum-seekers in the USA or persons for whom Jamaica was the country of last residence, 2000–2010

Category	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Jamaicans	7	12	6	7	n.a.	n.a.-	16	D	15	24
Jamaica as country of last residence	6	4	6	8	9	10	D	15	12	36
Asylum granted affirmatively	n.a.-	4	6	7	n.a.	9	7	12	19	42

Source: US Department of Homeland Security, Yearbook of Immigration Statistics, 2000–2010.

n.a. = data are not available.

B3.2: Labour emigrants

There were 45,640 workers reported to have migrated to the USA over the period 2000 to 2009. The majority of them were in the “service” occupations (27,309), followed by “management, professional and related occupations” (7,736), and then “sales and office occupations” (4,695). Another 116,739 persons migrated to the USA recorded with “no occupation”, which included students (see Table 30).

Table 30: Jamaican emigrants to the USA by occupational status, 2000–2009

Occupational Status	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Total
Management, Professional & related occupations	702	674	n.a.	530	725	1,024	1,066	880	997	1,138	7,736
Executive and Managerial	127	143	n.a.	143	179	251	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Professional Specialty Occupations	575	531	n.a.	387	546	773	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sales and Office Occupations	656	657	n.a.	475	387	486	628	420	476	510	4,695
Sales	201	272	n.a.	235	150	190	n.a.	n.a.-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Administrative Support	455	385	n.a.	240	237	296	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Farming, Forestry & Fisheries	191	156	n.a.	163	166	178	243	171	179	243	1,690
Operators, Fabricators & Labourers	286	158	n.a.	190	246	320	176	160	144	190	1,870
Precision production, Craft, Repair	143	82	n.a.	24	140	223	432	329	412	549	2,334
Services	2,683	2,575	n.a.	2,867	2,258	3,075	4,116	3,196	3,055	3,484	27,309
Military	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.-	n.a.	3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3	n.a.	6
Total Workers	4,661	4,302	n.a.	4,249	3,925	5,306	6,661	5,156	5,266	6,114	45,640
No Occupation or not reported	11,39	11,091	n.a.	9,036	10,849	13,040	8,223	6,173	5,188	5,620	80,509
No Occupation	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10,092	8,046	8,043	10,049	36,230
Total	16,000	15,393	n.a.	13,34	18,69	23,65	24,97	19,375	18,497	21,783	171,722

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010. Executive and Managerial and Professional Specialty were merged in 2006 to form Management, Professional & Related occupations. Sales and Administrative Support were merged in 2006 to form Sales and Office Occupations. n.a.= data are not available

Fewer than 3,000 Jamaicans migrated to Canada per year from 2001 to 2010 (see Table 31). A total of 6,392 skilled migrants obtained permanent residence, the majority of whom were in the professional category (2,822), followed by service and sales workers (1,141). There were 15,169 migrants categorized as non-workers, new workers, homemakers, students, retirees and unknown. These groups were not disaggregated in the data but it is likely that in addition to a large number of students at various stages the figures would also include family member of migrant workers, many of whom would also have skills of various kinds.

Table 31: Jamaican emigrants to Canada by occupational status, 2001–2010

Occupational Status	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Total
Professionals, Senior Officials and Technicians	476	456	357	375	288	120	150	230	215	155	2,822
Clerks	51	48	51	51	33	5	25	10	20	10	304
Service Workers and Shop and Market Sales Workers	196	155	146	158	146	60	75	65	80	60	1,141
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	22	21	16	23	25	30	40	55	35	25	292
Craft and Related Trades Workers	121	107	95	122	104	40	80	75	75	75	894
Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	51	38	41	43	45	25	25	20	10	15	313
Elementary Occupations	51	36	53	65	66	40	85	70	95	65	626
Non-workers, New Workers, Homemakers, Students, Retirees	1,797	1,596	1,224	1,294	1,167	1,090	1,325	1,455	1,585	1,165	13,698
Unknown	5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6	275	305	330	315	235	1471
Total Emigrants	2,770	2,457	1,983	2,131	1,880	1,685	2,110	2,310	2,430	1,805	21,561

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

B3.3: Students abroad (Postgraduate and PhD)

Many Jamaicans are pursuing postgraduate degrees abroad, especially in the USA, Canada and the UK. There is no accurate estimation of their annual flow by age and sex. The data obtained provide some estimates that include undergraduate students, such as the figure for the annual average of 301 Jamaican students granted visas to study in Canada between 2001 and 2010. The Institute of International Education (IIE) reported that the stock of Jamaican students pursuing higher degrees in the USA had increased from 883 in 2001 to 1,033 in 2010 (see Table 32). The percentage of Jamaican students pursuing postgraduate studies varied throughout this period, with an annual average of 26.2 per cent. The lowest percentage recorded for any year was 20.9 per cent in 2001, whereas the highest was 31.9 per cent in 2008. After a relative decline to 26.5 per cent in 2009, the proportion of Jamaican postgraduates in the overall student population had increased to 29.3 per cent in 2010.

Table 32: Number of Jamaican postgraduate students in the USA as a percentage of the total number of Jamaican postgraduate students, 2001–2010

Jamaicans	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Postgraduates	883	917	1,152	1,122	1,082	1,224	1,251	1,235	1,034	1,033
Percentage of Jamaican students	20.9	21.4	24.4	22.5	24.8	29.4	30.4	31.9	26.5	29.3

Source: Institute of International Education (IIE), 2001–2010.

B3.4: Tourists outbound

There are no accurate data concerning the Jamaicans visiting other countries between 2000 and 2010. Data supplied by the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) were not disaggregated by nationality and country of last residence (see Table 33). Most Jamaican tourists went to the USA, Canada and other Caribbean countries. Indeed, there is no visa requirement for Jamaicans entering most Caribbean countries. Some data were obtained through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT) from the Jamaican High Commission in London. A total of 164,100 Jamaicans were granted permission to enter the UK for various purposes between 2004 and 2010. The movement of persons recorded as “other” which includes those who went for the purpose of leisure, recreation and holiday, amounted to 153,700 persons (see Table 34). There is no indication on the average length of stay, nor of the numbers of students and tourists who returned to Jamaica.

Table 33: Annual flows of tourist arrivals and departures in Jamaica, 2007–2010

Category	2007	2008	2009	2010
Arrivals	2,297,686	2,196,569	2,037,893	2,115,129
Departures	2,247,015	2,229,554	1,871,092	2,417,838

Source: Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA).

Table 34: Jamaicans entering the UK by purpose of journey, 2004–2010

Years	Employment	Study	Family	Other	Total
2004	735	320	345	18,500	19,900
2005	870	280	395	20,700	22,300
2006	845	240	495	19,500	21,000
2007	730	255	645	20,000	21,600
2008	680	215	730	21,300	23,000
2009	515	230	520	27,000	28,300
2010	445	215	630	26,700	28,000
Total	4,820	1,755	3,760	153,700	164,100

Source: Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT) .

There was a total of 2,566,463 entries by non-immigrant Jamaicans recorded in USA between 2000 and 2009, with an annual average of 256,646 (see Table 35). As the total number of entries is equivalent to the total population of Jamaica, it is evident that there were a large number of repeat entries by some persons. The number of entries fluctuated between a low of 221,075 in 2003 and a high of 293,421 in 2007, then falling in the two following years. It should be noted that US airports are used very frequently as transit points for Jamaicans travelling to all other parts of the world. Their entry into the USA would be recorded regardless of their final destination.

Table 35: Annual flows of admission of Jamaican non-immigrants to the USA, 2000–2009

Years	Non-immigrants
2000	275,051
2001	277,985
2002	248,092
2003	221,075
2004	223,898
2005	222,945
2006	269,980
2007	293,421
2008	281,353
2009	252,663
Total	2,566,463

Sources: US Department of Homeland Security, Yearbook of Immigration Statistics, 2000–2010.

B3.5: Irregular emigrants

As stated in subsection B2.5, most irregular migrants had legally entered the country of destination and over-stayed the time permitted by their visa. There is no accurate information concerning the stocks of such persons in the destination countries.

B4: The Diaspora

Within the context of this migration profile, the Diaspora is defined as the collective of long term emigrants and the descendants of long term emigrants, who are currently living abroad. Data for this subsection are drawn from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT), the World Bank and the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in its World Migration Reports. Some of Jamaica's diplomatic missions have provided estimates of the stock of the Jamaican Diaspora for specific geographical locations. The most recent report on Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011 published by the World Bank provides 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). There are no demographic data for the stock of migrants abroad.

The Jamaican Diaspora is heavily concentrated in three main countries - the USA, Canada and the UK. There were an estimated 637,000 Jamaican-born persons in the USA in 2008 (Glennie and Chappell, 2010). However, data provided by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT) through the Jamaican Consular services in Miami suggested that there may be between 500,000 and 600,000 Jamaicans in the Southeast USA alone. The estimated size of the Jamaica-born population in Canada was approximately 123,500 in 2006 (ibid.); and in the UK around 150,000 (data from the United Kingdom's Office for National Statistics (ONS) for the year July 2010 and June 2011). By contrast, a report commissioned by the IOM in 2007 reported an estimate of over 340,000 Jamaican-born persons in the UK based on a previous study conducted by the ONS (IOM, 2007).

There are also a significant number of Jamaican emigrants residing in several Caribbean countries such as the Cayman Islands, the Netherlands Antilles, Antigua and Barbuda, the Bahamas and Barbados. In addition, there are small numbers of Jamaicans in Venezuela, Panama, Germany and Australia. Data obtained from the Jamaican Embassy in Venezuela indicated that there were 141 Jamaicans who had registered with the Embassy (62 males and 79 females and ranging in age between 36 and 70 years). The annual flows of returning residents and deportees from the Jamaican Diaspora show a total of 12,272 "returning residents" (voluntary return migrants) and 34,199 "deportees." This would suggest almost three times the number of returning residents but, as indicated in Part A of this report, the data for returning residents are significantly incomplete as they only include those returnees who make application for tax concessions on personal goods and can prove to have resided abroad for a minimum of three years (one-and-a-half years in the case of students) (see Table 36). There was no useful data regarding the duration of stay of the returnees in the country of last residence.

Table 36: Annual flows of returning residents and deportees, 2000–2010

Years	Returning Residents	Deportees
2000	1,282	1,730
2001	1,177	2,529
2002	1,113	3,331
2003	1,177	3,940
2004	1,208	4,226
2005	1,299	3,320
2006	1,236	3,004
2007	1,341	2,984
2008	1,269	3,234
2009	1,170	3,076
2010	887*	2,825
Total	12,272	34,199

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

*Jamaica Customs Department

B5: 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. Figure 16 presents the total amount and annual flows of remittances to Jamaica from 2000 to 2010. Estimates from the World Bank were significantly higher than the data generated by the Central Bank of Jamaica (Table 37). A total in excess of USD 16 billion was remitted to Jamaica in the 2000–2010 period. Despite the global economic recession, the amount of remittances for the last 4 years was higher than the 2006 level, with a peak of USD 2,021.3 million in 2008.

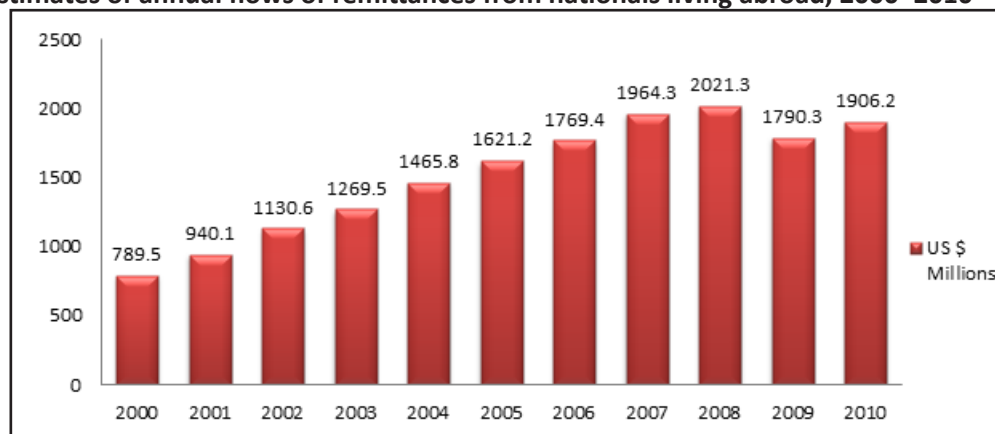
The data on remittances do not include the informal monetary inflows that are personally delivered or sent by friends/family or transacted through personal arrangements without physical movement of funds. The informal monetary flow is an important means of sending remittances for which there is no quantified information. Further, the Bank of Jamaica 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.

Table 37: Estimates of annual flows of remittances to Jamaica by financial institution, in USD million, 2000–2010

Years	Bank of Jamaica	World Bank
2000	789.5	892
2001	940.1	1,058
2002	1,130.6	1,260
2003	1,269.5	1,398
2004	1,465.8	1,623
2005	1,621.2	1,784
2006	1,769.4	1,946
2007	1,964.3	2,144
2008	2,021.3	2,181
2009	1,790.3	1,912
2010	1,906.2	2,011
Total	16,668.2	18,209

Sources: Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, 2008–2011; World Bank, Migration and remittances Factbook, 2011.

Figure 16: Estimates of annual flows of remittances from nationals living abroad, 2000–2010



Sources: Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, 2008–2011.

A disaggregation of remittances by source country or country of residence of long term emigrants shows a total of USD 9,476.7 million sent from the USA (Table 38). This amount represented an average of 57 per cent of the total remittances between 2000 and 2010 (see Table 39). The United Kingdom was second as a source of remittances, with a total of USD 3,874.7 million or 24 per cent of the total remittances sent to Jamaica from 2000 to 2010. These were followed by the Cayman Islands (USD 1,233.8 million) and Canada (USD 1,159.5 million). The fact that remittance inflows to Jamaica has so far remained relatively stable throughout the global economic downturn 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.

Table 38: Estimates of annual flows of remittances by source country, in USD million, 2000–2010

Years	USA	UK	Canada	Cayman Islands	Others	Total
2000	473.6	197.4	39.5	39.5	39.5	789.5
2001	564.1	235	47	47	47	940.1
2002	678.4	282.7	56.5	56.5	56.5	1,130.6
2003	761.6	317.4	63.5	63.5	63.5	1,269.5
2004	820.8	404.6	86.5	102.6	51.3	1,465.8
2005	924.1	356.7	105.4	154	81	1,621.2
2006	994.4	417.6	111.5	155.7	90.2	1,769.4
2007	1050.5	500	136.2	152.2	125.3	1,964.2
2008	1092.7	507.1	158.8	144	118.6	2,021.2
2009	1006.6	324.2	160.8	175.2	123.6	1,790.4
2010	1109.9	332	193.8	143.6	126.9	1,906.2
Total	9,476.7	3,874.7	1,159.5	1,233.8	923.4	16,668.1

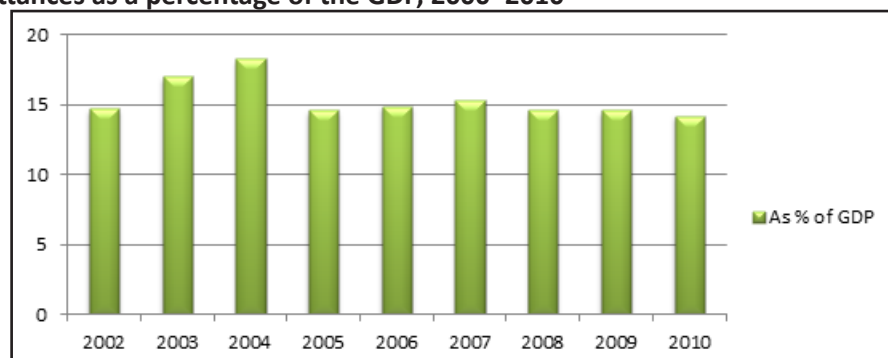
Sources: Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, (November 2008, November 2009, November 2010, November 2011).

Table 39: Percentage distribution of remittances by source country, 2000–2010

Years	USA	UK	Canada	Cayman Islands	Others	Total
2000	60	25	5	5	5	100
2001	60	25	5	5	5	100
2002	60	25	5	5	5	100
2003	60	25	5	5	5	100
2004	56	28	6	7	3	100
2005	57	22	7	9	5	100
2006	56	24	6	9	5	100
2007	53	25	7	8	6	100
2008	54	25	8	7	6	100
2009	56	18	9	10	7	100
2010	58	17	10	8	7	100

Source: Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, (November 2008, November 2009, November 2010, November 2011).

A means of appreciating the impacts of remittance inflows on living conditions and economic development in the destination countries is to measure its contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (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 have contributed an average of more than 14 per cent to the national GDP between 2000 and 2010 (Bank of Jamaica, 2011) (see Figure 17). For example, according to the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), remittances exceeded earnings from tourism, sugar and bauxite as the leading sources of foreign currency in Jamaica in 2003 and 2004 (IDB, 2006).¹²

Figure 17: Remittances as a percentage of the GDP, 2000–2010

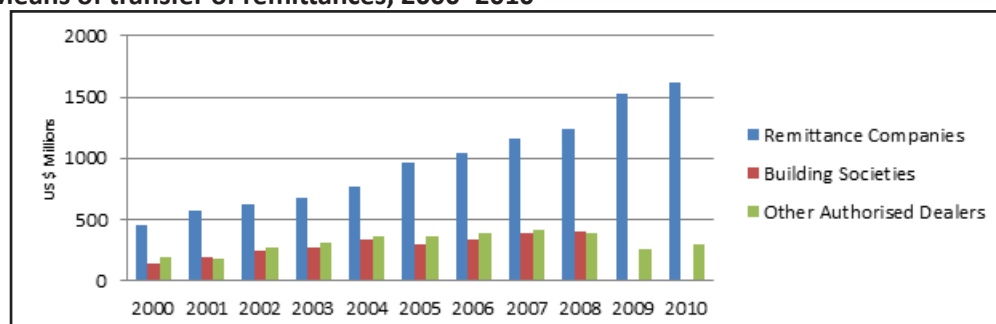
Sources: Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, 2008–2011.

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) and Victoria Mutual Building Society (VMBS) have been granted licences to operate as money transfer operators or remittance companies (see Table 39 and Figure 18). The Bank of Jamaica merged remittance inflows transferred through the building societies into the category called “remittance companies.” More than 80 per cent of remittance inflows to Jamaica in the period under review were transferred through remittance companies (see Table 40). A study commissioned by the IOM in 2007 found that 35 per cent of remittances from the UK were sent to Jamaica through Jamaica National Building Society, 29 per cent through Money Gram and 21 per cent through Western Union (IOM, 2007). A further study conducted in 2008 in Jamaica and based

¹² Other estimates for 2002–2004 were calculated by Acosta, Fajnzylber and López(2008). Their estimates were similar to those calculated by the Bank of Jamaica and no explanation could be found for the apparently anomalous similarity in the remittances from Canada, Cayman and other countries recorded for 2001.

on a survey of a national representative sample, revealed that more than 70 per cent of remittances passed through Western Union (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, Money Gram and other authorised dealers offered cheaper fees than Western Union, most of these companies have very small networks in the remittance source countries, while Western Union remains the most popular and accessible money transfer operator around the world.

Figure 18: Means of transfer of remittances, 2000–2010



Sources: Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, 2005–2011.

The USA was followed by the UK, from which 24 per cent of the total remittances was sent, and the Cayman Islands from which 7 per cent of the remittances originated. The share of remittance inflows by source country is also an indication of the concentration of the long term Jamaican emigrants. The total dependence on remittances in the macroeconomic performance of the source country is one of its greatest limitations and vulnerabilities. The fact that remittance inflows to Jamaica has so far remained relatively stable throughout the global economic downturn 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.

Table 40: Means of transfer of remittances, in USD million, 2000–2010

Means of transfer	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Remittance Companies	454.9	567.6	622	678.2	764.6	963.1	1,042.7	1,166.7	1,235.1	1,525.8	1,613.9
Building Societies*	147.6	195.5	240.7	277.7	339.8	300.2	341.6	385.5	401.1	*	*
Other Authorized Dealers	187	177	267.9	313.6	361.3	358	385.1	412.1	385.1	264.5	292.3
Total	789.5	940.1	1,130.6	1,269.5	1,465.7	1,621.3	1,769.4	1,964.3	2,021.3	1,790.3	1,906.2

Sources: Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, (November 2008, November 2009, November 2010, November 2011)* From 2009, the Bank of Jamaica introduced a new policy requiring building societies to operate as money transfer operators or remittance companies.

There was a noticeably uneven distribution of households receiving remittances both by economic status and geographical location or region (see Table 41). 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. This may be explained by their high level of dependence on remittances to meet their daily needs. Indeed, remittances were the only source of income for many households, especially the poorest and the elderly (Acosta, Calderón, Fajnzylber, and López, 2008). Slightly more households in other towns received remittances as opposed to those living in the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA) and rural areas. In Jamaica, more female-headed households (52.2%) received remittances than male-headed households (39.2%) in 2009 (PIOJ/STATIN, 2010).

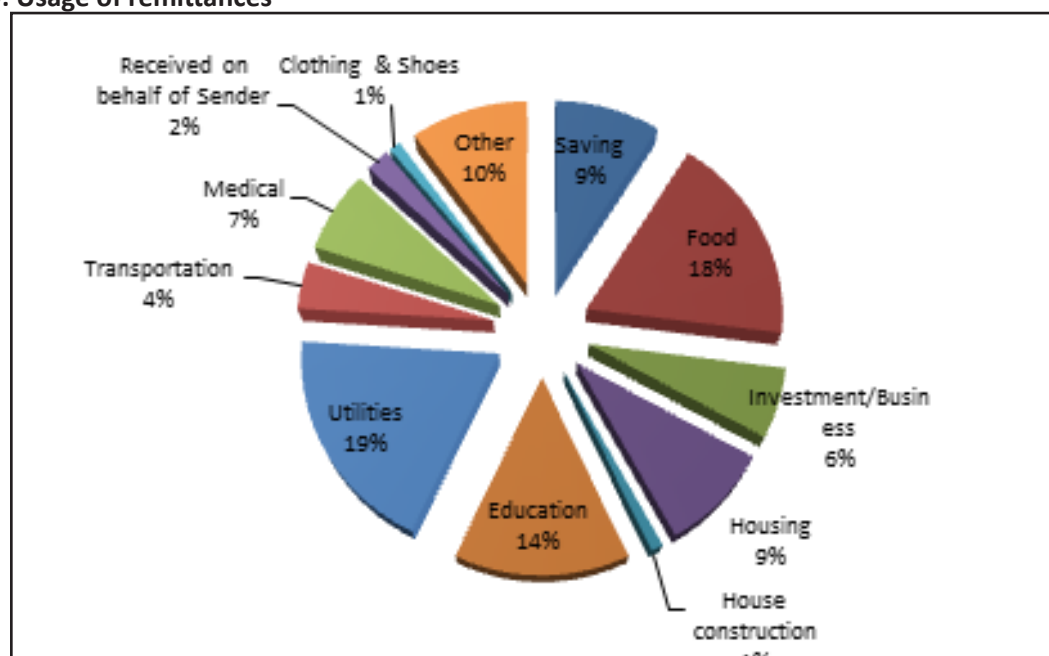
Table 41: Percentage of households receiving remittances by quintile and region, 2001–2010

Quintile	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Poorest	20.0	19.8	20.6	22.5	21.2	30.4	26.0	28.7	32.2
2	35.3	25.9	28.1	29.6	38.8	40.3	33.0	38.2	40.5
3	44.0	28.4	35.7	34.7	38.9	41.5	44.2	45.9	45.4
4	35.8	29.9	37.0	35.2	42.1	47.4	46.6	46.6	51.8
5	35.0	26.4	32.1	35.7	43.4	54.9	48.6	48.3	49.3
Region	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
KMA	28.7	22.2	27.9	30.2	38.4	50.4	41.5	40	47
Other Towns	34.2	27.9	32.7	38.9	43.3	45	48.6	46.2	50.6
Rural Areas	41.6	28.9	33	32.1	36.9	42.3	38.6	44.9	40.5
Jamaica	35.8	26.6	31.5	32.9	38.7	45.3	41.8	43.5	45.1

Source: PIOJ/STATIN, 2010.

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 received¹³ (see Figure 19). 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 sender may also be linked to investment and saving.

Figure 19: Usage of remittances



Source: Henry, 2011.

¹³ These data are slightly different from the findings of Thomas-Hope *et al.* (2009), where child support and purchase of household goods amounted to 58 per cent of the usage of remittances by the receivers. The child support indicator may have been due to the focus of the study on absent migrants.

PART C: MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

CI: Main characteristics of current migration trends (2000–2010)

Guided by the Template for the Migration Profile, the main characteristics of the current trends and patterns of migration for Jamaica as documented in Part B of this report, are summarized below.

CI.I: Immigrants

- A total number of 109,102 immigrants were landed in Jamaica between 2000 and 2010. The annual flow was greatest between 2006 and 2009, which accounted for 33,682 persons and 30.9 per cent of the total for the eleven year period (PIOJ, 2010).
- The immigrant population (2000–2010) comprised 36,381 Commonwealth citizens (including CARICOM citizens), accounting for 33.3 per cent of the total immigrants. The second largest group was of 34,155 deported persons or “deportees” (31.3% of the total), third, were 26,305 other foreign-born citizens or “aliens” (24.2%), and 12,261 “returning residents” (11.2%)¹⁴ (ibid.).
- The immigrant stock recorded in the Population Census for Jamaica, 2001, amounted to 25,230 foreign-born persons, or approximately 1 per cent of the overall population (STATIN, 2005). Of this total, the largest proportion (22.7%) were from Caribbean states; an almost equal proportion (22%) from the USA; followed by the UK (16.7%); and Canada (4%). Additionally, there was 20 per cent from the “rest of the world” and 14 per cent from which the country of birth was “not stated”¹⁵ (Thomas-Hope, 2009).
- The global economic downturn significantly affected the labour market in Jamaica. Domestic economic activities contracted, resulting in a reduction of the employed labour force. The unemployment rate had decreased from 15 per cent in 2000 to 9.8 per cent in 2007, but increased again, to 12 per cent, in 2010. Despite the downturn in the labour market, a large number of immigrants arrived in Jamaica (PIOJ, ESSJ, 2000–2010).

Labour immigrants

- Of 109,102 immigrants landed in Jamaica between 2000 and 2010, the number of labour immigrants was 75,839, amounting to 69.5% of the total (ibid.).
- Most foreign-born labour immigrants to Jamaica (2000–2010) worked as professionals, senior officials and technicians. This group comprised a total of 32,460 persons and accounted for an annual average of 72 per cent of work permits approved by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS) (ibid.). In addition to the persons issued with work permits, approximately a further 30,000 were granted exemptions and thus were not classified by occupation, but given the criteria for getting exemption most of these would be professionals.
- 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 (ibid.).
- The source countries of most foreign-born immigrants in the 2000–2010 period were China, (8,614 persons and 30.6% of the total) followed by India (7,317 persons and 21.4% of the total). Three other important source countries were the USA (3,001 persons 9% of the total immigrants), Dominican Republic (2,536 persons; 8% of the total) and the UK (1,008 persons; 3.1% of the total) (ibid.).

¹⁴ The data for returning residents is incomplete, as discussed in Part A. Additionally, the above figures refer to 10 years (2000–2009) not 11 years (2000–2010) as for the other categories.

¹⁵ The not stated origin country: One is left to assume that this information was omitted in the collation of the Census data, or that the persons for some reason did not want to state their country of birth on the Census.

Return migrants

- The involuntary return or deportation of Jamaican nationals remained high in the period 2000–2010. As indicated above, this group accounted for 34,155 persons (31.3% of the total immigration). The largest number (16,338) was deported from the USA, followed by the number from the UK (11,446), from Canada (2,132), and from other countries (4,329).
- These figures for deported persons contrasted with those for voluntarily returning residents for 2000–2009. Most returning residents who were recorded over this ten-year period returned from the USA (5,816), the UK (4,167), Canada (1,363), and other countries (915).

Foreign students

- A combined total of 1,652 foreign graduate students (Postgraduate and PhD) were recorded at the University of the West Indies (UWI) and University of Technology, Jamaica (UTech). Females outnumbered males. The majority of the foreign postgraduate students were from Caribbean countries, with most from Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados and Guyana (UWI Mona, Office of Planning and Institutional Research reports, 2004–2010; UTech, Office of International Students and the School of Graduate Studies and Research).

Tourists

- It was recorded that around 15 million foreign nationals visited Jamaica as tourists between 2000 and 2010. Non-resident Jamaicans accounted for more than 1.2 million visitors, averaging more than 100,000 persons annually. The largest percentage (60%) of the visitors came from the United States of America (USA). This was followed by Canada and European Union countries (Jamaica Tourist Board, Annual Travel Statistics, 2000 -2010).

Refugees and asylum-seekers

- The number of foreign nationals seeking refugee status or asylum in Jamaica was very low when compared to numbers going to industrialized countries. Over the period 2000 -2008, Haitians (999 persons) and Cubans (54 persons) were the main groups of foreign nationals applying for asylum and refugee status in Jamaica. They were followed by small numbers of Burmese (15) and Colombian (14) nationals. Most asylum-seekers arrived in Jamaica in 2004 -05 (data supplied by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees).

Irregular immigrants

- Most of the irregular migrants entered the country legally, but overstayed their sojourn beyond the authorized period. Numbers are not known, with the exception of the Haitians who entered the country by boat without documentation (interview with officer, PICA).

CI.2: Emigrants

- In the period 2000–2010, the total number of Jamaicans who migrated to the three main extra-regional destination countries, was 254,655. This included 196,665 (77.2%) to the USA, 33,962 (13.3%) to the UK and 24,028 (9.4%) to Canada (PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2010; STATIN, 2011).
- Of the 196,665 emigrants to the USA, nearly one quarter (24%) were under the age of 18, and over half (53.7%) were in the primary working age cohort of 18–44 years (PIOJ, 2004–2010).
- A further 116,739 (nearly four times the number in the labour force) were classified as having “no occupation” or “no occupation reported” (ibid.).
- The great majority (63.5%) of the Jamaican emigrants to Canada (2000–2010) were classified as “non-workers, new workers, homemakers, students, retirees.” Of the total number of emigrants more than one third was under the age of 20 and 42 per cent were between the ages of 20 and 39 years (ibid.).
- The emigrants to the UK (2004–2010) included 1,755 students (data supplied by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade).

Labour migrants

- There was a total of 45,640 emigrants classified as entering the US labour force (2000–2010). More than half the number (59.6%) were in services and 17 per cent in the categories termed “Management, Professional, Executive and Professional Specialty (ibid.).
- Of the 24,028 Jamaican migrants to Canada (2001–2010), 6,392 (26.6%) were classified as being in the labour market.
- The proportion of emigrants to Canada that were classified as “Professionals, Senior Officials and Technicians” amounted to 13 per cent of the total flow and 44 per cent of the number in the labour market. The trend was of decreasing numbers in the “Professional, Senior Official and Technicians” category over the ten-year period, averaging 390 per year in the first five years (2001–2005), and 174 per year in the second half of the decade.
- Labour emigrants to the UK in the years 2004–2010, amounted to 4,820 (data supplied by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade). This represented 73 per cent of the total number of Jamaican emigrants over the seven-years (2004–2010).

Refugees and asylum-seekers

- There was a total of 9,483 Jamaicans seeking asylum or refugee status in countries abroad from 2000 to 2010. This number had increased over the period from an average of 480 persons per year between 2000 and 2004, to 1,180 per year from 2005–2010.¹⁶
- Many applicants were denied refugees and asylum status. For example, in 2009, the UNHCR noted that 386 Jamaican applications for asylum status were rejected (ibid.).

Tourists outbound

- In addition to those Jamaicans entering the UK to work or study, a further 157,460 went for family or other reasons. There is no information on the duration of their stay in the UK and many are likely to have been visitors/tourists (ibid.).
- In the period 2000–2009, there was a total of 2,566,463 Jamaicans entries of Jamaicans to the USA as non-immigrants (US Department of Homeland Security, Yearbook of Immigration Statistics, 2000–2010). As this figure amounts approximately to that of the entire Jamaican population, the data must refer to the number of trips as opposed to the number of persons entering the USA. There is no indication of the multiplicity of trips made by any one individual.

¹⁶ United Nations High Commission for Refugees Statistical Yearbook, 2000–2010

Postgraduate Students abroad

- An average of 1,093 postgraduate students left Jamaica, each year of the decade 2001–2010, to study abroad.¹⁷

Irregular migrants

- There are no data concerning Jamaican emigrants who either enter another country without correct documentation or who enter legally and become irregular on account of overstaying longer than permitted.

CI.3: Jamaican communities at migration destinations and remittances

- The Jamaican Diaspora is heavily concentrated in three main countries: the USA, Canada and the UK.
- Money remitted to Jamaica through the formal money transfer agencies and banks came to a total in excess of USD 16 billion in the 2000–2010 period.¹⁸
- Remittances, as recorded by the Bank of Jamaica (BOJ), increased significantly, from USD 789.5 million in 2000 to USD 1,906.2 million in 2010, having peaked to USD 2,021.3 million in 2008 followed by a slight decline in 2009 and recovery in 2010. The source (of remittances was chiefly the USA (56.9%), followed by the UK (23.2%), Cayman (7.4%), Canada (6.96%), and other countries accounting for the remaining amounts (Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, 2005–2011; World Bank, Migration and Remittances Factbook, 2011).
- The percentage of households recorded by the BOJ to be in receipt of remittances rose from 35.8 per cent in 2000 to 45.1 per cent in 2009. The distribution of remittances to rural, urban and KMA regions (as percentage of households) shows that slightly more households in other towns received more remittances as opposed to those living in the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA) and rural areas. In Jamaica, female-headed households (52.2%) received more remittances than male-headed households (39.2%) in 2009 (PIOJ/STATIN, 2010).
- Remittances were used to pay primarily for: 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 (Henry, 2011).
- In each year (from 2002), the contribution of remittances to GDP exceeded 14 per cent and in 2004, was in excess of 18 per cent (Bank of Jamaica, Remittance Reports, 2005–2011).

17 The available data on graduate students abroad are minimal and incomplete.

18 The actual figure is higher as the data only include funds sent through the financial transfer companies.

C2: Explanations for the current migration trends and their consequences for socio-economic development in the country of origin

C2.1: Explanations of current trends

There are both underlying and imminent factors that play a role as determinants of the migration characteristics and trends with respect to Jamaica. The underlying factors are chiefly structural or socio-psychological and cultural, and do not change in the short run, nor do they have an immediate influence on changing trends in migration flows and their impacts. To these are added the factors that trigger the moves at a particular time and have an immediate effect on the volume and direction of flow and characteristics of the migrants. These include both changing local and external factors, chief among which are migration policies and legislation, and the particular configuration and circumstances of the network of family and friends abroad. The closely interconnected nature of structural and imminent factors, make it difficult to isolate one from the other, and this is especially complex in the attempt to identify policies that could significantly influence the developmental outcomes for Jamaica. These issues are briefly discussed below in relation to specific aspects of the migration.

Immigrants

Foreign-born immigrants

Explanations for the pattern of immigration to Jamaica include the need to fill gaps in the labour force, chiefly of professionals, to some extent as replacement populations for emigrants. Additionally, there have been specific contracts linked to projects, for example, in construction projects by Chinese companies, which permit worker immigration (reported in the Observer, 24 November 2011; The Gleaner, 26 November 2011). The Ministry of Health¹⁹ has recruited scarce specialist staff on two to three year contracts from Cuba, Nigeria, Burma, India, and also in the past from Ghana. With regard to Cuba and Nigeria, these movements are facilitated by inter-Governmental technical cooperation agreements, while prospective staff in other countries, respond to advertisements or are recruited and sponsored by employers in Jamaica. Because the Jamaican training, experience and license is well respected internationally, the country has functioned to some extent as a stepping-stone for health professionals whose ultimate intended destination is the USA, Canada or UK. For example, some immigrant professionals have exploited the local system by coming as locum interns and after passing the local examination and setting up private practice to garner funds, they have then migrated to their intended ultimate destination. Recent geo-political developments, however, have made the US and Canadian labour markets more open to immigrants, resulting in a decline in this transient movement and of the inflow to Jamaica from all sources.

Jamaica's access to health workers from Cuba has also declined for other reasons. Various factors made Jamaica a favoured destination among the almost 100 countries to which the Cuban Government (at their own expense) had sent workers. With the change of President in Cuba in 2009, a more commercial approach has been taken by the Government whereby countries desiring health workers have to enter into contracts with government established companies and incur costs (interview with the Ministry of Health officers). This has led to curtailment of the programme in Jamaica.

Voluntary return migrants

Jamaican migrants, even after decades abroad, identify strongly with their homeland, retaining what has been called an "ideology of return" (Gmelch, 1992; Thomas-Hope, 1982, 1999a). This desire to return to the homeland has been cited as one of the defining characteristics of the Diaspora (Cohen, 1997) and is closely associated with the existence and nature of transnational linkages established between migrants and their home country (Thomas-Hope 1999a, 2002, 2006a). The circularity of movement and the existence of transnational

19 All information here on health workers was obtained from interviews with the Ministry of Health

communities intrinsic to Jamaican migration today have led to a system of mutual support between migrants and non-migrants. This has led to the sending of substantial remittances to the families and households in Jamaica as well as transfers of skills, technology and knowledge (Thomas-Hope et al, 2009).

Involuntary return migrants (deported persons)

The high numbers of persons deported to Jamaica as indicated by the figures above, principally from the USA and increasingly also from the UK, is partly explained by the fact that some migrants who are charged with criminal or civil offenses and are deported and others are caught as undocumented migrants invariably because of the illegal extension of stay beyond the time permitted by the visa.

The trend of increased numbers of involuntary returnees over the period under review also reflects changing policies in the destination countries. A series of anti-crime and anti-terrorism bills passed by the US Congress in the 1990s led to a major increase in deportation from the USA. The 1996 Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act (IIRIR), specifies that deportation should take place for non-nationals charged with criminal and non-criminal offences, including offenses committed prior to the change in the law (Martin-Johnson, 2009). The Caribbean countries to which the largest numbers of persons have been deported are the Dominican Republic and Jamaica. The great majority of the total, were criminal deportees. For example, in the period 1995–2004, there was a total of 18,252 persons deported from the USA to Jamaica, of which 13,050 were criminal offences (Griffin, 2009). There have also been policy changes in the UK that precipitated the deportation of undocumented migrants and persons with criminal offenses in the mid-2000s. An IOM voluntary return programme assisted individuals detained in the UK for minor crimes to return to home voluntarily and not be deported. In 2010 with the change in UK immigration law which branded all detainees returning to their home countries (whether voluntary or forced) as deportees, there was a rise in the numbers of deportees from the UK.

Emigrants

The high propensity for emigration in earlier decades persisted into the current period, indicating that there is a continued perceived reliance on migration for the desired enhancement of personal opportunities. This view is supported by the high income differentials existing between Jamaica and the main destination countries (for example, the USA, Canada and the UK) and associated with this, there is a perception of better opportunities for educational and career development in industrialized countries. It is also of major significance that the migration patterns of earlier decades have resulted in Jamaican communities in the main migration destination countries that provide prospective migrants with extensive social networks abroad and the social capital that facilitates, and even encourages continued movement to the same destinations. The network of relatives also affects eligibility for visas, for example with respect to the visa policy of the USA and Canada regarding family reunification. The selective immigration policies in the USA, Canada and the UK (based on education and occupation) are also major determinants of the volume and characteristics of the flows to these three destinations. Other visa regulations and the imposition of visa requirements, as for example in the UK and Cayman within the current period under review, also contribute to the determination of trends in the volume, direction as well as the demographic and socio-economic composition of the emigration.

Trafficking in persons

Trafficking agents arrange any one or a combination of travel, acquisition of documents for entry at the destination, employment and accommodation for the persons trafficked (Thomas-Hope, 2006b). Between CARICOM member states the movement itself is usually legal and with the full knowledge and complicity of the person being trafficked (that is, the victim) (Kempadoo, 1999). But arrangements, especially the nature and/or conditions of work and indebtedness incurred involve 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.

Jamaica is a country of origin, transit and destination of trafficked persons. The ILO estimated in 2001 that several hundred minors are involved in Jamaica's sex trade. Vulnerability to trafficking in this context is not limited to females. There were also reports of boys as young as nine, mainly those who live and work on the streets in Kingston and Montego Bay, being trafficked for sexual exploitation by older men (IOM, 2005). There is little information on trafficking for forced labour, but there are some indications that it does exist.

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). 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: the prevalence of poverty and poor education levels; early exposure to sexual activities, weakened family structures, transactional sex for young persons – usually girls – in some cases involving parental knowledge and implicit or explicit arrangements (See Dunn, 2002, 2010; IOM 2005; U.S. State Department, 2004).

Additionally, the environment within which trafficking takes place includes 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 which are most commonly the supply locations. Furthermore, and perhaps most important of all, is that persons in those communities do not report cases of trafficking for fear of reprisals (Campbell, 2008). The experience in parts of Europe (for example, the Netherlands) shows that a concerted effort to increase the intelligence has been very effective in breaking into trafficking rings (personal communication with the officer with responsibility for reduction in trafficking, The Hague, Netherlands).

C3: Consequences of Migration

C3.1: Consequences of migration for socio-economic development in Jamaica

Migration has had both positive and negative socio-economic developmental consequences. 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. Impacts of migration have also been felt in the labour market as well as in other spheres of national life. The socio-economic impacts of the key aspects of migration are briefly outlined below.

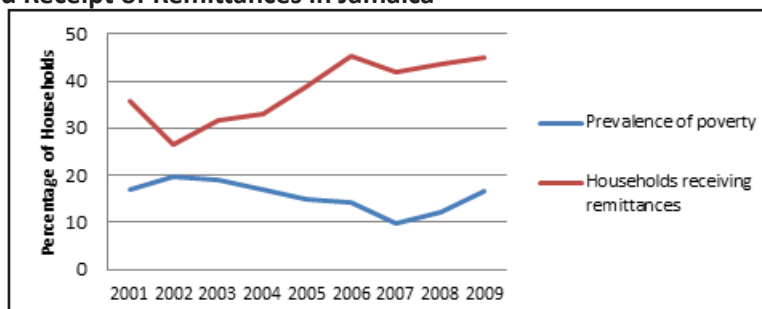
Migration and remittances

Remittances and poverty alleviation

As emigration and the Jamaican migrant stock abroad has increased, so too has the inflow of remittances. Studies have shown that remittances are 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). Money earned abroad has also provided a much needed supplemental income for the migrants themselves (Alleyne, 2009).

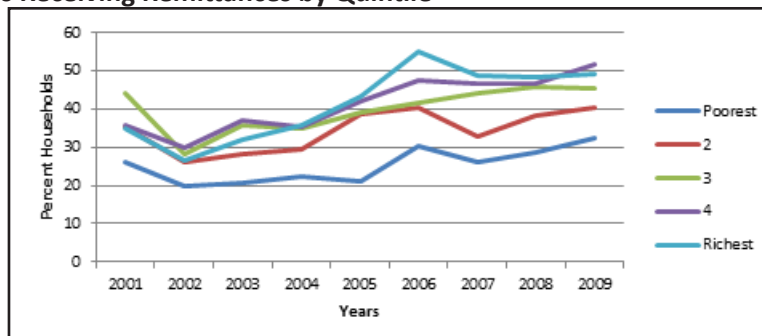
The assumption that remittances play a significant role in the alleviation of poverty is suggested by the fact that in 2009, poverty was least prevalent in those areas recording the highest receipt of remittances among households (Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions, 2009). Additionally, when the receipt 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 as compared with the poorest quintile, which were not in receipt of remittances (see Figures 20 and 21). It is not possible from this information alone to conclude whether the richer households have migrants abroad who remit funds, or whether it is the remittances that had reduced their poverty.

Figure 20: Poverty and Receipt of Remittances in Jamaica



Source: Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions, 2009.

Figure 21: Households Receiving Remittances by Quintile



Source: Compiled from data obtained from the Planning Institute of Jamaica.

Remittances and investment

The flow of remittances to Jamaica from immigrants abroad is an important source of national foreign exchange (Kirton, 2005). Each year, the flow has reflected the cumulative effect of migration in previous years. The role remittances play in the local economy is reflected in the fact that in 2010 remittances were 14.0 per cent of Jamaica's GDP (World Bank, 2011). However, it was noted by Thomas-Hope (2011a) that remittances accounted for the highest percentages of GDP in the weakest economies in the region – namely, Guyana 24.1 per cent of GDP and Haiti 19.6 per cent of GDP in 2010. By contrast, in the high income CARICOM states, for example, Trinidad and Tobago, remittances accounted for 0.4 per cent of GDP and in Barbados for 4.6 per cent (ibid).

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; nor is there literature on the outflow of money from Jamaica to family members in the Diaspora – in particular, children and other dependents.

The profile of Jamaican immigrants in the Diaspora who send remittances has been examined by Palmer (2009), and the motives of the remitters have 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.

There is also an absence of work in Jamaica, or elsewhere in the Caribbean, 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 with the potential for sustainable impacts on development. The potential of financial remittances that has not been realized chiefly relates to their use for national investment

and development programmes. 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.

Social remittances

In a non-material sense, return migrants have been reported in the literature as attesting to the benefits that had accrued to themselves personally and, where applicable, to their children, through their migration experience. Many returnees 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). 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 (ibid). Some migrants still living abroad, contribute periodically through various groups and associations to the support of specific projects, such as providing medical supplies and services to poor communities, or assisting institutions, such as schools and churches (Ying, Manderson and Smith, 2010).

Migration and the labour market

Research suggests that migration also enhances individual education and skills training outcomes. Professionals who had participated in the IOM-GOJ Return of Talent Programme (1996–98) had all pursued some aspect of higher education abroad and had advanced within their respective careers (Thomas-Hope 2002a). While this was a group of professionals, reference can also be made to the wider population based on the already mentioned survey of a national representative sample (2007–2008). It was found in that population that a significant number of migrants were able to advance their education while abroad and around half of those gained qualifications as a result (ibid). It is not known how many of those migrants would have undertaken education in Jamaica had they not left as the same level of qualification may have been available in Jamaica but they could not easily access it, mainly for financial reasons. Those migrants who return while still able to actively engage in work already make, or potentially could make, a major contribution to the labour force.

At the same time, there is significant loss of educational investment and human capital due to the disproportionate migration of the tertiary educated. The emigration of tertiary educated persons has been calculated as 35–60 per cent in the country (Knight, Williams and Kerr, 2009). This contrasts with figures upwards of 80 per cent frequently incorrectly cited as an indication of migration flow of the tertiary educated, when in fact it is a measure of the tertiary educated in the Jamaican immigrant stock in OECD countries (Carrington and Detragiache, 1999).

The emigration rate of skilled persons has undoubtedly had some adverse effects upon development in the countries of origin. This has been specifically indicated in the case of Jamaica, where the Planning Institute of Jamaica was of the view that externally funded projects in the public sector suffered as a direct consequence of the loss of managerial skills in the 1970s. One of the problems relating to the loss of skilled personnel concerns not only absolute numbers but the relative loss in terms of the small reservoir of skills available for national development. The lack of information on the country's human capacity needs prevents any useful evaluation being made of the relative impact of skill losses.

The migration of nurses and teachers especially demonstrates the problem arising from the emigration of significant numbers of professionals from specific sectors, and raises questions about the consequences of this recent trend on the educational and health systems capacities to deliver high quality services (Morgan, Sives and Appleton, 2006; Mortley, 2009). Although, as indicated above, immigrants to Jamaica (as well as nationals residing locally) have filled some of the vacancies left by departing nationals, so it is that migration has also been part of the solution. Studies have shown that the nurses who migrated have not returned to work in Jamaica (Mortley, 2009). The efforts to re-build the sector have been based on internal replacement through training, but the attrition rate is ongoing as young, trained nurses pay off their government bonds and migrate. Despite

the successful strategies to increase numbers with immigrant replacements, the target of 3,000 in the active nurse labour force is regarded as almost impossible to achieve. Besides, there is always a time-lag between the loss of personnel and their replacement by whatever means. In addition, remittances do not flow back to the public sectors from which the labour force had been depleted.

While there have been negative consequences of high levels of teacher and nurse migration in the education and health systems, migration has also had a positive effect on education at a household level. This is partly because of the enhancement of education abroad by those who have themselves been migrants, and also because where remittances boost a household's budget, spending on all items increases, including on education and on health. Some interviewees in a recent study indicated that they disproportionately allocated remittances to health and education, which might suggest that remittances have a beneficial effect in these areas (Thomas-Hope et al, 2009).

The loss of skilled persons was also felt in the agricultural sector. Research indicated that as professionals in the agricultural sector emigrated, it was very difficult to replace them. As a consequence, the Ministry of Agriculture often has had to employ persons who had no relevant experience and then train them; yet even then, a number of skill gaps remained (Thomas-Hope and Jardine-Comrie, 2011).

Migration and agriculture

Migration has a number of implications for agriculture, in particular through: a) its impact on the labour force, b) on the commitment to and sustainability of farming; and c) on the extent to which remittances are used for improving and sustaining agriculture or as a means of finding alternatives to agriculture.

In terms of the labour force, at the professional level, there is evidence that migration has had a negative effect on capacity. 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). This reiterates the observations made elsewhere in this report, regarding the impact of emigration of skilled personnel on the performance of the health and education sectors. The situation is quite different in terms of the implications of migration for the general agricultural labour force at the farm level, where the impact appears to be negligible. Several factors account for this. Firstly, neither long term nor seasonal migration occurs on a scale that would significantly reduce the size of the work force in rural communities. As indicated above, just over 10,000 persons from across the island participate in the overseas work programme annually. The number of farm labourers migrating for an indefinite period is far lower. Coupled with the high levels of unemployment and poverty in rural areas, this means that there are still a significant number of persons available to work on farms.

There was also evidence of information and technology transfers through the migration experience (ibid.). This applied both to return migrants who had spent many years abroad as also to those who participated in the short-term overseas work programmes. Techniques such as the use of green-house and hydroponics to grow crops, as well as the use of certain types of equipment, had been learned by farmers while they were abroad, and many had adopted much more productive work ethics.

On the negative side was the occurrence of farm abandonment due to the long term absence of the main farmer in the household and the constraints to the selling of the land because of its tenure status as family land and/or the lack of a land title. Where the farmer returned from abroad, there were many cases where farming was restored, but this depended on the age and other circumstances of the individuals concerned (Thomas-Hope, 1993).

Remittances have also been found to have a positive effect on agriculture in some situations. The most significant feature was its use in the purchase of agricultural inputs (such as seeds and fertilizer), and to pay for labour needed for land preparation and harvesting activities (Ishemo, Semple and Thomas-Hope, 2006). It was also reported that remittances had been used to acquire land for agriculture by purchasing, leasing or renting. However, the overall effect of remittances on agricultural productivity would have to be classified as small. This is because the sums of money remitted were not usually sufficient for the kind of large scale investment in agriculture that would significantly boost overall productivity. Farmers reported receiving between USD 200 and USD4,200 per year, with only a few persons (usually females with a spouse who had migrated) receiving the higher amounts. On average, 20 to 50 per cent of this was reported to have been invested in the farm, so that the sums used for agriculture amounted to between USD 40 and USD2,100 on any farm per year (Ishemo, Semple and Thomas-Hope, 2006; Thomas-Hope and Jardine-Comrie, 2011).

As an extension of the consequences of migration for agriculture are the implications of remittances for food security. This depends on whether the money remitted is used to support agricultural production or alternatively, used to purchase food to the neglect of farming. The evidence that some money sent or brought back from abroad by farmers is being used to support small farming, suggests that remittances do contribute to, rather than erode, food security in rural areas of Jamaica (Thomas-Hope, 2011b).

Migration and gender

Migration's implications for gender roles are complex. Women migrate for economic reasons just as often, and perhaps even more often, than men. The large proportion of female migration reflects the combination of high levels of female economic responsibility within the family and their relative freedom accorded them by the family structure to engage in employment abroad for repeated and/or varying time periods (Thomas-Hope, 2002b). The gender characteristics of migration also highlight the fact that migration over the decades has contributed to the consolidation of male and female gender roles and to the persistent pattern of inequality with regard to the economic burden of women, most keenly experienced within the poorest sectors of the society (Thomas-Hope, 2003). For the majority of women, migration provides extended opportunities for work, thereby reinforcing the responsibilities that women have for their families, especially their children. In such families, the gender roles of the men are also rarely altered through either their migration (Freeman, 2002; Mohammed and Perkins, 1999). This contributes to the migration of women, some of whom leave their children for extended periods of time, sometimes with major negative repercussions which are indicated below in the section on children left behind.

Migration and the family left behind

An important consequence of high female household responsibility and emigration in response to poor economic opportunities available in Jamaica, 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, 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; 2002). 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 is 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 (Samms-Vaughn, 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, 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 behaviours, although boys in migrant households were marginally more negatively affected than girls (Thomas-Hope, 2006c).

A study prepared for HelpAge International and Hope for Children Development Company Ltd (2010) that was conducted in Whitfield Town, Rose Town and Greenwich Town, Kingston, confirmed that the main countries to which persons migrated were: the United States, the United Kingdom and Canada; 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.

Migration and Trafficking in persons

The most exploitative aspects of female migration relate to the trafficking in women and girls, not only internally, within Jamaica (Williams, 1999; Dunn, 2000; 2001), but also to other parts of the Caribbean for a few months at a time to work as “exotic dancers” and strippers in clubs. Others travel to the countries of North America and Europe as “drug mules” (Thomas-Hope, 2004). The sexual exploitation of boys also occurs but as yet there is no information on whether this is associated with their migration from Jamaica. The consequences of trafficking include the increased exposure to sexually transmitted diseases and stress-related illnesses, invariably at a young age. This has long term negative social and economic repercussions on the individuals and their families, of which little data exists.

Migration and 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 communicable diseases that are not fully recognized, 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 healthcare 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. A better understanding of the interaction between HIV/AIDS and population movements is essential in order to develop effective AIDS intervention strategies in the Caribbean. The need to respond is made more urgent by the high prevalence rate in the region. 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.

There is some evidence that tourism (a form of population mobility) and HIV/AIDS are related in the Caribbean. Tourism-dependent economies have some of the highest HIV prevalence rates and reported AIDS

incidence in the region. However, very little research exists on tourism-driven sex work in the region; the connection between this population and HIV/AIDS is not well developed in the existing literature, although a major study was conducted in the Caribbean, and included Jamaica as one of the cases (IOM, 2004).

Informal Commercial Importers (ICIs), who are international petty traders (termed higglers), are also an important mobile population as their livelihood depends on mobility. No studies exist of the possible link between this highly mobile group and HIV/AIDS.

Involuntary returnees

A major issue relating to deportees is the difficulties encountered in their re-integration into Jamaica. The common situation is that the deportees return with little or no financial and social capital to effect their own integration. In order to survive, the reality is that some of them feel that they have no option but to turn to crime (Headley, 2005). The high numbers of deportees who are not integrated into the labour market, despite the skills which many possess, have implications for their health and access to housing and other basic needs.

Suzette Martin-Johnson examined the contribution of civil society actors in the responses to Deportation (Martin-Johnson, 2009). Government has not been proactive in addressing the issue of integration of Deportees. In Jamaica, there have been a number of NGOs performing several functions with respect to the Deportees. These functions have included giving assistance to the indigent, providing spiritual guidance through counselling, and offering skills training. Such integration will be essential to avoid some of the problems which have arisen both for the individual deportee and for society, and many useful skills are potentially wasted where deportees fail to enter the labour market because of the stigma of deportation and/or their criminal record. The IOM was engaged in supporting a programme to assist the integration of deportees in Guyana which was short-term but provided an important model for future initiatives. The EU-UNDP also supported integration of this community through a training and integration project in Jamaica (Headley, 2011). There is the need for a formal national reintegration programme geared to equipping deportees with the necessary tools and skills to reintegrate into society and to become self-sufficient and productive citizens.

Migration and crime

Migration is associated with crime and criminal networks that operate in a number of contexts. It involves: maritime security, including narcotics trafficking and arms trafficking and money laundering. Country threats include: trans-national 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 USD3.3bn per year (Franklin, no date).

Vulnerabilities to exposure to the effects of international migration-related crime include: porous borders; legislative challenges; inadequate information and intelligence; inadequate physical/ technological, 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.

Migration and culture

Popular culture

Migration affects culture, and the impacts are generally perceived to be positive. It enables Jamaica's culture, for example, in terms of music, and food, to be internationally renowned, a source of pride for Jamaicans and the basis for a significant trade in goods and services, especially in the countries of the Jamaican Diaspora. Additionally, Jamaicans interact with people of other cultures through migration, and among return migrants there is evidence that this strengthens values such as multi-culturalism, which is an important aspect of social development.

Traditional culture

At the same time, research has shown that there is some indication of regret among migrants that their children who had grown up abroad were not rooted in Jamaica and had missed out on building those values associated with the Jamaican culture and values in which they themselves had been raised (Thomas-Hope, 2004).

The culture of external orientation and dependency

The persistent nature of Jamaican migration of all types and the self-perpetuating nature of the process, have implications that go beyond the tangible aspect of losses and gains of resources – whether human or monetary. The trends and characteristics of migration reflect an ongoing external orientation at all levels of national society that, despite its potential benefits in the short and medium-term signal an external dependency that has the capacity to undermine important aspects of national development in the long term. It is therefore important that such tendencies be recognized and understood so that they may be countered in positive and proactive ways.

The case of recruitment of skilled workers and secondary school students demonstrates the nature of the challenge. However, one should note that active recruitment is not new in the Jamaican migration experience. Advertisement, inducement and recruitment have played a key role in migration in the past, especially in initiating the movement of particular groups to particular destinations (for example to Central America in the late 19th century and early 20th century and to the United Kingdom in the 1950s) The overall effect of recruitment drives has always been to bring a steady flow of out-migration to a virtual flood. Each phase of recruitment generated a frenzied preoccupation with obtaining information about the opportunities at the potential destinations. This served to reinforce people's outward orientation, heighten the propensity for migration and deepen the national external dependence and the focus upon goals and models of material success that are current in North America and Western Europe (Thomas-Hope, 1999a; 2002b). Unlike the recruitment drives of the past that sought to enlist persons in the labour force, the current practice includes the targeting of both skilled adult workers and students. The external orientation has therefore become an important part of the goals not only of the Jamaican worker but also of Jamaican youth, especially of high achievers. While it would certainly not be the aim to encourage parochialism and insularity, nevertheless it must be recognized that the deeply external orientation of any society will inevitably have a negative impact on the national psyche in the long run.

The professionals who returned under the auspices of the Return of Talent Programme were all aware that they used an external reference with respect to the standards they set for themselves and their children (Thomas-Hope, 2002a). All persons indicated that they had immediate family members and/or many of their friends in the countries of their previous residence. Some frequently, others occasionally, travelled abroad and all purchased most goods of a professional and personal nature in those countries, rather than in Jamaica. Although they felt a deep sense of Jamaican identity and a commitment to making a contribution to national development, nevertheless, they all retained citizenship or other entitlements in the country of their previous residence and countered the possibility of migrating again, even within their active working lives.

A negative aspect of remittance receipt also relates to the dependency that it has encouraged among some persons and the associated withdrawal from the labour market. These cases were identified to be mostly young people receiving remittances from their parents abroad (Thomas-Hope et.al, 2009). The use of remittances to pay for education in order to enable the emigration of the individual also raises questions about the role of remittances in reinforcing a dependency mentality and the perpetuation of the migration of those with secondary and tertiary-level education.

C4: Possible future trends in migration and its consequences for development

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

- There is likely to be an increased trend in emigration to and immigration from Caricom Single Market and Economy (CSME) member states.

- In the short to medium-term, the opportunities for emigration, especially to the USA, will continue to decline, at least until the recovery of the global economy.
- Continued high selective migration with a continuing high rate of emigration of the tertiary educated. It is anticipated that flows of nurses and teachers will continue for the foreseeable future. The shortages of nurses in North America, especially in the USA and in Britain have persisted and there are reports of acute shortages of nurses in schools in the USA (Pienkos 2006). There is also evidence of recently renewed efforts to recruit Jamaican teachers for the USA (The Jamaica Gleaner, 24 March 2008).
- 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 bi-ennial 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 socio-economic development of the country, will continue.
- Trafficking in persons is likely to continue in the short and medium term. Although more information has been garnered on this movement (IOM, 2005), the fundamental problems related to poverty and poor educational levels among the poor continue. There is still insufficient intelligence to reduce the existing high level of impunity that has to be addressed.
- Remittances are likely to be maintained at the recent high level; 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 will decline if the flow of migrants in the destination countries is not maintained at current levels. Monies 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 indication 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 policy in the main migrant destination countries. This situation points to the need to establish a major programme for the rehabilitation and re-settlement of deported persons.

PART D: MIGRATION POLICY FRAMEWORK

DI: Key domestic legislation and recent migration policy developments

The legislative framework underpinning Jamaica's policies includes eleven statutes currently in force which were enacted specifically to deal with migration. These are listed below in chronological order and it is seen that they fall into four main categories reflecting the evolving concerns of legislators over time. The policies being implemented within this framework are described in the following sections:

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 & 1962 Regulations)
- Recruiting of Workers Act (1940)

Trafficking

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

In addition to these laws, a few others apply directly to the daily work of administration officials who deal with migration-related issues. Namely:

- The Customs Act (1941 as amended)
- The Employment Agencies Regulation Act (1957)
- The Criminal Justice Act (1960)
- The Child Care and Protection Act (2004)

DI.1: Immigration

Jamaica's overall policy for persons entering the country as migrants (whether temporary labour migrants or permanent residents or return migrants) is generally facilitative. 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 likely to become a charge on public funds; are deemed undesirable by the relevant Minister for economic or any other reason; or are the subjects of a Deportation Order, prohibition order/ exclusion order or if they have a communicable disease. Other immigrants must meet the following conditions to be allowed entry: are able to support themselves and their dependents or have a Work Permit; be mentally and physically fit; have not been sentenced in a foreign country for an extraditable crime; are not the subject of a local deportation order; and are in possession of a visa, where relevant.

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). Commonwealth Citizens, however, 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 residents²⁰ that have obtained Skill Certificates and who are granted Unconditional Landing on the basis of the Recognition of Skills Act. Very recently 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.

Return migration and irregular migration

Return migrants

Jamaican emigrants have been encouraged and facilitated by the Government of Jamaica to return home since the early 1990s. Strategies used to encourage return migration, even for a short time, include incentives, such as information on jobs, linkages with prospective employers, favourable provisions for the importation of goods under the Customs Act and investment opportunities. For example, with the support of the IOM (1996–1998) the Government implemented the Return of Talent Programme which offered allowances, insurance and salary subsidies to highly qualified Jamaican professionals living overseas to fill vacant positions in the public sector for a minimum of two years thereby permitting transfer of knowledge and skills to take place. The provisions made are in accordance with the policies outlined in Ministry Paper No.2/93 - the Charter for Long Term Returning Residents. In addition, linkages with the Diaspora, in general, have been strengthened over the last decade and engagement in dialogue with organizations in the Diaspora, envisaged to mobilize their contribution to national development.

Involuntary return migrants (deportees)

The issues affecting deportees primarily relate to their reunification and reintegration in the society. Through the support of the British Government, the Jamaica Reducing Re-Offending Action Plan (JRRAP) is currently in place towards this end and is a component of the Jamaica Rehabilitation and Reintegration Programme. It includes short-term safety net services on arrival in Jamaica; reintegration services available throughout the country; and initiatives to strengthen the policy framework including building the capacity of public institutions and heightening the collaboration between them and the non-governmental organizations working with deportees. The latter is facilitated primarily by regular stakeholders' fora.

Refugees

In keeping with the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, a Refugee Policy was developed and was approved by the Government in 2009. 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.

Trafficking in persons

The issue of trafficking in persons has received much attention since 2006, when the USA gave Jamaica an unfavourable ranking in its Annual Trafficking in Persons Report. A National Task Force against Trafficking in Persons was established and the Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) Act (2007) was enacted. A dedicated Trafficking in Persons (TIP) Unit was established in the Organized Crime Investigation Division (OCID) of the Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF) to assist with the identification, rescue, and protection of victims of trafficking. The Immigration Intelligence Unit was instituted to support and strengthen the efforts of the TIP Unit. A protocol is also being prepared to guide the repatriation of victims of trafficking. The act was based on the U.N. Convention on Transnational Organized Crime and the Palermo Protocol.²¹

²⁰ Exemptions are also granted to persons employed by government/statutory bodies, foreign spouses of Jamaicans, employees of UWI and UHWI, and skilled professionals and technicians employed for 14–30 days.

²¹ http://action.web.ca/home/catw/attach/un_protocol.pdf.

DI.2: Emigration

In spite of the negative impact of Jamaica's high levels of out migration, the government has always subscribed to the principle of the right to freedom of movement. It has deemed it necessary, nevertheless, to be able to exercise control over worker recruiting agents 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 memory. 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.

The Emigrants Protection Act (1925) concerns 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. Persons recruiting workers from Jamaica for these 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. 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 one may be granted a Jamaican passport for travel.

DI.3: Labour Migration

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 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 CARICOM Single Market and Economy (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. Implementation of the CSME has been slow, but a number of initiatives have been taken across the region to date. These include: legislation to modify the need for a work permit and Unconditional Landing so as to permit ease of entry and indefinite stay; introduction of an umbrella training body (Caribbean Association of National Training Agencies) and common certification (Caribbean Vocational Qualification), and of a CARICOM Passport and Skills Certificate; and the 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) to be landed unconditionally. 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 ten categories of workers.²²

²² Graduates from all recognized universities in the world; Artistes; 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.

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 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.

As indicated in Part A of this report, a long-standing circular migration programme has been in place to provide short-term contract employment for low and semi-skilled Jamaican workers. This is the Overseas Employment Programme, which consists of the following major elements: the US Farm Work and Hospitality Programmes and the Canadian Farm and Factory, and Hospitality and Skilled Worker Programmes; and workers for jobs in Guantanamo Bay, Cuba. 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, 2008). The Canadian Farm Work Programme is based on an agreement between the Governments of Jamaica and Canada, while the other programmes in Canada are based on agreements with Canadian Training Institutions. The US Farm Work and Hospitality Programmes are operated based on agreements between the Government and employers or agents in the USA. Private agencies are also active in recruiting workers for overseas work, with the exception of agricultural workers, as recruitment for the Farm Work Programme is the sole prerogative of the Ministry of Labour.

The US Programme has operated since 1943 and the Jamaica Central Labour Organization (JCLO) based in Washington, D.C. has provided welfare services to all Caribbean workers on the Programme. An administrative fee of approximately four per cent of workers wages has been deducted to help to fund the Liaison Service which gives assistance in a wide range of areas.²³ In 2008, however, the US Citizenship and Immigration Service debarred US employers from collecting fees from anyone who has a job in the USA as a temporary migrant worker. Employers, workers and the Caribbean Governments consider the Liaison Service to be crucial to workers’ welfare and it is still hoped that intervention from the Foreign Affairs Ministries in the Region can prevent the impending closure of the JCLO.

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 normally employs ten persons in Canada and also in the JCLO in the USA. 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 Temporary Foreign Workers Programme (TFWP) which has thereby opened up new employment opportunities for migrant workers. The Ministry of Labour and Social security (MLSS) has forged partnerships with several training institutions in Canada as well as the local National Training Agency and other local training institutions in order to equip Jamaicans for these job openings (Dunn and Gibb, 2008).

DI.4: Human Rights and Social Protection

In 2011 the Charter of Fundamental Rights and Freedoms (Constitutional Amendment) Act was brought into force. For “all persons in Jamaica,” the Charter provides for their right to liberty, movement, expression, freedom from discrimination, equality before the law and so on. However, in the case of education, only

23 “Including medical insurance, NIS deductions, workers’ compensation in case of injury, ensuring that employers don’t mistreat workers, inspection and approval of worker housing, resolving work or domestic problems, maintaining workers’ records, ensuring workers save some of their earnings and looking after their families back home in emergency situations. The organization also provides welcome services to workers once they land in the US, among other critical services.” (http://www.jamaicaobserver.co.e.g.m/news/Farm-work-in-danger_8623701_ixzz1fn6UVKIA).

children who are citizens have a right to publicly funded tuition up to 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 42). It has also ratified all of the six international instruments protecting migrants' rights.²⁴

Recent developments in relation to international conventions include the formulation of a protocol for refugees, enactment of trafficking legislation and institution of a policy for deportees. 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 Ministry of Labour and Social Security 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.²⁵

With regard to 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 National Insurance Scheme, 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 deported.

Table 42: Jamaica's ratification of human rights treaties

Title of Treaty/Instrument	Signature	Party
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)	19 Dec 1966	03 Oct 1975
International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)	19 Dec 1966	03 Oct 1975
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	17 July 1980	19 Oct 1984
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD)	14 Aug 1966	04 Jun 1971
Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)	26 Jan 1990	14 May 1991
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)	30 Mar 2007	30 Mar 2007
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (MWC)	25 Sep 2008	25 Sep 2008
International Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT)		
International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance.		

Some social protection for migrant workers is assured through reciprocal social security agreements with the UK and Canada permitting portability of pension benefits. To date, there is only an informal agreement of this nature with the USA. Indeed, no Caribbean country has such an agreement with the USA. Furthermore, the recent policy dictate there that no wage deductions can be made for workers on the Overseas Employment

24 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 International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention concerning Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers (No. 143).

25 Communicated in interview.

Programme, means that these workers stand to lose out in relation to the pension benefits to be obtained from the National Insurance Scheme. 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 & 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).

D2: Institutional Responsibilities

D2.1: Government agencies

There are six agencies of government with prime responsibility for migration matters. The Ministry of National Security (MNS) has the role of protecting Jamaica against internal and external threats and ensuring the safety of Jamaica's borders. The Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) operates as the frontline agency at the border, and the police force - the Jamaica Constabulary 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, for providing services related to the acquisition of passports, and for granting permanent residence and citizenship status. On internal matters, PICA maintains a close working relationship with the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS) and the Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF), while it liaises with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT) on matters affecting other nation states. PICA works closely with MLSS because the issuance of work permits (and exemptions) which 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.

MLSS has the mandate to protect Jamaican workers' rights, whether local or overseas, to uphold local labour guidelines, policies and laws, to eliminate the worst forms of child labour and to 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 Overseas Employment Programme, 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.

Through its Headquarters in Kingston and its global network of Missions and Honorary Consuls, MFAFT 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. 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 a biannual Conference/ Convention. Further to a decision of this conference, a Diaspora Advisory

Board was established to work closely with the Ministry consisting of representatives from the UK, Canada and the USA. Along with this, is a Diaspora Foundation Studies Unit and its operational arm, the Diaspora Institute. MFAFT also links members of the Diaspora to Jamaica Promotions Ltd. (JAMPRO) which is the government agency with responsibility for promoting investment in Jamaica and has offices in Toronto, Canada and London, UK. 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. The agencies described above are linked through their various responsibilities (see Table 43).

Table 43: 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 and is currently seeking to establish a National Policy on International Migration and Development as well as an institutional framework for promoting more coherent and coordinated management. Additionally, many employers, in both public and private sectors, are involved in migration, as they recruit manpower to compensate for local skill shortages. This importation of skills is particularly crucial for the health sector.

D2.2: Non-Government and International Organizations

The involvement of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in migration related issues centre around deportees, the Diaspora, returning residents and, to a limited extent, trafficking in persons. A relatively large number of NGOs provide support to deportees. Among the main players are the Hibiscus Centre for Women, Community Group Homes, Family Unification Resettlement Initiative, Second Chance, Open Arms Centre, the Returning Residents Association and the Salvation Army. Services provided are wide ranging and include emergency accommodation, assistance with re-connecting with family and friends, counselling, health care and referrals for training.

The main local players for NGOs work with the Diaspora, are the Diaspora Foundation, Institute and Board which were mentioned above, the latter two of which were established in the Mona School of Business at the University of the West Indies (UWI). The European Commission-United Nations Joint Migration and Development Initiative (EC-UN JMDI) targeted 16 countries, including Jamaica, in 2009, supporting projects for civil society and local authorities to link migration and development and eventually feed into policy making; three component projects have been implemented by Jamaican NGOs:

The Diaspora Foundation in partnership with a Diaspora organization from the United Kingdom has established a web-based portal for connecting Jamaica and the Diaspora; this will comprise databases such as a Diaspora Skills Bank/ Jobs Bank, community based projects in Jamaica and so on thereby strengthening communication links;

Hope for Children Development Co. and HelpAge International implemented a component to increase the protection and social inclusion of families of migrants particularly in multi-generational households in inner city communities; and

Hibiscus UK and the Institute for Sustainable Development UWI implemented a component to support Jamaica migrants and their families through skills-training of deportees and protection of children of deportees and of incarcerated migrants. A membership organization was also established– the National Organization of Deported Migrants to foster networking and empower members.

Returning residents comprise the membership of approximately 30 associations and interest groups locally plus a number of others overseas. They provide information using multi-media 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 (PACT)²⁶ which provides assistance to victims of trafficking such as shelter, food and clothing and help to sensitize the general population about trafficking.

The Jamaica National Building Society (JNBS), Grace Kennedy Money Services (Western Union) and Victoria Mutual Building Society are the main private organizations promoting Diaspora involvement in national development by mobilizing them and 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. Currently JNBS is establishing a web portal through which the Diaspora will be able to contribute directly to small and medium sized projects in Jamaica that need funding. Overseas NGOs also contribute significantly to Diaspora involvement, for example the Caribbean Enterprise Network based in the UK recently signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the Jamaica Stock Exchange which is expected to result in a large inflow of investment resources into the country (Jamaica Observer, Oct. 28, 2011).

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 GOJ mainly cooperates are the USA, India, Panama and the Dominican Republic as these are reported as the main countries where Jamaican victims of human trafficking have been located.

In relation to deportees, as noted above, the British Government has greatly helped in the development of an appropriate Jamaican response to the problem through the Jamaica Rehabilitation and Reintegration Programme. 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 also give 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 is being assisted with the development of a migration and development policy by the IOM and the Global Migration Group.

26 A coalition of 26 community based organizations and NGOs working primarily in eastern Jamaica.

D3: Analysis of policy coherence

D3.1: Policy Coordination

A close knit working relationship has had to be maintained between the various government agencies handling migration matters. However, 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 arises. Decision making, therefore, has generally not been a shared agency responsibility but has taken place unilaterally. Between the government and non-state agencies, there has been even less interaction but coordination has increased in recent years as a result of the anti-trafficking thrust and work with deportees.

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

- Work Permit Committee
- Free Movement of Persons Committee Convened and chaired by MNS
- National Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons.

The Work Permit Committee has 15 representatives from the six main agencies plus other relevant bodies (for example, employers) and meets weekly or bi-weekly 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 other 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 which 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.

The National Working Group on International Migration and Development (NWGIMD), newly established by the PIOJ, is an inter-agency group with overall objectives to: a) oversee the process for development of a National Policy and Plan of Action on International Migration and Development; 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. The NWGIMD seeks to improve the capacity of 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, the NWGIMD seeks to improve the government's capacity to monitor and manage international migration in line with Jamaica's socio-economic development objectives.

D3.2: 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 socio-economic 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 in train since the 1980s. And indeed, as noted earlier, the present study fits

into a thrust to develop a national policy in which the potential of migration as a developmental tool is fully recognized.

D3.3: Diaspora and development

Efforts to mobilize the Diaspora for development have intensified in recent years. Traditionally, members of the Diaspora focused on 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 which were involved in four main areas of assistance, namely Education, Social Services, Health, Foundations and Business, Investment & Trade (Ying, Manderson, Smith, 2010). The Diaspora has made contributions in response to natural disasters, and played an important role in the local economy through their entrepreneurship overseas and as trade facilitators. The government's investment agency, Jamaica Promotions Corporation (JAMPRO), has expressed that the Diaspora is an untapped resource for direct investment and that they are developing a strategy for attracting such investments.²⁷ Similarly, the portal being developed by JNBS that was mentioned above is intended to facilitate the realization of the relatively new concept of Diaspora direct investments. The biennial Diaspora convention and the Foundation, as well as Institute and Advisory Board that have been established since 2008 contribute to strengthening the linkages with Jamaica and to encouraging Diaspora involvement in national development.

D3.4: Overall assessment of the migration policy context

The migration issues facing Jamaica are primarily related to: labour oversupply and mobility resulting in brain drain or waste; skill shortages; absentee parents; engagement of the Diaspora (skills and financial resources); and return and irregular migration (that is, deportees and victims of trafficking). The responsiveness of policy makers to these challenges has been uneven. In relation to labour oversupply and mobility, the Overseas Employment Programme 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. Additionally, the programme has tapped only a small segment of the Jamaican labour force and steps could be taken by the government to explore similar opportunities, especially in light of reports of increasing skill shortages in the developed countries. Making greater use of government administered circular migration programmes would also assist in stemming the brain waste/drain.

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 left with its skill requirements still unmet

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) are minimal. Efforts to mobilize and engage the Diaspora have involved both the public and private sectors with fruitful partnerships emerging between the two. New initiatives are being spawned to facilitate their contribution to development via investment and it is expected that they will be successful. In relation to deportees and trafficking, the government has been slow in responding to the relatively new trends in these

27 <http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/businessleader/Observer-Migration>

movements, but has benefitted 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. 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 business persons keep recruited workers in substandard living and working arrangements, the MLSS does not have the license to visit and police these conditions as they are in private domains.

In addition to the above “internal” problems, intra-regional 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. Finally, in relation to migrant Jamaicans, both within and outside the region, more attention needs to be paid to social security provisioning. The 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 USA which is the country with the largest number of Jamaican migrants.

PART E: CONCLUSIONS

E I: Main findings on current migration trends

E I. I: Immigrants

Labour immigrants

The foreign-born immigrant population is low (less than 1% of the total population). The immigrant population is characterized as having high educational levels but most do not remain in Jamaica in the long term. The stock of immigrants is estimated to be much lower than the total of flows over a decade, which indicates a net outward movement of the immigrant population. (This is based on the 2001 figure as immigrant stock in 2010 will not be known until the 2010 Census tabulations are available.) This indicates that a large number of foreign-born immigrants remain in Jamaica for short periods, representing the duration of their work permits. Therefore, they are not long term contributors to the economy and society.

Deported persons

The deportation of Jamaicans, especially from the USA, increased significantly over the past decade. As indicated in Part C of this report, the policies in the USA and the anti-crime and anti-terrorism bills passed by the US Congress in the 1990s, in particular the 1996 Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act (IIRIR), led to a major increase in deportation from the USA. These policies are unlikely to change in the short- or medium-term.

As indicated above, nearly one third (31.3%) of migrants to Jamaica over the 2000–2010 period were deported persons. This is a statistic which raises serious concern in terms of developmental consequences for Jamaica for a number of reasons, including the consideration that this cohort of migrants arrive in Jamaica with few or no close family connections, so re-settlement is a challenge. They usually have little, and even negative social capital due to the stigma of deportation and the association made by the public between deportation and criminal activities in the migration destination country, with implications for such activity in Jamaica as well. Further, this group of migrants do not typically return with funds to be used for investment and they return with no jobs and, because of the challenges indicated above, with few prospects of employment. Additionally, many of these migrants have health challenges - mental and physical – some of which are associated with the trauma of deportation (Martin-Johnson, 2009).

Returning residents

Voluntary return migration has many potential economic benefits based on the transfer of savings from the country of employment overseas to Jamaica at the time of their return, the sending of remittances in advance of and in anticipation of their return and, following the return where it takes place at retirement age, the continued flow of pensions and social security financial benefits. As already indicated, some migrants living abroad and with no particular intention of returning to Jamaica, make contributions in cash and kind through their own networks, to groups and organizations in Jamaica. Where return takes place during the working life of the migrant, there is known to be the transfer of valuable skills and experience to the Jamaican work environment. The new attitudes, approaches to voluntarism, the desire to contribute in various ways to their country of birth, are aspects of social remittances which return migrants also bring to Jamaica. These factors raise the question of whether there is a sufficiently enabling environment in Jamaica so as: a) to keep encouraging persons in the Diaspora to return and stay; and b) for those who do return, to optimize their economic and social potential to the benefit of national development.

EI.2: Emigrants

There is a continuing trend of high levels of emigration among the young working-age population and young persons under the age of 20. As indicated above, of the emigrants to the USA (171,722) in the 2000–2010 period, nearly one quarter (24%) were under the age of 18, and over half (53.7%) were in the primary working age cohort of 18–44 years (PIOJ, ESSJ, 2004–2010). Of the total number of emigrants to Canada in the period 2000–2010, more than one third was under the age of 20 and 42 per cent were between the ages of 20 and 39 years (ibid.).

Although the largest proportion of emigrants to the USA was in the service category (59.6%), there was also 17 per cent in the categories termed “management, professional, executive and professional specialty.” In the case of emigrants to Canada, 13 per cent of the total emigrants (2000–2010) were classified as “professionals, senior officials and technicians” (ibid.).

The trend in the high level of emigration of nurses and teachers that had begun in the 1990s, continued into the 2000–2010 period, though details of the trend cannot be assessed due to the lack of data on these movements. The emigration of tertiary educated and skilled persons reflects a general labour oversupply resulting in brain drain or brain waste. This may be partly due to a mismatch between skills needed nationally and those produced on the basis of the educational foci of the secondary and tertiary institutions, and/or due to the inability of the local economy to absorb local human capital at internationally competitive conditions of employment.

There is a continuing trend of high female emigration, for example, 55 per cent of the emigrants to the USA (2000–2010) was female. The figures were not available for the emigration to Canada. This high level of female migration is linked to the absence of mothers and negative effects on families especially children and the elderly.

Short-term labour migrants

Although short-term labour migrants on the GOJ Work Programmes (described above) remain abroad for less than six months duration at any one time and are, therefore, not regarded as “emigrants” under the definition used for the Migration Profile, nevertheless they form a major group of persons engaged in international circulation.

Trafficking

Trafficking in persons, especially young women and girls (though also including boys and young men) has continued. Despite recent efforts to identify and restrict the practice, there is need for increased mechanisms to gather intelligence so that the active and passive perpetrators of the movement can be apprehended. Economic, social and educational deficiencies have been identified as the basis of the vulnerability of young persons, to exploitation by traffickers, and are critical issues that have to be addressed within the context of Jamaica’s development.

EI.3: Diaspora and Remittances

Remittances are sent as family and personal obligations in small sums, but the total annual amount is substantial and contributes to 14 per cent of GDP. Remittances are mostly used for household and living expenses (including education and health care), and the saving and investment of remittances is generally low. There are no data on money transferred through informal channels. Additionally, money is sent out from Jamaica; but these sums are significantly less than the inflows, amounting to an average of USD 2,845.4 million over the period 2000–2010 (BoJ data), compared with inflows of USD16 billion.

There is an absence of research into the best case scenarios of the kinds of instruments that would attract significant savings and investment in national programmes appropriate for Jamaica. This is critical if substantial benefit is to be derived from the diaspora with the potential for sustainable impacts on development.

E2: Improvement of migration statistics

E2.1: Identification and explanation of existing data gaps and problems encountered in data collection

Data gaps

A number of data gaps were found to exist and are outlined in Annex III.

- Some of the difficulties relate to the detail of the data that were identified in the Template for preparation of the Jamaica Migration Profile.
- The annual Economic and Social Survey Jamaica contains critical information about migration characteristics and trends. However, the data did not relate to all variables required for the MP so that much of the data had to be obtained from the different agencies engaged in data collection for their particular areas of activity.
- There is a lack of coordination between the various government agencies with responsibility for the collection of migration-related data.
- There is no consistent and integrated system of migration data collection for Jamaica that would facilitate the sharing and amalgamation of datasets across governmental organizations. In some cases, aggregate figures are recorded, with no breakdown of socio-economic characteristics or the migration profile of the individuals. This occurs with respect to deported persons, return migrants and foreign-born immigrants and the family members who accompany them. The data collected in the Jamaica Population Census (including 2011) does not provide data that can be used to generate migration histories/profiles that would be useful in policy formulation.
- 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. It should be noted that with regard to the core migration questions recommended for the 2010 Census, Jamaica had the highest (33%) non-compliance rate (data obtained from the CARICOM Secretariat). That is, one-third of the core migration questions were not used in the Jamaica Census. This prevents a regional perspective on Jamaica's migration characteristics and trends.
- Although there is anecdotal indication of fraudulent production and use of travel documents for illegal migration from and to Jamaica, there are no available data on irregular immigrants and emigrants, or of trafficking. Hard data are understandably difficult to obtain due to the illicit nature of these types of migration.
- Accurate information on teacher and nurse migration has not been documented, despite the high visibility and unprecedented rates of departure from the 1990s. For example, it was reported with respect to teacher migration that:

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture (MOEYC) in Jamaica did not have any statistical information regarding the numbers of teachers who had migrated from Jamaica. Teachers are not expected to give their reasons for resigning their post. Existing official data is therefore extremely limited. Also, the Jamaica Teachers' Association (JTA) does not keep statistics on the numbers of teachers going abroad and the teacher training institutions do not keep a track on their graduates.
(Morgan et al.)
- There is a paucity of data relating to the stock of Jamaicans in the Diaspora. Research to record the Jamaicans in the main migration destinations, using the Population Censuses for those countries, are incomplete and, what has existed is out of date.
- 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.

Recommended actions/strategies to improve migration data

- There is a need for an integrated and common computerized system for the collection of migration and other data relating to development variables, such as a Banner system.
- 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 datasets.
- 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 posted online.
- The Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ) and the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN) should be lead agencies to design a computer programme and train the relevant personnel in the management of the data.
- The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade should be able to get emigration data from the overseas missions.
- 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.

Suggestions of how to regularly update National Migration Profile

As indicated above, the greatest challenge lies in having consistency in the way in which migration data are collected across all the relevant agencies and computerized using a common format. The process would need to be coordinated by a lead agency. The population censuses conducted every ten years, and the periodic survey of living conditions should be used to more effectively capture information on migration of the individual as well as of the household. Some reluctance by migrants to share their information may inhibit success, but the greater involvement of the government in the whole migration process as recommended below, should help in this area. Ease of access and consistency in the data recording format would allow for an updated profile which should be prepared at regular ten-year intervals. The migration trends should then be examined in light of other socio-economic indicators of development.

E3: Recommendations regarding Migration Management

The following recommendations concerning migration management are made with a view to providing general themes which are of high relevance to the achievement of incorporating migration into development policy. These themes are: 1) Data management; 2) Human resource capacity management; 3) Institutional arrangement and legislative framework; 4) Protection of migrants and migrant households; and 5) Linkages with the diaspora. 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 agencies of the Government of Jamaica.

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.

- Compliance with the common set of migration-related questions recommended for the Census of Population and Housing in CARICOM Member States, is essential for identifying trends in population movements within the region and for all CARICOM States to be able to share information at the regional level.

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. This will involve a combination of approaches including: a) the enhancement of an enabling environment in Jamaica; as well as, b) actual border management. To these ends the following issues need to be addressed:

- Focused efforts are required to significantly enhance the development of an enabling environment in Jamaica with respect to: personal security; increasing efficiency in the system for the establishment and conduct of entrepreneurial activities; reducing bureaucratic snags and lengthy procedures in conducting routine business transactions;
- Policies need to be formulated and much more effectively enforced than has occurred in the past, in order to reduce the outward flow of certain groups that are trained at the expense of the Jamaican public purse. For example, appropriate terms and conditions of bonding of the recipients of specific training are required following training. This is especially needed where persons have been trained in certain scarce skills at the public expense or subsidy. However, a system of bonding can only be imposed if the skills in which individuals are trained can then be effectively employed in Jamaica;
- Compensation is required for the training foregone through the emigration of skilled persons at a critical stage in their participation in the labour force (for example through bilateral arrangements with the recipients of the skilled migrants);
- Efforts are needed to increase "brain gain" by attracting the return of those emigrants who have trained or increased their training and experience abroad, or new immigrants who were trained abroad and who will settle in Jamaica in the long term. This requires a number of specific policies and of very high importance is the development of the capacity to effectively absorb such persons into the Jamaican labour force, and into the society as contributors to wider societal development;
- Although more time may be needed for achieving the desired degree of labour mobility within the CSME, the issues deterring smooth implementation at present need to be addressed at various levels. This includes regional consultation between decision makers as well as better informing, sensitizing and training workers at ports of entry. Steps must also be taken to address the adequacy of social security provisions for migrant workers within the region. The recommendation to revisit the CASS to prevent inequities should be adopted, as well as to work with other CARICOM member states towards a unified regulatory framework. Additionally, since no country in the region has a bilateral agreement with the USA for portability of social security rights, negotiations towards this end by the region en bloc is recommended.

Protection of migrants and migrant households

- 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 provide graphic information on the realities and risks in becoming victims of trafficking; of engaging in illegal activities and of illegal migration, including extension of stay.

- Rehabilitation socially, and skill orientation of deported persons, are also essential aspects of protection of the migrant and requires a comprehensive programme.
- A more structured approach to the migration of minors and dependents must also be encouraged.
- Stronger linkages between migrants and Jamaican authorities would help in these matters and be of benefit to all concerned.

Institutional arrangements 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 streamline it (for instance merging the Aliens Act and the Commonwealth Citizens Act); make it more contemporary; tighten the requirements for entry; better address critical issues such as smuggling of persons and undocumented workers; and 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.

Linkages with the Jamaican diaspora

- Linkages with the diaspora are already currently being strengthened and the ongoing initiatives to build a web-based portal with Skills/Job Banks must be fully supported.
- A modified Return of Talent Programme could be reinstituted allowing migrants to contribute their skills and expertise to national development through temporary exchange programmes.
- Better mobilization of the diaspora's potential for assistance requires more intensive efforts to inform them, to identify their interests and to package schemes that will be attractive to them. Exploiting advances in information technology will greatly assist in the requisite levels of communication to make such initiatives successful. The view held by members of the diaspora that remittances automatically contribute to nation building must be countered with facts and research based evidence. Similarly, feedback must be provided to them when contributions are made to local causes to show transparency and integrity in the use of funds. The importance of an appropriate governance structure to support and coordinate the varied initiatives on the ground and elicit valuable synergies should be underscored.
- In the process of integrating all aspects of migration into Jamaica's development strategy, policies are required to minimize the negative and maximize the positive aspects of migration while remaining cognizant of the importance of the freedom of individuals to choose their life paths and livelihoods. The preservation of these freedoms, including the freedom to migrate and the freedom to choose how to use one's personal resources, are of themselves important indicators of development (UNDP, Human Development Report 2009).

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ANNEXES

ANNEX I: DEFINITIONS

Asylum-seeker is a person who seeks safety from persecution or serious harm in a country other than his or her own and awaits a decision on the application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments. In case of a negative decision, the person must leave the country and may be expelled, as may any non-national in an irregular unlawful situation, unless permission to stay is provided on humanitarian or other related grounds.

(IOM, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

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.

(UNDESA/Statistics Division, Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration - Revision1, 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 UNDESA/Statistics Division, Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration - Revision1, 1998 and UNECE/CES, Recommendations for the 2010 Censuses of Population and Housing, 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, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

Immigrant is an individual that must be resident in Jamaica for six months or more. [The Statistical Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ, 2011: 20.10)].

Irregular migrant is a person who, owing to unauthorized entry, breach of a condition of entry, or the expiry of his or her visa, lacks legal status in transit or host country. The definition covers inter-alia those persons who have entered a transit country lawfully but have stayed for a longer period than authorized or subsequently taken up unauthorized employment (also called clandestine / undocumented migrant or migrant in an irregular situation). The term "irregular" is preferable to "illegal" because the latter carries a criminal connotation and is seen as denying migrants' humanity.

(IOM, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

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.

(UNDESA/Statistics Division, Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration - Revision1, 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, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

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, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

Remittances are monies earned or acquired by non-nationals that are transferred back to their country of origin.

(IOM, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

Temporary migrant workers are skilled, semi-skilled, or untrained workers who remain in the destination country for definite periods as determined in a work contract with an individual worker or a service contract concluded with an enterprise. Also called contract workers.

(IOM, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

Visitor in the migration context is used in some national legislation to designate a non-national authorised to stay temporarily on the territory of a State without participating in a professional activity.

(IOM, International Migration Law, Glossary on Migration 2nd Edition, 2011)

ANNEX II: Sources of Data

II.1: Sources of Statistical Data

Bank of Jamaica (BOJ)
Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC)
Institute of International Education (IIE)
Inter-American Development Bank (IADB)
International Monetary Fund (IMF)
International Organization for Migration (IOM)
Jamaica Customs Department
Jamaica Tourist Board (JTB)
Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade (MFAFT)
Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS)
Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA)
Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ)
Statistical Institute of Jamaica (STATIN)
United Kingdom Office for National Statistics (ONS)
United Nation Development Programme (UNDP)
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
United States of America Department of Homeland Security
University of Technology, Jamaica
University of the West Indies, Mona Campus
World Bank

II.2: Stakeholder Interviews

Organization	Name	Position
Planning Institute of Jamaica	Mr. Easton Williams Mrs. Toni-Shae Freckleton Ms. Chadine Allen Mrs. Rukiya Brown	Actg. Director Social Policy Planning and Research Division Actg. Manager Population & Health Unit Manager Migration Policy Project Administrative Assistant, Migration Policy Project
Ministry of Foreign Affairs & Foreign Trade	Mrs. Janice Miller Mrs. Lisa Bryan-Smart Mr Lloyd Wilks Ms Tracey Blackwood	Director Economics Affairs Dept Asst-Director Economics Affairs Dept Actg. Director Diaspora and Consular Affairs Dept Acting Asst. Director Diaspora and Consular Affairs Dept
Ministry of National Security	Mr. Orane Bailey Ms. Titania Ward	Director, Border Security and Control Unit Policy Analyst
Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Mrs. Faith Innerarity Mrs. Andrea Miller-Stennett Ms Joan Archer Ms. Lisa-Ann Grant Mrs. Carla-Ann Harris-Roper	Director General Director Manpower Services Division Director Employment Agencies Unit Director Work Permit Unit Director Legal Services Division
Ministry of Justice	Mr. Oneil Francis	Assistant Attorney General (Acting)
Ministry of Education	Mr. Peter Gordon Mr. Philbert Dyhll	Snr Education Officer Planning and Development Division Asst. Chief Education Officer Tertiary Unit
Ministry of Health	Mrs. Sandra Graham Dr. Leila McWhinney-Dehaney Mr. Benjamin Waysome	Director Policy & Planning Chief Nurse Director Strategic Human Resources
University Council of Jamaica	Dr. Yvonne Marshall	Executive Director
Jamaica Customs Department	Mr. Earl Stewart	Research Analyst Returning Residents Unit
Bank of Jamaica	Mr. Chandar Henry Mr. Esmond McLean Ms. Donna Hamilton-Smith	Senior Economist Economist Asst. Director for Remittances
Passport Immigration and Citizenship Agency	Mr. Orlando Williams	Director
University of the West Indies	Mrs. Merrit Henry	Director Placement Services
University of Technology	Mrs. Deane Pottinger	Director Student Services
Mona School of Business, U.W.I.	Prof. Neville Ying	Executive Director, Diaspora Foundation Studies Unit
Jamaica National Building Society	Mr. Emile Spence	Business Development & Research Executive
British High Commission	Mr. Steve Burns	First Secretary Migration

ANNEX III: TEMPLATE

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION JAMAICA NATIONAL PROFILE FOR STRATEGIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT

This template provides a standard structure indicating main headings, subheadings and respective core indicators and non-core indicators (both with relevant breakdown) guaranteeing the comparability of different National Migration Profiles. Additional data/information should be included in appropriate annexes in order keep the National Migration Profiles practical and user-friendly.

PART A: Brief historical overview of migration trends (max. 2 pages)

Please provide a brief summary of key migration trends and issues experienced in previous decades and highlight some of the main changes in respect of the recent migration situation in the country.

PART B: Current migration patterns within the development context (max. 12 pages)

*The objective of this section is twofold: (a) to analyse migration patterns and recent trends; and (b) to provide an overview of existing data sources and identify data gaps. **All data variables should be divided into total stock and annual flows (for last 5–10 years) and broken down according to the indications in brackets when information is available.***

B1. Development, demographic changes and net migration

Please provide a tabular overview of the main indicators on poverty, economic growth and demographic composition in order to assess the level of development of the country and its implication on current migration trends.

Core indicators

- Proportion of population below USD1 (PPP) per day (by rural/urban)
- Proportion of population below national poverty line (by rural/urban)
- Human Development Index
- Real GDP (level, growth rate)
- GDP per capita (level, growth rate)
- Population volume (by sex)
- Population growth rate
- Dependency ratio
- Population age distribution (by sex)
- Net migration (total and rate, annually)

Non-core indicators

- Urbanization rate (by sex and age)

B2. Immigrants

This part should start with a brief overview of the data sources used and indicate main differences (if any) between the definitions listed in the template and those used in the quoted sources. Further details on quoted data sources and definitions should be indicated in Annex I and II respectively. The term immigrant utilised in this section refers to “long term migrant” as defined above.

Core indicators

- Total stock (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)
- As percentage of total population (by country of birth, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- As percentage of active population (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Naturalizations as percentage of foreign population (by sex and age)

B2.1 Refugees/asylum-seekers

Core indicators

- Total stock refugees (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows refugees (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Total stock asylum-seekers (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows asylum-seekers (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)

B2.2 Labour immigrants

This part should start with a brief description of recent developments on the labour market in the country (labour law, employment policy, social security system, and so on).

Core indicators

- Total stock labour immigrants (by country of birth, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment, namely skilled/unskilled)
- Annual flows labour immigrants (by country of birth, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment, namely skilled/unskilled)
- Labour force growth rate (by native/foreign-born, sex)
- Unemployment rate (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education and region)
- Skill shortages (by sector and profession)
- Informal economy as % of GDP and labour force (by sectors and profession)
- Annual number of family reunification (migrant's family members) (by country of birth, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- Employment rate (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education, region, sector, namely public/private and/or primary, secondary and tertiary)
- Level of income (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education and region)

B2.3 Foreign students (postgraduate and PhD)

Core indicators

- Total stock students (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Annual flows students (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Percentage of foreign students in tertiary education (by sex, age and qualification)
- Teacher/students ratio at tertiary level (by public/private university)

Non-core indicators

- Literacy rate (by sex and age)
- Net enrolment ratio in primary education (by sex and age)
- Net enrolment ratio in secondary education (by sex and age)
- Number of people with tertiary education (by sex, age and qualification)

B2.4 Inland tourists

Core indicators

- Total stock tourists (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Annual flows tourists (by country of birth, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- Annual number of visitors for other reason (by reason of entry, sex and age)

B2.5 Irregular immigrants

This section requires particular attention to the concepts/categories and respective definitions used. Please provide exact details/metadata for each of the following indicators as indicated in the quoted data sources. This section should include an analysis of border management, effects and issues as well as the impact of migration on crime

Core indicators

- Total stock of foreigners with irregular status (in source country) (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows of foreigners with irregular status (in source country) (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Number of foreigners working irregularly (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Main areas of employment of foreigners working irregularly (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Number of foreigners apprehended inland (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Number of foreigners refused to entry/apprehended at border (of source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Number of foreigners removed (from source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Number of foreigners victims of human trafficking /smuggling (VoT) identified (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Number of foreigners voluntary returning back home (AVR) (from source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- Number of foreigners overstaying their visa/stay permit (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)
- Irregular immigration routes (including trafficking and smuggling) (by country of birth)

B3. Emigrants

This part should start with a brief overview of the data sources used and indicate main differences (if any) between the definitions listed in the template and those used in the quoted sources. Further details on quoted data sources and definitions should be indicated in Annex I and II respectively. The term emigrant utilised in this section refers to “long term migrant” as defined above.

Core indicators

- Total stock (by country of destination , sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows (by country of destination sex, age and duration of stay)
- As percentage of total population (by country of destination, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- As percentage of active population (by country of destination, sex and age)

B3.1 Refugees/asylum-seekers abroad

Core indicators

- Total stock refugees (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows refugees (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Total stock asylum-seekers (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows asylum-seekers (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)

B3.2 Labour emigrants

Core indicators

- Total stock labour emigrants (by country of destination, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment, namely skilled/unskilled)
- Annual flows labour emigrants (by country of destination, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment, namely skilled/unskilled)
- Unemployment rate of labour emigrants abroad (by, sex, age and level of education)
- Share of labour emigrants working in informal economy abroad (by sectors and profession)
- Annual number of family reunification (migrant’s family members) (by country of destination, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- Employment rate abroad (by sex, age, level of education, sector, namely public/private and/or primary, secondary and tertiary)
- Level of income abroad (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education and region)

B3.3 Students abroad (postgraduate and PhD)

Core indicators

- Total stock students (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Annual flows students (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Teacher/students ratio at tertiary level (by public/private university)

B3.4 Tourists outbound

Core indicators

- Total stock tourists (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Annual flows tourists (by country of destination, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- Annual number of visitors abroad for other reason (by reason of travel, sex and age)

B3.5 Irregular emigrants

This section requires particular attention to the concepts/categories and respective definitions utilised. Please provide exact details/metadata for each of the following indicators as indicated in the quoted data sources.

Core indicators

- Total stock of nationals (abroad) with irregular status (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Annual flows of nationals (abroad) with irregular status (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)
- Number of nationals working irregularly (abroad) (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Main areas of employment of nationals working irregularly abroad (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Number of nationals (abroad) apprehended inland (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Number of nationals (abroad) refused to entry/apprehended at border (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Number of nationals removed (from abroad) (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Number of nationals victims of human trafficking /smuggling (VoT) identified abroad (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Number of nationals voluntary returning back home (from abroad) (AVR) (by country of destination, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- Number of nationals overstaying their visa/stay permit (abroad) (by country of destination, sex and age)
- Irregular immigration routes (including trafficking and smuggling) (by country of destination)

B4. Diasporas abroad

The term diaspora utilised in this part refers to long term (e)migrants and descendants of long term emigrants (as defined above) who are currently living abroad. Please indicate main differences (if any) with respect to the definitions used in the quoted sources.

Core indicators

- Stock of persons belonging to the diasporas abroad (as defined above) (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, sex and age)
- Annual increases of persons belonging to the diasporas abroad (as defined above) (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, sex and age)
- Stock of long term emigrants and descendants of long term-emigrants returned back home (by country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age)
- Annual flows of long term emigrants and descendants of long term-emigrants returning back home (by country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age) Including analysis on return, reintegration and reunification programmes
- Return rate (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age)

Non-core indicators

- Share of temporarily return migrants from total number of return migrants (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age)

B5. Remittances of nationals living abroad

Please indicate main differences (if any) between the definition of remittances specified above and the definitions used in the quoted sources.

Core indicators

- Total amount of remittances inflows from nationals living abroad (in USD million/annually) (by country of destination, sex and age)
- As % of GDP
- Means of transfer, % distribution (by country of destination, sex and age)
- % of family budget of households depending on remittances
- Uses of remittances (investment, consumption, saving)

Non-core indicators

- Share of households depending on remittances

PART C: Migration and Development (max 4 pages)

C1. Main characteristics of current migration trends

Brief summary of the main characteristics of key migration trends and patterns as documented in previous part. Identifying, analysing and assessing the socio-economic and cultural situation of international migration and development in Jamaica including national and regional policies and programmes on migration and development and conduct a gap analysis

C2. Explanation of current migration trends and their consequences on socio-economic development of the country of origin

- *Please explain how the various socio-economic indicators discussed in part B affect current migration trends and patterns, and indicate factors driving immigration and emigration not considered in the previous section (e.g. cultural factors, environmental and climate changes).*
- *Please indicate how migration affects the socio-economic context (with a particular focus on its impacts on the labour market, skills shortages and brain drain) and the demographic structure of the country of origin. Indicate the impact of migration on health, education, governance, financial security, agriculture.*
- *Please explain the impact of migration on children and families*

C3. Possible future trends in migration and its consequences on development

Please draw out possible future developments in the migration patterns and its impacts on development based on your analysis on factors driving migration.

PART D: Migration policy framework (max. 8 pages)

D1. Overview of key domestic legislation and recent migration policy developments

- *A brief description of the country's migration policy (where exists) and ongoing policy initiatives to create a migration policy framework*
- *Other programmes related to migration and their relation to the national policy framework*
- *Frameworks for human rights and social protection issues*
- *A description of existing national migration-related legislation and policy, including mapping ratification of human rights treaties and international instruments protecting migrant rights*
- *Overview of key migration legislation pertaining to admission and residence of migrants (including nationality law), emigration, trafficking and smuggling, diaspora and remittances, and so on, and their current implementation*

D2. Key institutional actors involved in migration management and diaspora

- *A description of the remit and functions of the various ministries and government agencies dealing with migration management and diaspora issues*
- *An analysis of the decision-making structure and policy-making process on migration*
- *A brief description of the role of non-governmental actors and international organization in migration policy issues and their current programmes related to migration*

D3. Analysis of policy coherence issues

- *Policy coordination: to what extent is there coordination among ministries and between ministries and other national/international agencies? Are there coordinating bodies (,namely working groups) or mechanisms? What are their functions?*
- *Mainstreaming migration into development plans: to what extent is migration mentioned or even mainstreamed into development plans/Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper? If migration is not integrated into development plan, are there efforts to do so?*
- *Diaspora and development: are there efforts to mobilize the diaspora for development (for example special investment schemes, skill transfer programmes)?*

D4. Overall assessment of the migration policy context

Brief assessment on how the existing migration policies and programmes respond to the challenges in the various areas that are relevant to migration policy labour oversupply and shortages, labour mobility and legal migration, diasporas issues (skills transfer), maximizing the productive use of remittances, return policies and, brain drain, brain waste, irregular migration, and so on

PART E: Conclusions (max. 4 pages)

This section summarizes the main findings revealed by the available data on current migration trends, indicates existing data gaps (and possible strategies to improve migration statistics) and propose suggestions of how to make MPs updateable, and presents key recommendation for policy maker to improve current migration management.

E1. Main findings on current migration trends

E2. Improvement of migration statistics

- *Identify and explain existing data gaps and problems encountered in data collection*
- *Recommended actions/strategies to improve migration data*
- *Suggestions of how to update regularly National Migration Profile*

E3. Recommendations regarding migration management

Highlight areas where more policy development and programme interventions are needed

- *Key recommendations of how to improve migration management*
- *Recommendations proposed for the Policy*

ANNEXES

- I DEFINITIONS from quoted data sources
- II SOURCES and VARIABLES used for data collection
- III STATISTICAL ANNEX for additional tables and figures
- IV Overview INTERNAL MIGRATION
- V REFERENCES

ANNEX IV: DATA GAPS

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
Part A: Brief historical overview of migration trends				
Historical migration trends	Secondary data from the literature			
Part B: Current migration patterns within the development context				
B1. Development, demographic changes and net migration				
Core indicators				
a) Proportion of population below USD1 (PPP) per day (by rural/urban)	Secondary data from the literature			
b) Proportion of population below national poverty line rural/urban)	Secondary data from the literature			
c) Human development index	Secondary data from the literature			
d) Real GDP (level, growth rate)	Secondary data from the literature			
e) GDP per capita (level, growth rate)	Secondary data from the literature			
f) Population volume (by sex)	Secondary data from the literature			
g) Population growth rate	Secondary data from the literature			
h) Dependency ratio	Secondary data from the literature			
i) Population age distribution (by sex)	Secondary data from the literature			
j) Net migration (total & rate, annually)		Secondary data from the literature		The official data source used net external movements rather than net migration
Non-core indicators				
a) Urbanization rate (by sex & age)		Secondary data from the literature		The urbanization rate was not calculated by sex and age in any official data source consulted. The data referred to urban growth rate
B2. Immigrants				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock (by country of birth, sex & duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any official data source. Results from the 2011 census will indicate the total stock of immigrants in Jamaica
b) Annual flows (by country of birth, sex, age & duration of stay)		Secondary data from the literature		The data source did not list all the countries by sex, age and duration of stay

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
c) Immigrants as percentage of total population (by country of birth, sex, age)		Secondary data from the literature		The data source did not list all the countries by sex, age and duration of stay
Non-core indicators				
a) Immigrants as percentage of active population (by country of birth, sex, age)		Secondary data from the literature		The data source did not list all the countries by sex, age and duration of stay. The percentage was calculated based on information drawn from official data source
b) Naturalizations as percentage of foreign population (by sex & age)		Secondary data from the literature		The data source did not provide data by sex and age. However, the percentage was calculated from the annual flows of immigrants
B2.1 Refugees/asylum-seekers				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock refugees (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from official sources. There was one category called 'refugees/asylum-seekers'. Results from the 2011 census will indicate the total stock of refugees in Jamaica
b) Annual flows refugees (by country of birth, sex, age & duration of stay)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were not provided by sex, age and duration of stay
c) Total stock asylum-seekers (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from official sources. There was one category called 'refugees/asylum-seekers'. Results from the 2011 census will indicate the total stock of asylum-seekers in Jamaica
d) Annual flows asylum-seekers (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were not provided by sex, age and duration of stay
B2.2 Labour immigrants				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock labour immigrants (by country of birth, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment, namely skilled/unskilled)			Data not available	Current stock was not available from official data sources. Results from the 2011 census will indicate the total stock of labour immigrants in Jamaica

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
b) Annual flows labour immigrants (by country of birth, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment, namely skilled/unskilled)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be disaggregated by age, duration of stay and educational level. The variable 'duration of work permit' was used instead of duration of stay
c) Labour force growth rate (by native/foreign-born, sex)	Secondary data from the literature			
d) Unemployment rate (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education and region)		Secondary data from the literature		No calculation could be made by sex, age, level of education and region for immigrant workers as they would have left Jamaica after completing their employment contracts. Data could not be disaggregated by sex, age, level of education, region of native
e) Skill shortages (by sector)			Data not available	A brief discussion was provided about skill shortages
f) Informal economy as % of GDP and labour force (by sectors and profession)		Secondary data from the literature		The official data source did not provide information on an annual basis about the contribution of the informal economy to the GDP. A brief discussion was provided
g) Annual number of family reunification (migrant's family members) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	The official data source and the literature did not make any reference regarding annual number of family reunification
Non-core indicators				
a) Employment rate (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education, region, sector, namely public/private and/or primary, secondary and tertiary)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be disaggregated by sex, age, level of education and region for native. A brief discussion was provided about skill shortages
b) Level of income (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education and region)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be disaggregated by sex, age, level of education and region for native. There are no data about the income level of the labour immigrants
B2.3 Foreign students (postgraduate and PhD)				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock students (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any official data source

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
b) Annual flows students (by country of birth, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be fully disaggregated by age and country of birth
c) Percentage of foreign students in tertiary education (by sex, age and qualification)			Data not available	A brief discussion was provided
d) Teacher/students ratio at tertiary level (by public/private university)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were obtained for only one University
Non-core indicators				
a) Literacy rate (by sex and age)	Secondary data from the literature			
b) Net enrolment ratio in primary education (by sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data sources did not provide information on Net enrolment ratio
c) Net enrolment ratio in secondary education (by sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data sources did not provide information on Net enrolment ratio
d) Number of people with tertiary education (by sex, age and qualification)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were not available by age and qualification
B2.4 Inland tourists				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock tourists (by country of birth, sex and age)	Secondary data from the literature			
b) Annual flows tourists (by country of birth, sex and age)	Secondary data from the literature			
Non-core indicators				
a) Annual number of visitors for other reason (by reason of entry, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were not available by sex and age
B2.5 Irregular immigrants				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock of foreigners with irregular status (in source country) (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data source
b) Annual flows of foreigners with irregular status (in source country) (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Annual flows of the data were not available any data source

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
c) Number of foreigners working irregularly (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age) Main areas of employment of foreigners working irregularly (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
d) Number of foreigners apprehended inland (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
e) Number of foreigners refused to entry/ apprehended at border (of source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
f) Number of foreigners removed (from source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not Available	Data were not available from any data source
g) Number of foreigners victims of human trafficking /smuggling (VoT) identified (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
h) Number of foreigners voluntary returning back home (AVR) (from source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
Non-core indicators				
a) Number of foreigners overstaying their visa/ stay permit (in source country) (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not Available	Data were not available from any data source
b) Irregular immigration routes (including trafficking and smuggling) (by country of birth)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
B3. Emigrants				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data source

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
b) Annual flows (by country of destination sex, age and duration of stay)		Secondary data from the literature		Some data from the literature for the United States of America and Canada
c) As percentage of total population (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Without the total stock data, any calculation will show a very insignificant percentage of immigrants when compared to the USA or Canada general population
Non-core indicators				
a) As percentage of active population (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Without the total stock data, any calculation will show a very insignificant percentage of immigrants when compared to the USA or Canada active population
B3.1 Refugees/asylum-seekers				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock refugees (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data official source
b) Annual flows refugees (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were not computed by sex, age and duration of stay
c) Total stock asylum-seekers (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data official source.
d) Annual flows asylum-seekers (by country of birth, sex, age and duration of stay)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were not computed by sex, age and duration of stay
B3.2 Labour emigrants				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock labour emigrants (by country of destination, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment namely skilled/unskilled)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data official source

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
b) Annual flows labour emigrants (by country of destination, sex, age, duration of stay, education level, sector of economic activity, type of employment namely skilled/unskilled)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were not disaggregated by sex, age, duration of stay and educational level
c) Unemployment rate of labour emigrants abroad (by, sex, age and level of education)			Data not available	These data were not available from any data source
d) Share of labour emigrants working in informal economy abroad (by sectors and profession)			Data not available	These data were not available from any data source
e) Annual number of family reunification (migrant's family members) (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	These data were not available from any data source
Non-core indicators				
a) Employment rate abroad (by sex, age, level of education, sector namely public/private and/or primary, secondary and tertiary)			Data not available	These data were not available from any data source
b) Level of income abroad (by native/foreign-born, sex, age, level of education and region)			Data not available	These data were not available from any data source
B3.3 Students abroad (postgraduate and PhD)				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock students (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data official source
b) Annual flows students (by country of birth, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be fully disaggregated by sex and age
c) Teacher/students ratio at tertiary level (by public/private university)		literature	Data not available	The data provided by the Institute of International Education (IIE) did not indicate the names of the Universities
B3.4 Tourists outbound				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock tourists (by country of birth, sex and age)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data official source

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
b) Annual flows tourists (by country of birth, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Information was provided about the annual flow of Jamaican tourists in the USA
Non-core indicators				
a) Annual number of visitors for other reason (by reason of entry, sex and age)			Data not available	The data source did not breakdown the data by reason of entry, sex and age
B3.5 Irregular immigrants				
Core indicators				
a) Total stock of nationals (abroad) with irregular status (by country of destination, sex, age and duration of stay)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data source
b) Number of nationals working irregularly (abroad) (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
c) Main areas of employment of nationals working irregularly abroad (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
d) Number of nationals (abroad) apprehended inland (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
e) Number of nationals (abroad) refused to entry/apprehended at border (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
f) Number of nationals removed (from abroad) (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not Available	Data were not available from any data source
g) Number of nationals victims of human trafficking /smuggling (VoT) identified abroad (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
h) Number of nationals voluntary returning back home (from abroad) (AVR) (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
Non-core indicators				

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
a) Number of nationals overstaying their visa/stay permit (abroad) (by country of destination, sex and age)			Data not Available	Data were not available from any data source
b) Irregular immigration routes (including trafficking and smuggling) (by country of destination)			Data not available	Data were not available from any data source
B4. Diasporas abroad				
Core indicators				
a) Stock of persons belonging to the diasporas abroad (as defined above) (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, sex and age)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data source
b) Annual increases of persons belonging to the diasporas abroad (as defined above) (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Brief discussion provided
c) Stock of long term emigrants and descendants of long term-emigrants returned back home (by country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age)			Data not available	Current total stock was not available from any data source
d) Annual flows of long term emigrants and descendants of long term-emigrants returning back home (by country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be disaggregated by duration of absence, education, sex and age
e) Return rate (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age)			Data not available	The return rate could not be calculated since there was no information about the total stock
Non-core indicators				

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
a) Share of temporarily return migrants from total number of return migrants (by emigrants and descendants, country of destination, duration of absence, education, sex and age)			Data not available	The data source did not differ temporary return migrants from the total number of return migrants
B5. Remittances of nationals living abroad				
Core indicators				
Total amount of remittances inflows from nationals living abroad (in USD million/ annually) (by country of destination, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be disaggregated by sex and age
As % of GDP	Secondary data from the literature			
Means of transfer	Secondary data from the literature			
% distribution (by country of destination, sex and age)		Secondary data from the literature		Data could not be disaggregated by sex and age
% of family budget of households depending on remittances	Secondary data from the literature			
Uses of remittances (investment, consumption, saving...)		Secondary data from the literature		Data were provided for only one year
Non-core indicators				
Share of households depending on remittances	Secondary data from the literature			
PART C: Migration and Development				
Indicators				
Labour market		Secondary data from the literature		
Health			Relevant data not available	The data are not collected
Education		Secondary data from the literature		
Governance			Relevant data not available	
Financial security			Relevant data not available	
Agriculture	Secondary data from the literature			
Children and families	Secondary data from the literature			
Gender	Secondary data from the literature.			
Crime			Relevant data were not available	Paucity of research conducted in this field and data have not been collected

Data Required	Data available/obtained	Data partially available	Data not available	Explanation of data gap
PART D: Migration Policy Framework				
Legislation relevant to migration	All on Ministry of Justice website			
Migration related policies	All from interviews of administrators or from agency websites			
Migration related programmes	All from interviews of administrators, from agency websites or from the internet			
Jamaica's ratification of international protocols, conventions	Ratification of Human Rights protocols from internet	Ratification of migration related conventions from MFAFT	Date of ratification of migration conventions	
Responsibilities of government institutions	All from interviews of administrators			
Responsibilities of non-government institutions	All from interviews of administrators			
Involvement of international players	All from interviews of administrators, from agency websites or from the internet			

ANNEX V: STATISTICAL TABLES

Table 1: Population by age and sex, 2000–2003

Age	2000		2001		2002		2003	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0–4	140,048	135,673	138,900	133,900	131,600	127,800	126,700	122,000
5–9	147,286	143,215	149,700	145,200	148,000	144,000	145,100	143,200
10–14	139,591	136,735	139,400	136,500	140,200	137,600	141,100	139,400
15–19	126,942	126,024	126,500	125,500	126,000	125,600	125,200	125,500
20–24	105,870	111,759	105,000	110,900	107,500	112,500	111,500	116,100
25–29	99,264	107,955	99,100	107,800	96,400	105,800	94,800	104,600
30–34	93,543	102,726	94,100	103,400	97,700	104,400	98,900	106,000
35–39	86,156	95,405	87,600	97,300	89,600	97,300	91,200	97,000
40–44	74,807	77,427	76,300	79,100	78,700	83,900	81,100	87,100
45–49	55,146	56,888	55,900	57,800	59,300	60,500	61,900	62,600
50–54	48,885	46,953	49,700	47,600	52,100	49,600	54,100	50,700
55–59	38,240	36,794	38,600	37,100	39,200	38,100	40,000	39,000
60–64	31,820	33,501	31,800	33,500	33,700	33,600	34,600	33,300
65–69	28,805	30,950	28,900	31,000	28,300	30,900	28,900	31,200
70–74	24,669	27,080	24,900	27,200	24,300	27,100	24,100	27,500
Over 75	37,003	49,941	37,200	50,300	38,400	51,800	39,000	52,300
Total	1,278,075	1,319,026	1,283,600	1,324,100	1,291,000	1,330,500	1,298,200	1,337,500

Source: STATIN, 2011.

Table 2: Population by age and sex, 2004–2007

Age	2004		2005		2006		2007	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0–4	124,500	119,800	121,100	116,400	117,200	112,500	115,300	111,100
5–9	140,700	136,500	137,000	132,700	134,600	130,300	129,300	125,100
10–14	141,400	135,300	142,100	135,200	142,700	134,900	143,400	134,700
15–19	127,000	123,700	127,200	123,300	127,400	122,800	127,600	122,300
20–24	103,100	109,100	102,600	108,700	102,000	108,200	101,500	107,800
25–29	100,600	110,300	101,100	111,200	101,500	112,000	102,000	112,800
30–34	99,000	109,500	100,500	111,400	102,000	113,300	103,600	115,200
35–39	96,600	107,600	99,400	110,800	102,100	114,000	104,900	117,100
40–44	85,200	87,400	87,900	90,000	90,600	92,600	93,300	95,100
45–49	60,500	62,000	61,900	63,400	63,300	64,700	64,800	66,000
50–54	54,500	50,900	56,000	52,000	57,500	53,000	59,000	54,000
55–59	41,400	38,600	42,300	39,100	43,100	39,600	44,000	40,100
60–64	32,600	34,200	32,800	34,400	33,000	34,600	33,300	34,900
65–69	30,000	32,200	30,400	32,600	30,700	33,000	31,000	33,400
70–74	26,300	29,000	26,800	29,600	27,200	30,100	27,700	30,600
Over 75	39,100	55,500	39,700	57,100	40,300	58,700	40,900	60,300
Total	1,302,500	1,341,600	1,308,800	1,347,900	1,315,200	1,354,300	1,321,600	1,360,500

Source: STATIN, 2011.

Table 3: Population by age and sex, 2008–2010

Age	2008		2009		2010	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0–4	114,100	110,400	112,600	109,200	111,800	108,400
5–9	126,100	121,900	122,600	118,600	122,900	118,900
10–14	143,600	133,900	143,500	133,100	143,900	133,500
15–19	127,400	121,400	127,600	121,800	128,000	122,100
20–24	100,600	106,900	100,800	107,200	101,000	107,500
25–29	102,200	113,200	102,300	113,200	102,600	113,500
30–34	104,800	116,700	105,700	117,700	106,100	118,200
35–39	107,300	119,800	107,400	122,200	107,900	122,600
40–44	95,700	97,300	97,900	99,200	98,300	99,600
45–49	66,000	67,100	67,100	68,000	67,400	68,300
50–54	60,300	54,900	61,500	55,500	61,700	55,800
55–59	44,700	40,500	45,300	40,700	45,500	40,800
60–64	33,400	35,000	33,500	35,000	33,600	35,200
65–69	31,300	33,700	31,400	33,800	31,600	34,000
70–74	28,000	31,100	28,300	31,400	28,500	31,600
Over 75	41,400	61,700	41,800	62,900	41,900	63,100
Total	1,326,900	1,365,500	1,329,300	1,369,500	1,332,700	1,373,100

Source: STATIN, 2011.

Table 4: Net enrolment ratio in primary education by sex, 2000–2010

Years	Males	Females	Total	ratio male/female	Ratio female/male
2000	n.a.	n.a.	325,298	n.a.	n.a.
2001	n.a.	n.a.	334,735	n.a.	n.a.
2002	n.a.	n.a.	332,904	n.a.	n.a.
2003	n.a.	n.a.	328,362	n.a.	n.a.
2004	n.a.	n.a.	331,285	n.a.	n.a.
2005	n.a.	n.a.	326,411	n.a.	n.a.
2006	162,719	156,014	318,733	1.042977	0.958794
2007	158,168	151,853	310,021	1.041586	0.960074
2008	161,145	153,984	315,129	1.046505	0.955562
2009	157,326	150,535	307,861	1.045112	0.956835
2010	150,764	144,026	294,790	1.046783	0.955308

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

n.a. =data not available

Table 5: Net enrolment ratio in Secondary education by sex, 2000–2010

Years	Males	Females	Total	ratio male/female	Ratio female/male
2000	n.a.	n.a.	240,677	n.a.	n.a.
2001	n.a.	n.a.	243,831	n.a.	n.a.
2002	n.a.	n.a.	241,958	n.a.	n.a.
2003	n.a.	n.a.	245,124	n.a.	n.a.
2004	n.a.	n.a.	251,166	n.a.	n.a.
2005	n.a.	n.a.	251,520	n.a.	n.a.
2006	120,704	125,138	245,842	0.964567	1.036734
2007	127,558	129,627	257,185	0.984039	1.01622
2008	130,258	132,368	262,626	0.98406	1.016199
2009	134,660	132,273	266,933	1.018046	0.982274
2010	132,275	132,900	265,175	0.995297	1.004725

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010.

n.a.= data not available

Table 6: Enrolment in selected tertiary institutions by sex, 2003–2010

Years	Males	Females	Total	ratio male/female	Ratio female/male
2003	13,780	27,981	41,761	0.492477	2.030552
2004	15,524	34,852	50,376	0.445426	2.24504
2005	16,124	32,822	48,946	0.491256	2.035599
2006	22,183	39,252	61,435	0.565143	1.769463
2007	22,121	43,751	65,872	0.505611	1.977804
2008	19,177	41,962	61,139	0.457009	2.188142
2009	20,419	43,615	64,034	0.468165	2.136001
2010	21,480	47,016	68,496	0.456866	2.188827
Total	150,808	311,251	462,059		

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2004–2010

Table 7: Jamaicans employed in North America under the Overseas Employment Programme by sex and type of employment, 2000–2010

Years	US Farm programme		US Hospitality programme		Canada Farm & Factory programme		Canada Hospitality programme		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
2000	4,111	n.a.	1,542	2,633	4,874	19	n.a.	n.a.	13,179
2001	3,940	n.a.	1,637	2,805	5,436	4	n.a.	n.a.	13,822
2002	3,503	n.a.	1,759	2,725	5,272	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13,259
2003	3,865	n.a.	1,714	2,735	5,606	36	n.a.	n.a.	13,956
2004	3,643	1	1,741	2,513	5,649	22	n.a.	n.a.	13,569
2005	3,429	n.a.	1,659	2,419	5,774	39	n.a.	n.a.	13,320
2006	3,458	n.a.	2,091	3,101	5,953	43	n.a.	n.a.	14,646
2007	3,730	n.a.	1,850	2,260	6,020	51	n.a.	n.a.	13,911
2008	4,128	n.a.	729	1,006	5,927	145	17	7	11,959
2009	3,743	n.a.	156	203	5,708	158	43	114	10,125
2010	3,877	n.a.	336	586	5,770	182	98	117	10,966
	41,427	1	15,214	22,986	61,989	699	158	238	142,712

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2001–2010.

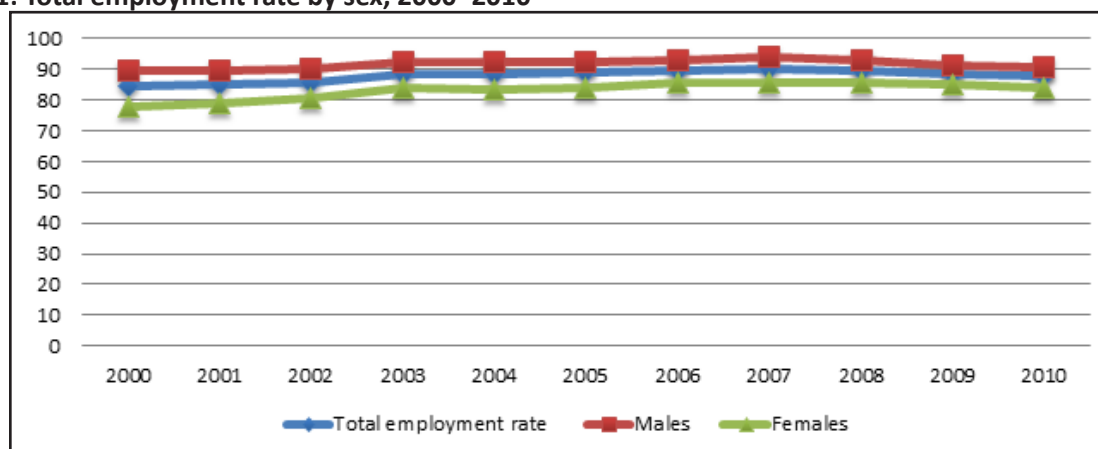
n.a. = data not available

Table 8: Unemployment rate by major demographic groups, 2001–2010

Years	14–25	Male (14–25)	Female (14–25)	25 and over	Male (25 and over)	Female (25 and over)
2001	33	24.6	44	9.6	5.9	14.2
2002	30.8	23.6	39.7	10.3	6.6	14.8
2003	29.9	23.5	39.6	6.6	4.3	9.4
2004	26.4	29.6	34.2	8.6	5.2	12.8
2005	25.5	19.0	34.1	8.2	5.2	12.0
2006	23.6	17.4	31.6	7.6	4.9	11.1
2007	23.7	17	32	7.7	3.9	10.8
2008	25.9	19.4	33.6	7.9	5.1	11.3
2009	27.1	22.5	33.2	8.9	6.3	12.1
2010	30.8	25.2	37.9	9.7	6.8	13.1

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2001–2010.

Figure 1: Total employment rate by sex, 2000–2010



Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2001–2010.

Table 9: Employment rate (%) by major demographic groups, 2001–2010

Years	Total 14–24	Male (14–24)	Female (14–24)	Total 25 and over	Male (25 and over)	Female (25 and over)
2001	67	75.4	56	90.4	93.4	85.8
2002	69.2	76.4	60.3	89.7	95.7	85.2
2003	70.1	76.5	60.4	93.4	94.8	90.6
2004	73.6	70.4	65.8	91.4	94.8	87.2
2005	74.5	81	65.9	91.8	95.1	88
2006	76.4	82.6	68.4	92.4	96.1	88.9
2007	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

Sources: PIOJ, Economic and Social Survey Jamaica (ESSJ), 2001–2010.



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