

MIGRATION GOVERNANCE IN THE CARIBBEAN

REPORT ON THE ISLAND STATES OF THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA

THE BAHAMAS

BARBADOS

DOMINICA

GRENADA

JAMAICA

SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS

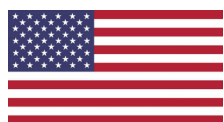
SAINT LUCIA

SAINT VINCENT AND THE

GRENADINES

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

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Bureau of Population, Refugees and Migration



Estela Aragón
Alia El-Assar
Authors

Brendan Tarnay
Project Coordinator

Sofía Cortés, Sofía Arce, Gustavo Segura
Contributors

Marcelo Pisani
IOM Regional Director for Central America, North America and the Caribbean

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) is committed to the principle that humane and orderly migration benefits migrants and society. As an intergovernmental organization, IOM acts with its partners at the national and international level to: assist in meeting the operational challenges of migration; advance understanding of migration issues; encourage social and economic development through migration; and uphold the human dignity and well-being of migrants.

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International Organization for Migration (IOM)
Regional Office for Central America, North America and the Caribbean
Sabana Business Center, Boulevard Ernesto Rohrmoser
San José
Costa Rica
Tel.: +(506) 2212-5300
E-mail: rosanjose@iom.int
Website: www.rosanjose.iom.int

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CONTENT

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	4
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	6
FOREWORD	7
ABOUT THE REPORT	9
METHODOLOGY	10
MIGRATION TRENDS IN THE CARIBBEAN	13
MIGRATION POLICIES AND ADHERENCE TO INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS	25
BORDER MANAGEMENT AND SECURITY	37
MOBILITY DIMENSIONS OF EMERGENCIES AND NATURAL DISASTERS	49
COUNTER-TRAFFICKING	59
MIGRATION AND HEALTH	71
LABOUR AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT	83
CONCLUSIONS	93
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	95
APPENDICES	94

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACS	Association of Caribbean States
APIS	Advanced Passenger Information System
BCP	Border Crossing Point
BMS	Border Management System
CARIBCAN	Caribbean-Canada Trade Agreement
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CBI	Caribbean Basin Initiative
CBN	Canadian Bank Note
CDB	Caribbean Development Bank
CCJ	Caribbean Court of Justice
CDEMA	Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency
CDM	Comprehensive Disaster Management
CELAC	Comunidad de Estados Latinoamericanos y Caribeños (Community of Latin American and Caribbean States)
CMC	Caribbean Migration Consultations
CSME	Caribbean Single Market and Economy
CT	Counter-Trafficking
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
DTM	Displacement Tracking Matrix
ECLAC	Economic Commission of Latin America and the Caribbean
EPA	Economic Partnership Agreement
EWS	Early Warning Systems
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIS	Geographic Information System
GNI	Gross National Income
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IDP	Internally Displaced Person

ILO	International Labour Organization
IMPACS	Implementation Agency for Crime and Security
IOM/OIM	International Organization for Migration
JRCC	Joint Regional Communication Centre
LACR	Latin America and Caribbean Region
MGI	Migration Governance Indicators
mhGAP	Mental Health Gap Action Program
MiGOF	Migration Governance Framework
OAS	Organization of American States
OECS	Organization of Eastern Caribbean States
PAHO	Pan American Health Organization
PRM	U.S. Department of State Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration
RCP	Regional Consultative Process
RSD	Refugee Status Determination
RTS	Regional Thematic Specialist
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SOP	Standard Operating Procedure
SAWP	Seasonal Agricultural Worker Program
TIP	Trafficking in Persons
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNSG	United Nations Secretary General
VOT	Victim of Trafficking
WHA	World Health Assembly
WHO	World Health Organization

FOREWORD

The International Organization for Migration operates under the principle that migration, when conducted in an orderly, safe and regular manner, contributes to the economic and social development of States and migrants.

As the leading organization addressing migration around the world, we work with governments and partners in the international community to tackle old and new challenges posed by migration management; promote understanding about the nature of migratory flows; encourage social and economic development through the benefits of migration; and ensure respect for the human dignity and well-being of migrants.

The region of Central America, North America and the Caribbean faces its own set of challenges to guarantee that migration from, to, and within the region is done through well-managed migration policies. In order to achieve this goal, it is important to collect and analyze information to further assist governments to develop comprehensive approaches, increase their understanding of migration trends, and to use this knowledge to make better informed decisions.

The IOM Regional Office acknowledges that Caribbean countries are currently forced to contend with several diverse issues, including economic, environmental, and migration-related. At the same time, IOM understands that great potential and opportunities lie in the Caribbean's cultural diversity and natural heritage, and that a strong commitment to regional cooperation and integration will be crucial for identifying concrete and efficient solutions to such challenges.

To this end, we are thankful for the investment made by the U.S. Department of State Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration that allowed IOM to undertake a ten-country study of the island states of the Commonwealth Caribbean to identify their migration governance infrastructure and examine it in light of the IOM Migration Governance Framework. Through this perspective, we have achieved a better understanding of the state of the countries' migration governance capacities, with the clear purpose of empowering governments in the reinforcement of their existing migration governance systems and determining ways in which IOM and other international partners can assist this endeavor.

This Regional Report takes advantage of the valuable on-the-ground research and examines these island states from a regional perspective. The collection of primary data, which serves as its foundation, facilitates the implementation of comprehensive solutions that are evidence-based, effective, and consistent with international norms. The Report will also assist IOM, governments, relevant stakeholders, and the general public to better comprehend the common challenges the region faces. Furthermore, it offers recommendations on how to address the potential challenges associated with migration, while maximizing its economic and development benefits.

In these pages you will come to know the region's unique complexities and many opportunities. We look forward to working with the Caribbean countries and the international community to realize the potential highlighted in this report and to increase the welfare of the population, whether they are permanent inhabitants or are on the move.

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of several overlapping loops and a sharp upward stroke, positioned above the name and title.

Marcelo Pisani

IOM Regional Director for Central America,
North America and the Caribbean

ABOUT THIS REPORT

The International Organization for Migration (IOM), through generous funds provided by the U.S. Department of State Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration (PRM), and with the goal of informing the Caribbean Migration Consultations,¹ developed a Needs Assessment on Migration Governance. The project aims to improve the understanding of migration-related issues in the Caribbean region, focusing on the ten independent Commonwealth Caribbean states: Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago.

The study uses the IOM Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF) to define the concept of “migration governance.” The research methodology followed a triangulation approach which entailed the collection of primary data through semi-structured interviews with over 100 government representatives, as well as the use of secondary data, particularly regional and country reports, migration statistics, and academic studies. The validation process consisted of inviting interview respondents to provide feedback on the interim research findings, which was then incorporated into the final Country Reports and the Regional Report.

The end product of the research project is comprised of individual country reports drafted for each of the ten countries of the study, and one regional report. This Regional Report is divided into thematic areas linked to key dimensions of migration governance, including migration policies and adherence to international standards; border management and security; mobility dimensions of emergencies and natural disasters; counter-trafficking; migration and health; and labour migration and human development. Project activities included designing a needs assessment survey, conducting remote and in-person interviews with government representatives, and analyzing secondary sources. The research method was designed in close cooperation with IOM Regional Thematic Specialists (RTSs) who supported the research team in the identification of priority areas and the shaping of data collection tools.

The purpose of this report is to offer a comprehensive view of the current state of migration governance in the ten independent Commonwealth Caribbean states and identify gaps and needs for future development. This report is not intended to provide an exhaustive background of migration in the Caribbean, but rather is meant to be used as an informative tool for the governments of the countries of the study, IOM, and other international stakeholders. The utilization of this data will facilitate the development projects that address real needs and enhance the state of migration governance in each respective country as well as the Caribbean region as a whole. Additionally, this report serves as a primer for the general public on migration governance in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

1. The Caribbean Migration Consultations (CMC) represent a consultative forum of more than 20 governments and 10 international organizations which exchange information and best practices on a wide range of migration issues.

METHODOLOGY

The following section gathers information about the methodological design of the needs assessment. It covers information on the study's target countries, the analytical framework and methodological approach. In addition, it gives insights on the data collection strategies and identifies the challenges and limitations of the research study.

INCLUSION CRITERIA FOR COUNTRIES

The research study includes ten countries (See Table 1. List of Countries), which were selected in response to the need to identify priority intervention points and the lack of existing information on the countries' strengths and vulnerabilities for effective policy enforcement and migration management. Other factors considered were: a) the type of migration profile (sending and receiving countries); b) geographical proximity; c) level of support to the research project and access to relevant national stakeholders; and d) the strategic priorities for IOM.²

TABLE 1. LIST OF COUNTRIES

Antigua and Barbuda
The Bahamas
Barbados
Dominica
Grenada
Jamaica
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Trinidad and Tobago

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

The assessment evaluated the countries' migration governance needs based on the tenets outlined by IOM Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF). The MiGOF, defines governance as the traditions and institutions by which authority on migration, mobility and nationality in a country is exercised. The entity retaining the sovereign right to determine who enters and stays in its territory and under what conditions is the State. Actors such as citizens, migrants, international organizations, the private sector, unions, non-governmental organizations, community organizations, religious organizations and academia, make contributions to migration governance by interacting with States and with each other (IOM, 2015).

In addition to the MiGOF, the "3Ps" Paradigm – prevention, protection, and prosecution– also serves as a fundamental framework, especially for the development of the research questions in the section regarding counter-trafficking, and other themes related to the protection migrants in vulnerable situations due to personal characteristics, circumstances or legal status (Richard, Martens, & Guajardo, 2009).

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The research study followed a triangulation approach for data sources and research methods, with the aim of increasing the knowledge of: a) current strengths and challenges in migration governance practices; and b) existing technical capacities for migration policy enforcement. Data triangulation entailed the use of several data sources such as primary sources (phone calls and face-to face

2. For example, support for IOM's agenda and willingness to contribute data and context for the regional needs assessment.

semi-structured interviews) and secondary sources (regional and country reports, migration statistics, etc.) The use of the triangulation approach improved the validity and enhanced the analysis of findings; furthermore, it captured a holistic and contextual portrayal of the countries' needs relating to the implementation of good practices in migration governance.

DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Secondary data review

A rigorous process of data collection, synthesis and analysis was developed to build a desk review of documents at both global and country levels.

Global documentation included international standards relating to human rights, IOM's global and regional reports, existing governance frameworks and indices. Country-level documents included country official documents, national surveys, migration statistics reported by international organizations, constitutional provisions, laws and regulations of each country.

IOM specialists interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected IOM specialists to collect information on their respective areas of expertise, to validate the methodology and inform the design of the needs assessment survey to ensure that all questions included were relevant.

Needs assessment survey

In order to measure the scope and depth of the need for further support on migration governance, a comprehensive expert survey was developed. The survey was created in consultation with IOM specialists to cover a list of essential themes and questions.

The questionnaires are made up of 33 indicators and 89 sub-indicators based on feedback from technical experts, key documents including the nine core human rights treaties, the United Nations Secretary-General (UNSG) eight-point agenda, various IOM documents such as the MiGOF, the *Migration Initiatives* and the *Migration Governance Indicators* (MGI) (See Appendix 2. Domains and Indicators). The survey comprises 286 questions, encompassing the 88 questions of the MGI and 198 additional questions that gathered in-depth information on the six domains of the analytical framework.

The assessment tool was piloted in Belize and subsequently distributed via email, followed by initial phone interviews with government officials. The final implementation was done through semi-structured in-person interviews with over 100 government representatives working in the areas of: immigration, national security, foreign affairs, emergency management, counter-trafficking, health, social services and labour.

DATA ANALYSIS

The survey analysis used in this study was designed in a simple way in order to attract short, concise yet clear opinions through binary questions. As such, very little preprocessing was needed. The results of the survey were compared with interview notes as well as secondary data, which were then reviewed, analyzed and structured following six dimensions:

1. Migration policies and adherence to international standards
2. Border management and security
3. Management of emergencies and natural disasters
4. Counter-trafficking
5. Migration and health
6. Labour and human development

RESPONDENT VALIDATION

The validation process consisted of inviting interview respondents to comment on the interim research findings, presented in the form of draft Country Reports. This gave them the opportunity to critically analyze the draft reports and provide feedback on the findings.

Although the number of government representatives who participated in the process was approximately 90 per cent of the total number of respondents, the process served to decrease the incidence of inaccurate data and the incorrect interpretation of data. Furthermore, the respondents' feedback assisted the researchers in improving the accuracy, reliability and transferability of the research study.

CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS OF THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT

The scope of the needs analysis was limited by the short timeframe for its completion as well as the deficit of available information. These limitations had several implications:

- Primary data collection was constrained by the need to maximize the number of days available for collecting secondary data as well as for designing and piloting the data collection tools. Specifically, the timeframe was insufficient for conducting remote interviews with key informants in each country, as this required significant advance notice for introducing the project and scheduling interviews.
- The overall lack of country-specific information represented a major challenge. This limitation illustrates the reality of many Small-Island Developing States that do not have the capacity to collect and systematize data. This was mitigated by using work that has been published by international organizations on migration within the Caribbean region, including the ten countries of the study. This data provided a better understanding of the context and regional trends; however, such reports are normally broad-based. Information was also taken from research that does not have a strong emphasis on migration governance but does make reference to other areas related to the subject. Constraints in the number of data sources and possible biases in the information were reduced by triangulating sources and research methods, whenever feasible.
- The identification of comprehensive bases for comparison was hindered by the lack of a standardized understanding and use of basic concepts. Therefore, although the evidence obtained in the research process serves to highlight needs that require attention and it cannot be generalized to any population.
- Some of the research questions could not be answered during in-personal interviews. In such cases, researchers were required to conduct follow-up phone calls and utilize secondary data source to complete the information.
- In certain cases, respondent validation was limited by the difficulty of obtaining feedback from all identified focal points in a comprehensive and timely manner.

MIGRATION TRENDS IN THE CARIBBEAN

MIGRATION TRENDS IN THE CARIBBEAN

BACKGROUND

The Caribbean³ has witnessed numerous waves of migration throughout history, the effects of which have shaped current day society in each respective country in unique manners. Waves of extra-regional migration have varied vastly in nature according to the socioeconomic and political context of the Americas during particular moments in history. The legacy of migration in the Caribbean began with European colonization in the 16th century⁴ and was subsequently followed by the forced migration of African slaves to work on plantations, which persisted for centuries until the victory of the Haitian Revolution in 1804 precipitated the abolition of the slave trade throughout the Caribbean in the following century (IOM, 2017a). In the second half of the 20th century, migration streams primarily occurred to the United Kingdom and the Netherlands by residents from their former colonies (Thomas-Hope, 2000). One such notable movement is that of the “Windrush generation,” which refers to about 500,000 residents of the United Kingdom born in Commonwealth Caribbean countries, including Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, who arrived from 1948 to 1971 to assist in reconstruction efforts following the culmination of World War II (BBC, 2018). These migration paths, largely characterized by each country’s respective colonial history, shifted in the 1960s and 1970s due to changes in immigration policies. The United Kingdom began restricting the entry of migrants from former colonies, while policies were introduced in Canada and the United States to allow for greater entry. Following this period, North America became the most popular destination for migrants from the former British colonies. This was also accompanied by increased immigration streams to the United States from the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and the U.S. territory of Puerto Rico (Thomas-Hope, 2000).

Additionally, intra-regional migration has been a persistent trend within the Caribbean, primarily exhibited in the migration of nationals from the Dominican Republic and Haiti to islands with greater employment opportunities and standards of living, such as The Bahamas and Saint Kitts and Nevis, both classified as high income countries by the World Bank (World Bank, 2018a). The mass emigration of Venezuelan nationals has also been a significant migration trend impacting the Caribbean in recent years due to the proximity of the southern Caribbean islands to Venezuela. Out of the Caribbean islands, Trinidad and Tobago has received the greatest number of asylum-seekers from Venezuela in 2018 (UNHCR, 2018a).

As the Caribbean is composed of hundreds of islands of disparate size, language, political structures and affiliations, certain countries have benefitted from greater regional integration due to shared geographical, colonial, cultural, and linguistic histories. Regional initiatives to increase the integration of the Caribbean, including the advent of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS), have strengthened cooperation and provided a platform for these islands to participate in global discussions on development. Such integrative processes have also contributed to the promotion of regular and safe migration among numerous countries in the Caribbean through increased communication and coordination on national and regional immigration policies (IOM, 2017a).

Located within the greater Caribbean is the Commonwealth Caribbean, a sub-region which usually refers to the English-speaking countries that have achieved full independence from the United Kingdom, frequently including Belize and Guyana, and occasionally overseas British territories. This study focuses on the

3. In this study, the definition of the Caribbean region is derived from the designation of geographical regions by the UN Statistic Division. Information on the classification can be found at <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/methodology/m49/>.

4. European countries which colonized territories in the Caribbean include France, the Netherlands, Spain, and the United Kingdom.

ten independent island states of the Commonwealth Caribbean. Eight of these countries belong to the Lesser Antilles: Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago. The two other countries, The Bahamas and Jamaica, are located in the Caribbean Sea, northeast of Cuba and south of Cuba, respectively. For the purposes of this report, the “Commonwealth Caribbean” refers to the ten aforementioned independent countries (See Appendix 1. Island States of the Commonwealth Caribbean).

The ten countries included in this study share a colonial history as former British colonies. They all achieved full independence from the United Kingdom in the 20th century and share English as their official language (Central Intelligence Agency, 2018). According to the World Bank, all ten Commonwealth Caribbean countries are ranked as upper-middle or high-income economies⁵ (World Bank, 2018a) (See Table 2. General Country Data).

TABLE 2 GENERAL COUNTRY DATA

COUNTRY	Population	Area (km ²)	HDI	GDP USD (billions)	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES
Antigua and Barbuda	100,963	442.6	0.786	1.532	Tourism
The Bahamas	391,232	13,880	0.792	12.162	Tourism, international banking
Barbados	284,996	430	0.795	4.797	Light industry, tourism
Dominica	73,543	751	0.726	0.562	Agriculture, tourism
Grenada	107,317	348.5	0.754	1.119	Tourism
Jamaica	2,730,900	10,945	0.730	14.768	Tourism, remittances
Saint Kitts and Nevis	54,821	261	0.765	0.945	Tourism
Saint Lucia	178,844	616	0.735	1.712	Tourism
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	109,643	389	0.722	0.789	Tourism, construction, banana production
Trinidad and Tobago	1,365,000	5,128	0.780	22.105	Energy production (oil and gas)

Sources: (Central Intelligence Agency, 2018). (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2018). (United National Development Programme, 2017), (World Bank Group, 2018).

5. According to the World Bank Atlas method used to determine income level, “upper middle-income economies are those with a GNI (Gross Net Income) per capita between \$3,896 and \$12,055; high-income economies are those with a GNI per capita of \$12,056 or more” (World Bank, 2018a). Out of the ten Commonwealth Caribbean countries, Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Trinidad and Tobago are high-income; while Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines are upper-middle income.

This section of the report will discuss the drivers of migration, and identify emerging trends of migration in the greater region with a focus on the Commonwealth Caribbean. Additionally, this section will provide a background on the process of regional integration of the Caribbean in relation to its effects on migration. This section does not intend to provide a detailed background of the history of migration in the Caribbean, rather, it aims to contextualize migration governance practices in the Commonwealth Caribbean in order to facilitate a better understanding of the specific challenges and opportunities the region is facing in migration management, as discussed in the following sections. As a direct migration corridor from South America to North America, a contextualized understanding of the policies and mechanisms in place in the region is not only essential to the security and development of the region itself, but for all states and territories within the Americas.

MIGRATION TRENDS

Specific trends have defined recent migration flows within the Caribbean. These trends include environmentally induced migration, the emigration of skilled professionals to developed countries, surges in the migration of women (often referred to as “feminization of migration”),⁶ and an increase in returns (both voluntary and forced). Additionally, the Caribbean has become a major transit point for irregular migration flows from other parts of the world, notably from South America, Asia and Africa. While there are no reliable statistics on irregular migration in the region, it is believed to occur on a large scale, possibly exceeding the level of regular migration (IOM, 2017a).

There are various factors which influence the decisions to emigrate, related to both the situation in the country of origin, as well as the real or perceived conditions in destination countries, oftentimes referred to as “push” and “pull” factors.⁷ In order to fully understand regional migration trends in the Caribbean, it is necessary to consider push and pull factors beyond economic considerations, as economic disparity between developing and developed countries is not always the primary motive for migration. Violence, a stagnant labour market, and political instability are also significant drivers of migration in the Caribbean. Additionally, natural disasters, such as the 2010 earthquake in Haiti or the 2017 hurricane season in the Caribbean, have proven to be push factors for Caribbean residents, both internally and internationally (IOM, 2017a). These factors, among many others, must be considered when discussing the motivations of migration within the region. (See Figure 1. Push and pull factors)

6. For more information on the topic of the “feminization of migration” in the Caribbean, see the joint ECLAC and IOM paper, *Women’s empowerment and migration in the Caribbean*, available from https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42491/1/S1700980_en.pdf.

7. In broad terms, push factors are often generated by the current socioeconomic context of a country and pull factors tend to be influenced by the global economy and the world market. However, push and pull factors are complex and inter-related.

FIGURE 1. PUSH AND PULL FACTORS

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Low per capita income• High unemployment• Political or economic crises• Insecurity• Lack of social security programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• High per capita income• Low unemployment• Stability• Security• Presence of social security programs

EMIGRATION OUTSIDE OF THE CARIBBEAN

According to 2012 estimates, in the past 50 years, over five million people have emigrated from the Caribbean to other regions, primarily North America (IOM, 2017a). Caribbean states face economic challenges stemming from limited natural resources, separation from global markets, and a strong dependence on tourism. Extreme vulnerabilities to natural disasters and climate change put these economies at risk. These realities have resulted in relatively high unemployment rates in the region, especially among youth. Oftentimes skills acquired by youth are not compatible with skills gaps in the national labour markets due to a lack of targeted education programs, resulting in increased unemployment and dissatisfaction among of the population with employment opportunities (World Bank, 2014).

The Caribbean has one of the highest emigration rates worldwide of skilled/tertiary-educated individuals. The majority of the Caribbean Commonwealth countries can be designated as sending countries, and Dominica, Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Grenada were among the top ten emigration

countries in the world as a percentage of their population in 2013 (World Bank, 2016a). High levels of human development in receiving countries like the United States and Canada, such as better standards of living and higher per capita income, remain pull factors for migrants. Additionally, high levels of migration in the second half of the 20th century from the Caribbean, as exhibited in the example of the “Windrush generation”, have created large diaspora communities in countries such as Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States. In the 1990s, Jamaica ranked third in the Caribbean in terms of largest stream of migrants traveling to the United States⁸ (Thomas-Hope, 2000). The presence of sizable diaspora populations abroad, as well as the perception of greater available opportunities has led to a significant flow of Caribbean migrants to these countries.

8. The Dominican Republic and Cuba ranked first and second, respectively (Thomas-Hope, 2000, p. 5).

IMMIGRATION TO AND INTRA-REGIONAL MIGRATION WITHIN THE CARIBBEAN

Although many countries in the Caribbean are sending countries, as they experience higher rates of emigration than immigration, this does not preclude the existence of in-flows of migrants into the region (See Table 3. Immigrant population per country in absolute numbers). The migration of Venezuelans into other Latin American and Caribbean countries is one of the most significant contemporary examples of large migratory movements into the region. Short distances between mainland Venezuela and neighboring Caribbean islands, such as Aruba, Bonaire, Curaçao, and Trinidad and Tobago have facilitated the maritime mobility of the population fleeing

the country. According to UNHCR data, the global number of asylum-seekers from Venezuela stands at 167,653 as of August 2018, an increase of over 50,000 from the total number of Venezuelan asylum-seekers for the entire year of 2017. Out of this global number, there are 4,847 Venezuelan asylum-seekers in Trinidad and Tobago as of July 2018 (UNHCR, 2018a). Such a large influx of asylum-seekers has posed certain challenges to small island nations which do not have comprehensive mechanisms for migrant protection or infrastructure to manage such shifts in the population.

TABLE 3. IMMIGRANT POPULATION BY COUNTRY IN ABSOLUTE NUMBERS

COUNTRY	TOTAL POPULATION	TOTAL IMMIGRANT POPULATION	FEMALE IMMIGRANT POPULATION
Antigua and Barbuda	100,963	29,000	16,066
The Bahamas	391,232	62,000	30,628
Barbados	284,996	35,000	19,285
Dominica	73,543	7,000	3,325
Grenada	107,317	7,000	3,528
Jamaica	2,730,900	13,639	6,710
Saint Kitts and Nevis	54,821	8,000	3,792
Saint Lucia	178,844	13,000	6,435
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	109,643	10,300	5,222
Trinidad and Tobago	1,365,000	50,000	25,600

Sources: (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2018). (World Bank Group, 2018). (UN DESA, 2017).

The Bahamas and Trinidad and Tobago attract a large number of migrants due to their high human development index and per capita income relative to neighboring countries (IOM, 2017a, p. 31), but according to 2017 World Bank estimates, The Bahamas is the only country included in the study with a confirmed positive net migration rate (World Bank, 2018b). In 2017, The Bahamas had the highest recorded GDP per capita among the Caribbean Commonwealth, at USD 30,762, followed by Saint Kitts and Nevis at USD 17,090⁹ (World Bank Group, 2018c).

FIGURE 2. TOTAL IMMIGRANT POPULATION AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION

Total Immigrant Population as percentage of total population	
Antigua and Barbuda	28.7%
The Bahamas	15.8%
Barbados	12.3%
Dominica	9.5%
Grenada	6.5%
Jamaica	0.49%
Saint Kitts and Nevis	14.6%
Saint Lucia	7.3%
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	9.4%
Trinidad and Tobago	3.7%

Sources: (UN DESA, 2017). (World Bank, 2018b). (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2018)

FIGURE 3. FEMALE IMMIGRANT POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION

Female Immigrant Population as percentage of total population	
Antigua and Barbuda	15.9%
The Bahamas	7.8%
Barbados	6.8%
Dominica	4.5%
Grenada	3.3%
Jamaica	0.25%
Saint Kitts and Nevis	6.9%
Saint Lucia	3.6%
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	4.8%
Trinidad and Tobago	1.9%

Sources: (UN DESA, 2017). (World Bank, 2018b). (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2018)

The Dominican Republic and Haiti have been significant sending countries intra-regionally, as there has been an influx of migrants from the Dominican Republic to eastern Caribbean States, as well as a continuous flow of Haitian migrants to The Bahamas and Dominica (IOM; ACP Observatory on Migration, 2013).

⁹ According to World Bank data in 2016 Puerto Rico had the highest GDP per capita in the Caribbean, at USD 30,833; however, there is no data available as of 2017 on Puerto Rico's GDP per capita post-Hurricane Maria.

Additionally, the occurrence of natural disasters has resulted in mass migrations within the Caribbean. Recent examples of such migration include the displacement of Haitians following the earthquake in 2010 (IOM, 2017b), as well as high rates of emigration and internal displacement following the aftermath of 2017 hurricane season (IOM, 2017c). Hurricane Irma set records as the most powerful recorded hurricane in the Atlantic; and caused the highest number of new displacements by a disaster in 2017, with more than two million people displaced (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2018). Dominica, Haiti, and Puerto Rico, among other countries and territories in the region, are still struggling with the repercussions of these natural disasters, and managing the challenges of displacement, both at the internal and intra-regional level, continues to be an issue.

While general trends can be deduced from available data at the regional level, it is important to note that trends on intra-regional migration are difficult to determine with certainty due to the lack of comprehensive data collected at the national and regional levels in the Caribbean. The lack of available information limits a better understanding of precise characteristics of migration trends, and the direct impacts that migration has on the institutional framework and the economy of each respective country.

PARTNERSHIPS AMONG STATES AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

As stated by Elizabeth Thomas-Hope in a report on migration in the Caribbean, “migration is not a passive reaction to internal ‘pushes’ and external ‘pulls’. Within this wider international and national context, migration is part of a dynamic set of negotiations at all levels” (Thomas-Hope, 2000, p. 1). The development of partnerships and agreements between states and other international actors can also shift existing migration

flows and corridors as new pathways and possibilities arise. Beginning in the 20th century following many countries’ partial or full independence, the Caribbean has been engaging in greater regional coordination, which has created a platform for many countries and allowed them to collectively negotiate trade and circular labour agreements. In this context, such partnerships and agreements become increasingly important in the discussion of migration in the Caribbean.

REGIONAL INTEGRATION

Although different regional institutions exist, the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) remains the primary organization facilitating regional integration of the Caribbean, particularly when discussing the Commonwealth Caribbean states. CARICOM was established by the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas in 1973, with the purpose of creating a cohesive, inclusive and strong Caribbean Community as a “unified and competitive force in the global arena” (CARICOM, 2018a).

CARICOM has developed various bodies and schemes to facilitate these goals, the most notable being the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME), which permits the free movement of goods, capital, and labour among Member States, including nine of the ten countries of the study. Under CSME, skilled nationals from CARICOM Member States do not need to apply for a work permit in order to work in other Member States and may apply for a Certificate of CARICOM Skills Qualification. Additionally, the CSME established the right of definite entry for six months and indefinite leave for all nationals from participating Member States, as well as portability agreements for social security benefits between states (CARICOM Single Market Economy, 2018).

In addition to CSME, CARICOM developed the Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency (CDEMA) to foster a regional response to natural disasters, and the Implementation Agency for Crime and Security (IMPACS) to address security issues in the region. Although all Commonwealth Caribbean countries are participating members of CDEMA and IMPACS, The Bahamas has not signed on to CSME and has not shown any intention to do so, as of 2018. Officials from other states have expressed that even between CSME participants, free movement is not being executed as outlined by the agreement due to smaller countries' fears of a large influx of immigrants from neighboring countries with larger populations.

Additionally, although the nine participants to CSME have signed on to the Caribbean Court of Justice (CCJ) in its original jurisdiction, only Barbados has accepted the CCJ as its final court of appeal. The reluctance to sign on to

all of CARICOM's organs and utilize its institutions demonstrates the need to both strengthen regional organizations as well as the trust in such organizations among Caribbean states.

At the sub-regional level, Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines are part of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS)¹⁰ established through the signing of the Treaty of Basseterre, in June 1981. The OECS Treaty promotes harmonization among Member States in areas concerning foreign policy, defense and security, and economic affairs. The OECS Economic Union was established in January 2011, and created a single financial and economic space within which all factors of production, including goods, services and people, move without hindrance. All Member States also share a common currency, the Eastern Caribbean Dollar (XCD) (OECS, n.d.b).

TABLE 4. PRINCIPAL TRADE AGREEMENTS

» Caribbean-Canada Trade Agreement (CARIBCAN)

CARIBCAN was established through CARICOM as an economic and trade development assistance program for Commonwealth Caribbean countries in which Canada provides duty-free access to its national market for the majority of products originating in Commonwealth Caribbean countries (Belize Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2017).

» Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA)

The EPA integrates all CARIFORUM States¹¹ and the European Community and its Member States. The EPA aims to create a free trade area (FTA) between the European Union and the African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States (ACP). It promotes trade-related developments in areas such as competition, intellectual property, public procurement, the environment and protection of personal data. The EPA Implementation Unit is based in the CARICOM Secretariat (CARICOM, 2018b).

» Caribbean Basin Initiative (CBI)

The CBI was designed to promote economic development in Caribbean Basin economies through duty-free access to the U.S. market for goods. Included countries are: Antigua and Barbuda, Aruba, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Costa Rica, Dominica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Montserrat, Netherlands Antilles, Nicaragua, Panama, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, and British Virgin Islands (Office of the United States Trade Representative, n.d.).

10. The OECS has seven full Members: Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines; and three Associate Members: the British Virgin Islands, Anguilla and Martinique (OECS, n.d.a).

11. According to the CARICOM official website, "CARIFORUM refers to the Body comprising Caribbean ACP States which are signatories of the Georgetown Agreement. This Agreement was signed in 1975, and it created the African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States (ACP). The grouping is composed of 79 African, Caribbean and Pacific states" (CARICOM, 2018c).

COOPERATION WITH INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The IOM is increasing its presence in the Caribbean, and currently has national mission offices in Belize, Cuba, Dominica, the Dominican Republic, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago. The IOM Mission in Guyana also serves as a Regional Coordination Office for the Caribbean, providing logistical and coordination support to the country offices in the Caribbean. The Regional Office based in San José, Costa Rica, provides support to IOM offices in Central America, North America and the Caribbean through the development of partnerships with governments and civil society organizations, and the provision of technical support to governments to develop programs and national migration frameworks, among other activities.

In January 2016, in a preparatory meeting for the Caribbean Regional Consultative Process (RCP) held in Belize, eight Caribbean countries and territories established The Caribbean Migration Consultations, a regional dialogue aiming to improve regional cooperation and coordination with the goal of improving migration governance in the region. The participating countries were Aruba, The Bahamas, Belize, Cayman Islands, Jamaica, Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago, and Turks and Caicos. IOM and UNHCR supported this meeting. The CMC currently serves as a forum that allows member countries to discuss migration topics in order to develop consistent and coordinated regional efforts for the effective management of migration.¹²

In addition to cooperation with IOM, many of the Commonwealth Caribbean countries are working closely with other UN agencies. In recent years, the focus of international cooperation in the Caribbean has been on disaster and emergency preparedness, response and recovery. In September 2017, Hurricane Irma and Maria overwhelmed several Caribbean islands and left a trail of destruction in Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Dominica, Puerto Rico, and Sint Maarten. Due to the severity of the situation in Dominica, the UN and its agencies, in consultation with the Government of Dominica, launched a Flash Appeal for the country in September 2017 following a Rapid Needs Assessment conducted by CDEMA to assist in recovery from the devastating effects of Hurricane Maria. This inter-agency humanitarian response was launched as part of a larger UN operation to provide a range of assistance including disaster relief, humanitarian coordination, housing, shelter and water, and included activities coordinated by UNFPA, UNICEF, UNDP, UN Women, and UN Environment, among other partners (Reliefweb, 2017).

Other areas of mutual interest have been identified by international organizations, NGOs, bilateral and multilateral cooperation agencies, namely sustainable use of natural resources, renewable energy resources, poverty reduction, education, health, fisheries management, capacity building and the advancement of women.

12. The Caribbean Platform of Migration Governance may be accessed at: <http://cpmg.iom.int/>

MIGRATION POLICIES AND ADHERENCE TO INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS

MIGRATION POLICIES AND ADHERENCE TO INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS

Since the early 1990s, the development and evolution of migration strategies among Commonwealth Caribbean countries has varied greatly, transitioning from strict policies limiting the level of integration of migrants into society, to policies prioritizing not only national security and identity, but also the protection of migrants' rights. This shift has been seen through the adoption of regional agreements on the free movement of people, which have facilitated new migration channels as well as the exchange of goods at the regional level, and the updating of legislation in accordance with international human rights standards.

According to the IOM MiGOF, migration strategies should be designed to guarantee effective implementation of policies that allow “access to regular channels for migration, mobility, long-term residency and citizenship, for all individuals regardless of gender, age or other diversity characteristics” (IOM, 2015, p. 6). Furthermore, such strategies and policies need to be in alignment with international standards, as adherence to international law is a requirement for safe and regular migration, and protection should include “combating xenophobia, racism and discrimination, ensuring adherence with the principles of equality and non-discrimination, and ensuring access to protection” (IOM, 2015, p. 6).

The following section describes the progress of Commonwealth Caribbean countries in adhering to international agreements, and the current status of their respective migration management strategies, institutional frameworks, data collection practices, residency and citizenship schemes as well as their policies to address return migration and engage with the diaspora population.

ADHERENCE TO INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS

During the post-World War II era, as Commonwealth Caribbean states gained their independence, they began to contribute to UN efforts to build an international framework for the protection of human rights by signing the core human rights instruments (OHCHR, 2017). However, none of these island states have yet ratified all the nine core international human rights treaties, and their legislations have not been adjusted to consistently reflect the core principles of these instruments. Moreover, crucial agreements such as the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* and the *Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* have not yet been ratified by Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Lucia, and Saint Kitts and Nevis.

In regard to specific international commitments for the protection and advancement of migrants' rights, one of the most important treaties related to international migration, the *International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families*, has only been ratified by Jamaica in 2008 and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines in 2010. In contrast, the key instruments pertaining to the rights of migrant workers, the *ILO Migration for Employment Convention (No.97)*, has been ratified by seven out of the ten countries included in this study. There has also been important progress in the ratification process for the central element in the international regime of refugee protection, the *Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees*, which has been ratified by seven out of the ten countries (See Table 5. Main international treaties pertaining to migration).

TABLE 5. MAIN INTERNATIONAL TREATIES PERTAINING TO MIGRATION

Legal Instruments	Antigua and Barbuda	The Bahamas	Barbados	Dominica	Grenada	Jamaica	Saint Kitts and Nevis	Saint Lucia	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Trinidad and Tobago
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families	-	-	-	-	-	2008	-	-	2010	-
Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees	1995	1993	-	1994	-	1964	2002	-	1993	2000
Convention on the Rights of the Child	1993	1991	1990	1991	1990	1991	1990	1993	1993	1991
ILO Migration for Employment Convention (No. 97)	-	1976	1967	1983	1979	1962	-	1980	-	1963
Supplementary Provisions of the ILO Migrant Workers Convention (No.143)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189)	-	-	-	-	-	2016	-	-	-	-
UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime	2002	2008	2014	2013	2004	2003	2004	2013	2010	2007
Protocol Against Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air	2010	2008	2014	2013	2004	2003	2004	-	2010	2007
Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children	2010	2008	2014	2013	2004	2003	2004	2013	2010	2007

Sources: (United Nations, 2018a), (ILO, 2018).

As for treaties pertaining to combating transnational organized crime, including the crimes of trafficking in persons and the smuggling of migrants, in the past two decades, all countries have become party members to the *UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime and the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children*, both key sources of international guidelines in these areas. The *Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air* has also been signed by most countries, with the exception of Saint Lucia.

Yet, even after becoming signatories to these international conventions and treaties, compliance with international standards for the protection of migrants' rights continues to be a highly demanding process for countries in the sub-region. Many states have considerable resource constraints and may already be struggling to meet existing commitments. Government representatives interviewed as part of this study cited such challenges as inhibiting the implementation of a human rights-based approach to policy development and to leveraging the treaty system. As such, recommendations for adherence to international standards must be tailored to the realities of each of these island states.

Identified Needs

- Strengthening of efforts to leverage the human rights treaty system
- Adjustment of national legislations to consistently reflect the core principles of human rights and migrant rights instruments

MIGRATION STRATEGIES AND POLICIES

When designing strategies to address migration governance, the majority of Commonwealth Caribbean countries rely on isolated ad hoc measures, rather than coherent and comprehensive frameworks. Only two states of the study have integrated migration into their development strategies: Jamaica, which created the *National Policy on International Migration and Development (IMDP)*; and The Bahamas, which included immigration policies in the Strategy 13.7 of the *National Development Plan*. There is a need for the remaining countries to better align their migration practices with their respective development strategies.

Existing legislation in the sub-region designed to manage migration consider irregular migration a criminal offense, and although penalties vary from country to country, offenders may be subject to a fine, imprisonment or both in most of the states. Accompanying policies and regulations, usually emphasize in regulating the movement of people across their borders and often lack provisions for the protection of migrants in vulnerable conditions.

Comprehensive migration strategies not only include policies on managing immigration, but also emigration. Governments from traditionally sending countries in the sub-region have not yet developed strategies to better manage issues linked with the high levels of emigration. This has become a prevalent issue among countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean, as most of them have small economies with limited access to international markets. As mentioned by government officials, these factors contribute to the large number of skilled nationals migrating to more developed economies, which results in significant skills gaps within the domestic labour market.

This study found that in order to address this prevalence of outward emigration, one tactic used by governments is the establishment of trade agreements with countries such as Canada, China and the United States to facilitate regular and controlled channels for migration, mostly in regard to temporary labour migration. Such agreements permit authorities to better regulate emigration, while also harnessing its social benefits.

Identified Needs

- Development of formal migration strategies consistent with national development strategies
- Improvement of migration strategies to better regulate the potential challenges associated with emigration and loss of highly skilled workers

INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK AND WHOLE-OF-GOVERNMENT APPROACH

All ten countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean have dedicated agencies to manage inward and outward migration, however they struggle with efficiently managing the movement of people across their Border Crossing Points (BCPs), due to limited resources, lack of sufficient government infrastructure, and coastal surveillance challenges inherent to island states. Government representatives and frontline officers often face the task of making decisions without having access to all relevant information. These situations may be caused by the dearth of data, but in some cases is exacerbated by the lack of formal mechanisms facilitating information-sharing and policy coherence between

different government agencies. This lack of inter-agency coordination creates incoherencies and gaps, hindering the application of a whole-of-government¹³ approach to migration governance, which would help Commonwealth Caribbean countries to address the aforementioned challenges. Additionally, according to the MiGOF, legislation and policies pertaining to “travel and temporary mobility, immigration, emigration, nationality, labour markets, economic and social development, industry, commerce, social cohesion, social services, health, education, law enforcement, foreign policy, trade and humanitarian policy” should also include provisions related to migration issues, and at the same time, migration related policies should consider their impact on other sectors (IOM, 2015, p. 3).

Identified Needs

- Implementation of a whole-of-government approach to migration that encompasses all policy areas impacting migration
- Improved institutional framework for the effective management of the movement of people across borders
- Increased human capacity for border management and to address coastal surveillance challenges

13. A whole-of-government, should include all ministries with responsibilities impacting the movement of people, such as labour, education, agriculture, commerce, industry, security, social services, health, gender, women, youth, defense, law enforcement, foreign policy, trade policy, economic development and growth, etc.

COLLECTION AND MANAGEMENT OF MIGRATION DATA

The Commonwealth Caribbean states share several capacity limitations in the systematic collection of migration data, as well as in the regular use of readily available information for better understanding migration trends and for designing evidence-based migration policies. Government officials across the ten countries have expressed that the majority of these constraints are related to the lack of technical resources, human capacity, and funding.

Most of the available migration data has been gathered by international bodies or civil society organizations. All ten countries have departments or offices dedicated to the development of statistical information, yet the only country which has collected migration data that can be systematically disaggregated is Jamaica, through the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ). Officials interviewed in this research study reported the need to address information gaps related to the circular migration of specific migrant groups, including OECS nationals, who do not require permits for entry or residence under the Freedom of Movement arrangement established by the Revised Treaty of Basseterre. Additionally, although research indicates that the irregular migrant population represents the greater part of some migration flows in the sub-region, it is not accounted for in most of the statistical data collected in-country and internationally. Generally, data on irregular migration is difficult to collect as this phenomenon occurs outside the regulatory framework and irregular migrants tend to avoid being detected (IOM, 2018a).

Such deficits in available information may be partially attributable to insufficient census data on migrants and

the difficulty of coordinating between government agencies (IOM, 2017c). Additionally, although all countries maintain administrative records on entries and exits, visas, residency permits, and work permits, they implement different data collection and management practices. According to the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, it is important to conduct data gathering in a manner that allows for the sharing of information at both the national and international levels to facilitate evidence-informed policy-making (United Nations, 2018b). The lack of consistency in data collection techniques among countries in the sub-region inhibits such processes, as well as the accurate identification of regional migration trends.

It is important to note, however, that difficulties with data collection are not limited to this sub-region, but rather is an issue prevalent in the wider Latin America and Caribbean region (LAC). All countries in the LAC collect administrative data and basic information regarding migration through their national census, but there are significant gaps in gathering updated information on the number of foreign nationals that can be disaggregated by age and country of origin (UN DESA, 2017).

Identified Needs

- Increased funds and personnel in the collection and systematization of migration data at the national level
- Development of mechanisms for sharing migration data among government agencies and between countries

RETURN MIGRATION POLICIES

There is little information on the phenomenon of return migration in the Commonwealth Caribbean despite the social and economic implications of return migration and reintegration (Revue Européenne des Migrations Internationales, 2008). In the specific case of voluntary returns, the main factors that have been identified as motives for return are the presence of strong family relationships or having to comply with family responsibilities in the home country, and dissatisfaction with the present situation in the host country (Revue Européenne des Migrations Internationales, 2008). Although none of the countries of this study have dedicated programs or initiatives to ensure the successful reintegration of these returning nationals, most countries offer incentives and have channels to facilitate the return of individuals from the diaspora.

A large portion of the returnees to these island states is comprised of individuals being forcibly returned by traditionally receiving countries. Most countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean are receiving high numbers of forcibly returned migrants, mostly from the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom. These returnees are commonly sent back to their country of origin for being convicted of crimes or due to their irregular migration status (IOM, 2017a). Government representatives interviewed as part of this study reported having little capacity to implement provisions to support the reintegration of forcibly returned persons, and in some cases, reported having challenges on accessing information on the reasons for return, which poses an important potential security risk. Jamaica is the only country of the study which has developed mechanisms for supporting returnees, as the government

currently partners with civil society organizations to provide temporary accommodation, food and medical support to forced returnees. None of the other countries reported developing formal mechanisms or programs to provide appropriate reintegration assistance to returnees and prevent repetition of criminal behavior or future irregular migration.

In the context of increased returns, Commonwealth Caribbean countries have felt greater pressure to establish policies to support both voluntarily returned and forcibly returned migrants who often struggle to reintegrate into society and may have no means of subsistence nor social network in their country of origin.

Identified Needs

- Establishment of policies and programs to support the sustainable reintegration of both voluntarily returned and forcibly returned migrants

RESIDENCY AND CITIZENSHIP PROGRAMS

Residency

The regulations for granting residency in the Caribbean differ from country to country, as do the provisions regulating the length of the permits, the possibilities for extension, and access to the labour market.

In all countries, paths to residency are not available to irregular migrants who have violated immigration laws. The different types of residency permits can be grouped into three main categories:

- **Special permits:** some countries offer the option for visitors to apply for special permits to extend their stay or to land unconditionally in the territory.
- **Temporary residency:** temporary residency permits are not available in all countries and differ in length, sometimes depending on the country of destination or on the characteristics of the applicant.
- **Permanent residency:** permanent residency permits are available in most countries, with the exception of Antigua and Barbuda and Saint Kitts and Nevis.

TABLE 6. RESIDENCY PERMITS BY COUNTRY

Antigua and Barbuda	Temporary residency (valid for three years)
The Bahamas	Temporary residency (valid for one year), Permanent residency
Barbados	Special entry, Temporary residency (valid for three years), Permanent residency
Dominica	Extension of stay, Permanent residency
Grenada	Permanent residency
Jamaica	Temporary residency (with variable validity), Unconditional landing, Permanent residency
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Temporary residency (valid for one or three years)
Saint Lucia	Permanent residency
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Temporary residency (valid for one year), Permanent residency
Trinidad and Tobago	Permanent residency

Sources: (Government of Antigua and Barbuda, 1982). (Commonwealth of The Bahamas, 1973). (Government of Barbados, 1982). (Commonwealth of Dominica, 1978). (Government of Grenada, 1976). (Government of Jamaica, 1962). (Government of Saint Christopher and Nevis, 1984). (Government of Saint Lucia, 1979). (Government of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, 1984). (Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, 1976)

Citizenship

The process of acquiring citizenship presents singularities in the context of Commonwealth Caribbean countries, as persons being born in the territory are not always guaranteed nationality, and persons being born before the date of independence frequently must go through a process of either registration or naturalization.

Although each country has different legislation and policies regulating citizenship, the paths to citizenship common to all of these states are: by birth, by descent, by registration or marriage, and by naturalization. Some particularities exist when it comes to citizenship policies. In Dominica, for example, citizenship is granted for life and cannot be revoked under any circumstances (Commonwealth of Dominica, 1978). In The Bahamas, another singular case, citizenship by descent is only granted to children born outside The Bahamas to a Bahamian father or a Bahamian single mother (Commonwealth of The Bahamas, 1973).

Another exception to this sub-region is that five of the OECS Member States, (Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, Saint Kitts and Nevis and Saint Lucia), offer citizenship by investment programs. These programs provide a channel to obtain citizenship through various forms of economic investments, including investments in property, business, government bonds or public funds. Requirements vary depending on the country, the elected scheme, and the number of applicants. For many schemes, there is no qualifying period and no residency requirement, and the cost ranges between USD 100,000 and USD 1,000,000.

The economic citizenship programs were introduced in 2007, and by 2015 had acquired a 5.1 per cent share of regional GDP. At a national level, the economic importance of citizenship by investment programs has become paramount, accounting for 14 per cent of GDP in Saint Kitts and Nevis in 2014, and 9.5 per cent in Dominica in 2016 (The Commonwealth, 2018).

Although these investment programs have contributed to rises in GDP, there have been concerns regarding citizenship schemes without a residency requirement, such as the ones in Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Dominica.

TABLE 7. CITIZENSHIP BY INVESTMENT PROGRAMS

Countries	Antigua and Barbuda	Dominica	Grenada	Saint Kitts and Nevis	Saint Lucia
Types of investments available	National Development Fund: USD 100,000 (family of four) or USD 125,000 (family of five)	Economic Diversification Fund: USD 100,000 (single applicant)	Island Transformation Fund: USD 200,000	Sugar Industry Diversification Foundation: USD 250,000	National Economic Fund: USD 100,000 Enterprise projects: USD 3.5 million
	Real estate: USD 400,000	Real estate: USD 100,000	Real estate: USD 500,000	Real estate: USD 400,000	Government bonds: USD 500,000
Global Passport Power Rank ¹⁴	23	31	27	21	26
Visa Free Score ¹⁵	132	123	128	134	132

Sources: (Government of Antigua and Barbuda, 2013). (Commonwealth of Dominica, 2016). (Government of Grenada, 2013). (Government of Saint Christopher and Nevis, 2011). (Government of Saint Lucia, n.d.). (Henley & Partners, 2018).

Identified Needs

- Strengthened screening protocols to ensure appropriate background checks of applicants to citizenship by investment programs, and to avoid possible security threats

14. The Global Passport Power Rank is a global ranking of countries according to the travel freedom for their citizens (Henley & Partners, 2018).

15. The Visa-Free Score of passports are accumulated points for each country that their holders can visit without a visa, with visa on arrival or electronic visa (Henley & Partners, 2018).

DIASPORA MANAGEMENT POLICIES

According to existing data, there is a 1:1 ratio of Caribbean citizens living in their home countries and people of Caribbean descent in diaspora communities abroad (World Bank, 2016b). All countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean, apart from The Bahamas, have significantly more emigrants than immigrants, and, in some cases, the population residing abroad outnumbers the population living in-country.

Although, there is currently a lack of comprehensive and locally collected data on the diaspora populations, efforts of international organizations have generated estimated rates and have mapped the majority of the Caribbean diaspora population in Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom. While emigrant populations are diverse in terms of demographic characteristics and destinations, a significant portion of Caribbean nationals who migrate to foreign countries are highly-skilled and well-educated individuals (World Bank, 2016b).

Currently, the only countries with dedicated units or agencies that assume the task of establishing communications with members of the diaspora and providing channels for their engagement in national development initiatives are: Dominica, through the Diaspora Unit; Jamaica, through the Diaspora and Consular Affairs Department; Saint Kitts and Nevis, through the Regional Integration and Diaspora Unit; and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, through the Regional Integration and Diaspora Unit. All other countries manage relationships with their citizens living abroad directly through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Many members of the Caribbean diaspora, including those without access to convening diaspora platforms, are considered to be relatively active in investing in their home countries, particularly in real estate. The majority of the economic support received from the diaspora is channeled toward development efforts in the forms of charity, remittance-investments to support relatives with small businesses, and other entrepreneurship investments (World Bank, 2016b).

There is a widespread need for all the islands to allocate more resources to conducting diaspora mappings in main destination countries in order to acquire updated and disaggregated data. Such projects facilitate a broader understanding of the interests of these populations and their investment capacity, as well as the development of investment opportunities tailored to target specific groups.

Identified Needs

- Development of comprehensive diaspora mappings at the national level
- Establishment of dedicated units or agencies and investment channels to promote the diaspora's engagement in their home country's development efforts
- Creation of formal platforms to facilitate communication with members of the diaspora

BORDER MANAGEMENT AND SECURITY

BORDER MANAGEMENT AND SECURITY

Changes in the world's population trends, technological advancements and production systems have resulted in the creation of new opportunities for Caribbean countries to engage in the global market. Yet, the changes brought forth by globalization have simultaneously introduced new challenges for these countries, specifically in regard to the diversification of transnational organized crime networks, as well as an increase in the trafficking of narcotics and illegal guns, and a rise in cyber-crime and corruption (IMPACS, 2013).

In order to address such national security challenges, many countries in the Caribbean have made efforts to engage in greater regional initiatives to combat transnational crime and increase border security. The CARICOM Implementing Agency for Crime and Security (IMPACS) is the primary regional agency engaging in collaborative security strategies, and centralizes the region's security management framework with the goal of developing and exercising a collective approach to addressing the main security issues of CARICOM Member States (CARICOM, 2018c).

The development of such regional security organizations is part of a greater effort to enhance capacities across countries to combat illegal cross-border activities and detect irregular migration. These security measures are also instrumental in the execution of good migration governance, which should involve mitigating security risks related to the movement of people and ensuring safe and orderly migration. In order to accomplish these goals, governments must coordinate with both national and international security agencies to gather and effectively utilize intelligence information that allows for the development of cohesive strategies to combat activities such as terrorism, trafficking in persons, and the smuggling of migrants (IOM, 2015).

This section presents the main security challenges confronting Commonwealth Caribbean countries. It also introduces the different protocols and systems currently implemented in each country for managing the movement of people across borders, including the mechanisms in place to combat the smuggling of migrants and address irregular migration, as well as large-scale population movements.

MAJOR BORDER SECURITY RISKS IN THE CARIBBEAN

Most security risks faced by Commonwealth Caribbean countries are also prevalent throughout the greater Caribbean, and are becoming increasingly abundant and complex in nature. According to IMPACS, the growing presence of transnational criminal organizations poses a major threat to security in the region. The primary activities being carried out by these crime networks operating in the Caribbean is the trafficking of drugs and guns. There have been continued efforts to collect intelligence and monitor the activities of such organizations, however, this endeavor has shown to be problematic, due to the fact that these criminal networks are constantly diversifying and expanding into more sophisticated areas, including fraud, the smuggling of contraband cigarettes, petroleum and steel, and cyber-crimes. These organizations are progressively penetrating the private and public sectors, and can easily transition their operations from one country to another by quickly adapting new trafficking routes (IMPACS, 2013).

Although efforts to combat transnational organized crime at the national level are essential, the complexity of these networks can be particularly challenging for Commonwealth Caribbean countries which have limited capacity to implement comprehensive

surveillance and border protection systems. In this regard, the development of regional agreements for facilitating cooperation among countries in order to strengthen border security has been crucial. The creation of IMPACS established a key platform for facilitating agreements on immigration, customs, police, military and intelligence practices across CARICOM Member States. Officials from all countries included in the study recognize the important role played by IMPACS in supporting the development of regional security strategies and the execution of border security initiatives.¹⁶

There is also a growing incidence of schemes used for the smuggling of migrants,¹⁷ oftentimes related to transnational organized crime networks, as well. Although officials from various countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean have not identified migrant smuggling as an area of significant concern, research shows that the crime is becoming more prevalent in the Caribbean. According to the *Global Study on Smuggling of Migrants*, while the number of Central American smuggled migrants decreased in 2016, the number of persons being smuggled from Caribbean countries increased. In 2014 and 2015, approximately 14,000 to 18,000 Caribbean migrants were smuggled into Mexico from where they were subsequently smuggled or attempted to be smuggled into the United States. This activity generates revenues estimated at USD 100 million to USD 120 million each year (UNODC, 2018).

Another important security challenge is the threat of increasing flows of irregular migration into the region, which is already raising serious concerns among authorities related to the challenges of securing all possible entry points into the island nations. Irregular migration flows in the Caribbean predominantly come from neighboring countries, and are often motivated by poverty, unstable political situations or natural

disasters (IMPACS, 2013). In order to regularize intra-regional migration movements and to develop integrated policies for migration management, CSME was created to facilitate the free movement of people, goods and services among CARICOM Member States (CARICOM, 2018c). Several government representatives, however, also mentioned that the advent of CSME resulted in additional security threats derived from the difficulties associated with monitoring circular migration and the activities of CARICOM nationals, which, under CSME, are entitled to an automatic six-month stay in other CARICOM Member States without the need of work permits, and are subject to little oversight.

While many countries have made concerted efforts to increase security and better manage migration across their borders, widespread constraints hindering the application of effective policies and practices remain present in all ten countries of the study, especially in the areas of border management, social stability, and national security. In order to effectively address these increasing challenges, countries must implement a regional approach to addressing irregular migration and combating increasing security threats.

Identified Needs

- Updated protocols and action plans implementing a regional approach to addressing irregular migration
- Development of national responses to combat transnational organized crime, trafficking in persons, and the smuggling of migrants

16. Programs currently being implemented by IMPACS focus on promoting continuous training among frontline officials, pursuing policy standardization, helping Member States to develop basic border security infrastructure, and supporting immigration authorities to effectively process travelers and cargo (Bishop, et al., Caribbean Regional Integration, 2011). Examples of strategies promoting these goals include the CARICOM Crime and Security Strategy (CCSS) and the Counter-Trafficking Strategy, which have served as models for many governments' standardized security protocols and practices.

17. The smuggling of migrants in the region is commonly associated with the crime of trafficking in persons for sexual or labour exploitation (UNODC, 2018).

BORDER MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Effective monitoring of migration and border security necessitates the implementation of comprehensive Border Management Systems (BMS) as a control mechanism for overall migration management. Currently, information management systems being implemented in the Commonwealth Caribbean combine both manual and electronic record keeping. The majority of countries have an operational BMS at the main international airport and at all principal seaports, with the exceptions of Dominica, where authorities have only been able to reestablish the BMS at the main airport after Hurricane Maria in 2017, and Saint Lucia, which currently does not have a BMS in place at any of its entry points.

The BMS in most countries are being provided by the private company Canadian Bank Note, Ltd. (CBN), apart from Jamaica, which has a nationally-maintained BMS, and Barbados, whose system is provided by DPM Systems Barbados, Ltd. According to a report published by the Migration Policy Institute, *A New Architecture for Border Management*, most states around the world have increased investments in the development of new border management systems. However, the benefits of introducing technological advancements should be weighed against its negative impacts, as many of these initiatives turn out to be unsuccessful due to serious development and implementation deficiencies. Designing responsibilities are in many cases assigned to private contractors with the technical expertise but limited knowledge on the needs of the respective countries or on the requirements for long-term system maintenance (Migration Policy Institute, 2011).

In this regard, Commonwealth Caribbean countries must be strategic in the allocation of their resources with the overall goal of having safe and sustainable systems to understand movements of people across their borders and to effectively collect and analyze this data.

Capacities of BMSs the currently available in the sub-region vary across countries. Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago represent the two countries which have been able to develop more sophisticated systems as compared to neighboring states through the incorporation of automated passport control kiosks as part of their traveler information management systems, allowing authorities to automatically check passports against several national and international watch lists (See Table 8. BMS Features). Frontline immigration officers in the sub-region have access to the Joint Regional Communication Centre (JRCC) watch list, as well as the Advanced Passenger Information System (APIS) and the INTERPOL databases, but in most countries, these databases are not integrated within the BMS; therefore, watch lists are only reviewed on an as-needed basis. Government representatives interviewed as part of this study expressed the need to create protocols for the systematic review of watch lists and for information-sharing between national security agencies and immigration departments in their respective countries.

TABLE 8. BORDER MANAGEMENT SYSTEM FEATURES

Country	BMS provider	BCPs with an operational BMS	Access to watch lists	Types of passports processed	Passport provider
Antigua and Barbuda	CBN	All principal BCPs	Yes, not automated	Machine-readable and e-Passports	CBN
The Bahamas	CBN	BCPs in New Providence, Grand Bahama, Abaco, Exuma, and Eleuthera	Yes, not automated	Machine-readable and e-Passports	CBN
Barbados	DPM Systems Barbados Ltd.	All principal BCPs	Yes, automated	Machine-readable e-Passports	Government
Dominica	CBN	Douglas Charles Airport	Yes, not automated	Machine-readable	
Grenada	CBN	All principal BCPs	Yes, not automated	Machine-Readable	CBN
Jamaica	Locally maintained	All principal BCPs	Yes, automated	Machine-Readable	Government
Saint Kitts and Nevis	CBN	Four BCPs: Two principal airports and two seaports	Yes, not automated	Machine-Readable and e-Passports	CBN
Saint Lucia	No operational BMS	No operational BMS	Yes, not automated	Machine-Readable	CBN
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	CBN	BCPs located in Saint Vincent	Yes, not automated	Machine-Readable and e-Passports	CBN
Trinidad and Tobago	CBN	All principal BCPs	Yes, automated	Machine-Readable	CBN

Source: Government representatives.

Additionally, most countries in the sub-region do not have built-in technology which allows for the automatic identification of fraudulent travel documents, and therefore the identification of fraud and impostors primarily relies on the training of frontline immigration officers. The two exceptions are Antigua and Barbuda, which has acquired scanners with a built-in infrared light that allows for the identification of fraudulent documents, and Jamaica, which has integrated a facial recognition software in the Passport Issuance System to assist in detection of fraudulent documents and impostors. As part of the coordinated actions among countries for the identification of persons of interest,¹⁸ the implementation of a regional approach to deal with these threats has proven successful, as it has been used to develop databases that allow the identification of individuals wanted for fraud, financing terrorism, and suspicion of involvement in transnational organized crime networks (IMPACS, 2010).

Identified Needs

- Implementation of Border Management System across all principal Border Crossing Points
- Increased investment in infrastructure and equipment needed for traveler processing and fraudulent document identification
- Strengthening of BMS to allow for the integration of international and national watch lists as well as the automatic flagging of visa overstays
- Improved inter-agency mechanisms for sharing locally collected data to facilitate the identification of possible threats

TRAVELER IDENTIFICATION AND VISA POLICIES

All ten countries with the exception of Saint Lucia are able to process machine-readable passports at the main airports, but only Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines are able to read e-Passports. Passports in most of the islands are provided by CBN, with the exception of Barbados and Jamaica,¹⁹ which produce their own passports in-country. On average, passports are issued in three weeks, and most countries offer expedited services through which passports can be issued in periods that range between a few hours to a maximum of five days. All countries offer options for nationals to request passports through consular offices abroad and receive them via courier, as passports are only processed in-country. In the particular case of OECS Member States, OECS citizens are allowed to travel to other OECS Member States using only a valid national photo identification.

Policies regarding visa issuance and entry requirements for foreign nationals vary from country to country. As previously mentioned, all CARICOM nationals are automatically granted a six month stay in other CARICOM Member State, with the exception of The Bahamas, which is not a participant in CSME. In various countries, citizens from other Commonwealth nations outside of CARICOM also have less stringent entry requirements, and are granted a three month stay. In most countries, foreign nationals who require an entry visa can apply for it on arrival, and the cost usually ranges from USD 37 to USD 100.

18. According to the Legal Dictionary, "A person of interest is someone the police are 'interested' in during the proceedings of a criminal investigation." (Legal Dictionary, n.d.)
19. For Jamaica, however, CBN provides the blank passport books.

IRREGULAR MIGRATION AND DETENTION OF MIGRANTS

While the Caribbean islands have historically served as a mixed migration route, as well as an important transit point and destination for refugees and irregular migrants (IOM, 2017a), detailed information regarding migrant detention policies and management practices in each country is scarce.

Several countries currently detain migrants in regular police stations, and the only countries with dedicated detention facilities for migrants are Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago.²⁰ The permissible period of detention varies according to each countries' legislation, but, the duration of detention is generally dependent on the time required for authorities to conduct investigations and verify migrants' identities, or to await court decisions regarding possible sentencing or forced return to their country of origin.

In the specific case of the detention of minors, the ages of criminal responsibility also vary across countries, but laws in most countries, with the exception of Antigua and Barbuda, allow for the detention of individuals under 18 years of age. In practice, however, countries such as The Bahamas, Dominica, and Saint Kitts and Nevis, generally refer offenders who are minors to safe houses or to the government agency responsible for social services for alternative accommodations.

Government representatives in all countries highlighted the fact that detention facilities are operated in compliance with international human rights standards, and that men, women and children are always kept in separate facilities. However, in 2014, the International Human Rights Clinic of Loyola Law School of Los Angeles (IHRC-LLS) systematized publicly available data

on the detention policies and practices of 16 Commonwealth sovereign nations, including the ten countries of this study. Preliminary findings identified significant areas of non-compliance with international standards for the protection of the rights of migrant detainees. Additionally, there are very few civil society organizations devoted to migration detention matters, and several governments have not updated their migration laws since the 1940s or are lacking the regulatory frameworks to ensure the protection of detained migrants' rights. These issues, if not rectified, can easily result in the inappropriate use of discretion from immigration officers, enabling the arbitrary detention of migrants (International Detention Coalition, 2015).

Identified Needs

- Development of alternatives to migrant detention and/or a dedicated detention center for migrants in compliance with international standards.
- Adherence to international standards related to migrant detention
- Strengthening of mechanisms to ensure the protection of detained migrants' rights

20. Jamaica does not have a dedicated stand-alone center, but does have dedicated wing within a regular detention center.

SMUGGLING OF MIGRANTS

The prevalence of irregular migration in the Caribbean is also related to the presence of migrant smuggling networks.²¹ Irregularly crossing a border with the help of a paid smuggler is a crime against the state and is not the cause of irregular migration, but rather, a consequence of various push and pull factors.

Irregular migration and the smuggling of migrants has negative security implications for both recipient countries as well as migrants, as smuggled persons frequently face an increased risk of being trafficked, in addition to potential violations of their rights, which can present a real threat to their lives (IOM, 2018b).

Data on this phenomenon in the particular countries of this study is scarce and there is limited research available for the wider Caribbean region. But the available data shows that smuggling in the Caribbean is increasing, and that most smuggled migrants are being taken to Mexico and the United States (UNODC, 2018). The methods for transportation can be diverse, including boats and planes, and in many occasions, people are smuggled into transit countries, and remain there until they can earn the money necessary to travel to their destination country. Additionally, smugglers regularly change routes and, therefore, are difficult to monitor. Within the sub-region of the Commonwealth Caribbean, the only

countries which have been identified as destination countries for smuggled migrants are The Bahamas, Barbados, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, and Trinidad and Tobago (IOM, 2018b).

The implementation of comprehensive laws and policy frameworks represents a basic measure for effectively combating the smuggling of migrants. Although all governments of the study, with the exception of Saint Lucia, have ratified the *Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air*, the only countries with dedicated laws for migrant smuggling are Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, and Saint Kitts and Nevis. All other countries criminalize the smuggling of migrants in legislation that encompasses other criminal activities related to migration, such as the immigration acts, but without comprehensively capturing this activity (See Table 9. Legislation for the Smuggling of Migrants). Additionally, Antigua and Barbuda is the only country which has conducted two investigations, but has not yet done any prosecutions nor convictions.

21. A smuggled person is "a migrant who is enabled, through providing financial benefit to another person, to gain illegal entry into a state of which he or she is not a national or permanent resident" (IOM, 2011).

TABLE 9. LEGISLATION FOR THE SMUGGLING OF MIGRANTS

Antigua and Barbuda	Migrant Smuggling (Prevention) Act, No.11 of 2010
The Bahamas	Immigration Act, Chapter 191, Section 47 (criminalizes the act of smuggling)
Barbados	Immigration Act, Cap 190, Section 12 (general provision for master of a vessel)
Dominica	Transnational Organized Crime (Prevention and Control) Act (criminalizes the act of smuggling)
Grenada	Immigration Act, Chapter 145, Section 36 (criminalizes the act of smuggling)
Jamaica	Aliens Act, Section 20 (criminalizes the act of smuggling)
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Migrant Smuggling (Prevention) Act of 2010
Saint Lucia	Not an offense
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Immigration (Restriction) Amendment Act, No.16 of 2017, Section 26B (criminalizes the act of smuggling)
Trinidad and Tobago	Not an offence

Sources: (Government of Antigua and Barbuda, 2010). (Commonwealth of The Bahamas, 1967). (Government of Barbados, 1979). (Commonwealth of Dominica, 2013). (Government of Grenada, 1969). (Government of Jamaica, 1946). (Government of Saint Christopher and Nevis, 2010). (Government of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, 2017).

In order to develop better mechanisms to combat migrant smuggling, the crime should be addressed in a dedicated law which encompasses a clear definition of the offense, and penalties targeting the smuggler and organized networks, rather than the smuggled migrant (IOM, 2018b). Furthermore, additional resources should be allocated to the development of dedicated units for the investigation and prosecution of such crimes.

Identified Needs

- Strengthening/development of legislation allowing the penalization of the migrant smuggling
- Development of dedicated units or taskforces to the investigation of smuggling of migrants

MANAGEMENT OF LARGE-SCALE POPULATION MOVEMENTS

Migration authorities in countries in Latin America and the Caribbean have consistently faced serious difficulties when responding to large flows of migrants, particularly due to the lack of preventive measures in place at the national and local levels (OAS; IOM, 2016). According to information provided by government officials, nine out of the ten countries of the study currently do not have protocols in place to respond to a migration crisis outside of the emergency management plans, which in most cases do not include provisions for addressing the displacement impacts of crises or responding to specific needs of migrants. The only exception to this is Jamaica, which addresses the issue of displacement in Goals Four and Five of the *National Population Policy*, which is currently under revision.

In most countries, emergency management plans establish emergency committees and outline specific tasks for their members; however, the only countries which explicitly include representatives from their respective immigration departments in these committees are Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Dominica and Jamaica. In these plans, immigration authorities are frequently responsible for organizing the prompt evacuation of all visitors and preparing arrangements for relief aircraft and ships, including customs and immigration clearance for humanitarian aid supplies and personnel.

However, there is still a prevalent need in most countries to strengthen mechanisms and protocols for the management of a border crisis, and to effectively

coordinate with immigration authorities to track displaced populations and protect and assist migrants escaping a crisis in a safe and orderly manner. The impact of Hurricane Maria in Dominica in 2017 exemplified the challenge of tracking all displaced persons and those fleeing the country, and the need for neighboring countries to have protocols in place to receive and assist migrants, while maintaining the capability to enforce the immigration law.

All of these small island nations are potentially at risk of being negatively impacted by any change in the status quo with regard to migration flows, including the increasingly restrictive immigration regulations of traditional receiving countries. In this context, states must continue to reinforce their local capacity while simultaneously considering the trans-border nature of these threats. Regional efforts should also be strengthened to mitigate security risks and greater resources should be allocated to developing measures and protocols to respond to these evolving challenges.

Identified Needs

- Creation of dedicated funds and protocols to manage large-scale population movements
- Strengthening of mechanisms to track and assist displaced populations
- Improved procedures and protocols for inter-agency coordination in the events of a border crisis

ASYLUM AND REFUGEE POLICIES

All countries who are party members of the *1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees* are responsible for conducting Refugee Status Determinations (RSD). In order to facilitate this process, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) assists several countries in establishing fair and efficient procedures of RSD by providing training, attending hearings, registering asylum-seekers, and supporting in writing asylum laws (UNHCR, 2005).

In the Commonwealth Caribbean, the only countries which have not yet ratified the 1951 Convention are Barbados, Grenada, and Saint Lucia. Although the remainder of the ten countries have ratified the convention, the only countries who have established an RSD process are The Bahamas, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago. These countries also receive the support of UNHCR in conducting interviews or reviewing applications. For states in which there are no national procedures in place, where procedures prove to be deficient in detecting protection needs, or where the government has limited the implementation of the 1951 Convention, UNHCR is obliged to carry out RSD under its mandate (UNHCR, 2005).

Although there are still many challenges to be addressed in terms of establishing refugee protection measures in the sub-region, many countries are increasing their efforts to better adhere to international standards for protecting refugees. For example, during the Second Meeting of the Caribbean Migration Consultations (CMC) on Refugee Protection, participating governments recognized the importance of establishing procedures for RSD and protection, and reported on their progress towards adopting policies and Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) on such protection measures. CARICOM has also highlighted the limited capacity of the Member States to effectively conduct interviews and gather information on applicants, given small size of the island nations, the lack of resources, and the disproportionate impact of natural disasters and massive migration movements in the islands. Recognizing such challenges, UNHCR has committed to facilitating different forms of assistance and development in order to help states with addressing these gaps (IOM, 2017c).

TABLE 10. PERSONS OF CONCERN²²

Country	Persons of concern
The Bahamas	29
Jamaica	24
Trinidad and Tobago	2,286

Source: (UNHCR, 2018b)

Identified Needs

- Adherence to international standards related to the protection of refugees and asylum-seekers.
- Development of mechanisms for conducting RSD at the national level.

22. Persons-of-concern include: refugees, internally displaced persons (IDPs), returned refugees, returned IDPs, asylum-seekers, stateless persons and others-of-concern (UNHCR, 2018).

MOBILITY
DIMENSIONS OF
EMERGENCIES
AND NATURAL
DISASTERS

MOBILITY DIMENSIONS OF EMERGENCIES AND NATURAL DISASTERS

The Caribbean has been historically recognized as the second region in the world most prone to a wide range of natural hazards, including hurricanes, floods, landslides and occasional volcanic eruptions. However, the intensity in which these events are being experienced has increased in the past decade, exacerbating the need to reinforce regional and national capacities to mitigate, respond to and manage disasters (Kirton, 2013). Small island-states in the sub-region of the Commonwealth Caribbean are particularly susceptible to these events, due to common factors such as their small and tourism-dependent economies, their topography, their geographic and tectonic locations, as well as their relative lack of comprehensive land-use and environmental protection regulations (UNDP, 2011).

As a response to such challenges, countries included in this study, have engaged in regional initiatives to develop and maintain an institutional framework as well as the capacity for advancing disaster preparedness and mitigation. The Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency (CDEMA), established in 1991, is CARICOM's inter-governmental agency with the responsibility to work as "facilitator, driver, coordinator and motivating force for the promotion and engineering of Comprehensive Disaster Management (CDM) in all Participating States" (CDEMA, n.d.). At both the national and regional levels, CDM should incorporate the mobility dimensions of emergencies and natural disasters, due to the fact that in times of crisis, migrants, including those residing, working, studying in, visiting or transiting through the country, can be disproportionately affected. Factors such as "language barriers, restrictions on mobility, irregular immigration status, confiscated or lost identity or travel documents, limited social networks, isolation, and attacks and discrimination" are significant impediments to migrants' access to shelter and assistance (IOM, 2016, p. 12).

This section summarizes the main hazards threatening Commonwealth Caribbean countries, providing an assessment of the roles of primary disaster management institutions as well as of needs in terms of policy and strategy development at the national level. It also highlights several gaps and challenges related to addressing the displacement impacts of disasters and responding to migrants' needs during emergencies.

MAJOR HAZARDS IN THE SUB-REGION OF THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

Recent natural disasters in the Commonwealth Caribbean have caused significant loss of life as well as billions of dollars in damages to the economy and infrastructure of affected countries. The hurricane season of 2004, for example, was one of most destructive hurricane seasons ever recorded. Hurricane Ivan, which made landfall in September 2004, caused losses estimated at USD 360 million in Jamaica and USD 1.1 billion in Grenada (UNDP 2011). In 2010, Hurricane Tomas resulted in 44 casualties and caused damages of USD 336.15 million in Saint Lucia, USD 8.5 million in Barbados, and USD 3.3 million in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (NOAA, 2013). More recently, in 2017, Hurricanes Harvey, Maria and Irma caused severe losses in the Lesser Antilles. The passing of Hurricane Maria through Dominica resulted in the tragic loss of 26 lives and widespread devastation. Damages were estimated at USD 930 million, approximately 176 per cent of Dominica's 2016 GDP. According to the Global Report on Internal Displacement 2018, Hurricane Irma was the major natural disaster of 2017 worldwide, displacing approximately two million people in only two weeks (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2018).

A hazard normally associated with the hurricane season and the most frequent natural disaster in the sub-region, is flooding, which often causes severe negative consequences for infrastructure and the agricultural sector. The flooding caused by the Tropical Storm Nicole in 2010, for example, seriously impacted infrastructure in Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (Kirton, 2013).

Another important hazard experienced by all countries of this study are droughts. The greatest impact of droughts is commonly seen in the agricultural sector, including significant declines in crop production and negative impacts in food security. In the past decades, droughts in the Caribbean region, including Commonwealth Caribbean countries, have been experienced during years of “El Niño” events,²³ leading experts to believe that there is a correlation (Food and Agriculture Organization, 2016).

The impacts of the aforementioned hazards are aggravated by shared inherent characteristics of the Commonwealth Caribbean countries, such as their heavy dependence on tourism and agriculture. Furthermore, according to available data, climate change is expected to entail stronger variations between droughts and strong rains and will likely exacerbate the vulnerability of these countries, as slow onset factors, such as sea level rise and desertification take a toll on local economies and livelihoods. While the global frequency of tropical cyclones may decrease or remain the same, an increase is expected in their average maximum wind speed and sea level rise is likely to compound cyclone surge impacts (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2012). Although many countries have made real progress towards taking collective action on disaster management, there is still a

pressing need to enhance these efforts in order to develop more comprehensive mechanisms to mitigate and manage the consequences of environmental hazards.

INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY, POLICIES, AND STRATEGIES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF EMERGENCIES AND NATURAL DISASTERS

All ten countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean included in this study have national plans in place for the management of emergencies and natural disasters, as well as dedicated agencies in charge of implementing these action plans (See Table 11. National disaster agencies in the Caribbean). Most of these agencies are comprised of governmental and non-governmental agencies, statutory bodies, committees, and sub-committees. Occasionally, emergency plans explicitly assign responsibilities for members from the immigration departments as part of the emergency committees, however, in most cases the protocol for coordinating with immigration authorities during a disaster is not formally documented and happens on an ad hoc basis. The only countries which clearly assign responsibilities to members of their respective immigration departments in situations of emergency are: The Bahamas, Jamaica, and Saint Lucia. The development of clear coordination protocols with immigration authorities as well as the distribution of responsibilities pertaining to the movement of people across borders during a crisis, has been identified as a major gap to be addressed in order to ensure the safe movement of travelers, and the implementation of appropriate mechanisms to conduct evacuations and to track and support displaced persons.

23. The term “El Niño”, makes reference to a “large-scale ocean-atmosphere climate phenomenon linked to a periodic warming in sea-surface temperatures across the central and east-central equatorial Pacific” it is considered the warm phase of the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) cycle (Climate Prediction Center, 2005).

TABLE 11. NATIONAL DISASTER AGENCIES IN THE CARIBBEAN

Antigua and Barbuda	National Office of Disaster Services (NODS)
The Bahamas	National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA)
Barbados	Department of Emergency Management (DEM)
Dominica	Office of Disaster Management (ODM)
Grenada	National Disaster Management Agency (NDMA)
Jamaica	Office of Disaster Preparedness and Emergency Management (ODPEM)
Saint Kitts and Nevis	National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA)
Saint Lucia	National Emergency Management Organization (NEMO)
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	National Emergency Management Organization (NEMO)
Trinidad and Tobago	Office of Disaster Preparedness and Management (ODPM)

Source: Government Representatives.

Available protocols and emergency management plans in the sub-region usually focus on outlining disaster response measures as well as assistance provisions. At different capacities, all countries have dedicated budgets to finance such activities.

Additionally, all countries have dedicated laws and policies for the management of emergencies which tend to include emergency management laws, planning and land-use regulations as well as climate change adaptation policies. Not all countries have the same types of legislations, nor the same level of sophistication within these laws, however, most states could benefit from strengthening the existing planning and land-use regulations, a need expressed by several interviewed officials as a starting point for relocating populations in situations of vulnerability and building more resilient communities. The countries of the sub-region also vary in their implementation of such policies, as many have partial regulation mechanisms in this area. Barbados has the most advanced system in place; while, Saint Lucia and Trinidad and Tobago effectively do not have land-use plans (USAID, 2013).

Another existing gap within the regulatory systems for the effective management of emergencies, is related to the available policies to regulate evacuation procedures. Although most countries have SOPs in place for the management of evacuations and shelters, officials in most countries expressed that they could benefit from strengthening their mechanisms to track evacuees and displaced persons. In the particular case of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, there is also a pressing need to develop legislation allowing mandatory evacuations from vulnerable areas, as currently, authorities can only warn vulnerable populations but cannot force them to leave high risk areas during emergencies.

In addition to the effective implementation of policies, aspects of institutional capacity for emergency and disaster management also include the ability to coordinate effectively with local governments. In this respect, several countries, including Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, have made progress through establishing community disaster committees to promote inter-sectoral collaboration. Still, most countries need to enhance their formal mechanisms to clearly outline coordination channels and procedures in order to reduce the incidence of arbitrary decision-making. There is also a widespread need to build policy frameworks and action plans that are aligned with international standards, and to promote a comprehensive approach to the management of crises and natural disasters.

In regard to the collection, analysis and use of data, which should be the foundation for well-informed policy-making, all countries have shown significant progress in the development of more targeted data collection initiatives. At the current time, all countries utilize Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to collect information and develop data visualization products, such as the digital maps (CDERA, 2003). Additionally, information regarding vulnerable regions and high-risk communities has been collected by all ten countries, but in most cases this information does not encompass all hazards and regions in a comprehensive manner. The only countries which have had the capacity to conduct comprehensive multi-hazard risk and vulnerability assessments are Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Trinidad and Tobago. Although there is an increasing amount of information being collected in-country and by international organizations, ensuring that this data is accessible and well-utilized is still a remaining challenge. For example, access to the Caribbean DEWETRA Platform, a spatio-temporal data diffusion

platform used to disseminate hazard and vulnerability information, is available in all countries; yet, most have not taken advantage of this resource as they require further training on the use of the Platform (Caribbean Institute for Meteorology and Hydrology, 2018).

Identified Needs

- Increased institutional capacity for emergency and disaster management, including building capacity for more effective cooperation with immigration authorities and local governments
- Strengthening of legislation and policies, particularly in relation to land-use regulations and evacuation procedures
- Improved training and data collection mechanisms to facilitate the execution of comprehensive multi-hazard risk and vulnerability assessments and better utilization of existing information

RESPONSES TO THE MOBILITY DIMENSIONS OF CRISES

Today, emergencies and natural disasters are a growing threat to the Caribbean region as a whole (USAID, 2018). In this context, the consideration of the human mobility dimension of emergencies has become extremely important, as these events can result in large-scale migration and displacement flows and cause serious migration management challenges (IOM, 2012). The crisis in Dominica after Hurricane Maria represents one of the most recent examples of the importance of accounting for the migration aspects of disaster events, as its effects on mobility patterns were made evident through the immediate need to track displaced persons, and the subsequent need to recruit foreign labor to assist with reconstruction efforts; however, the long-term effects of this crisis, have not yet been determined with certainty (IOM, 2017c). The situation in Antigua and Barbuda after Hurricane Irma also illustrates the need to consider mobility dimensions of crises, as authorities had to declare the mandatory evacuation of Barbuda and transport its entire population to the island of Antigua. The residual effects of the hurricane and mass displacement of the Barbudan population continue to be felt in both islands (UNFPA, 2017).

Although, as previously mentioned, Commonwealth Caribbean countries have dedicated plans and strategies for the management of emergencies, the migration dimensions of a crisis are systematically overlooked in the great majority of the available response mechanisms. Government representatives who participated in this study reported that, in all cases, humanitarian assistance is never denied, regardless of the migration status of those in need of help. Most countries provide support to foreign citizens residing in or visiting the affected country, oftentimes through the Ministry of Tourism or the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, to reach their respective

consulates, replace lost traveling documents, or secure the means to leave the country. However, there are very few actions being taken towards improving the access of migrants to emergency preparedness, relief and protection. In this regard, most Early Warning Systems (EWS), with the exceptions of Jamaica and The Bahamas, disseminate information exclusively in English, and access to interpretation services, is usually reliant on the language capacities of staff and is provided on an ad hoc basis. Additionally, factors such as the fear of discrimination or of being forcibly returned due to irregular status are factors which may also influence migrants' access to assistance. Authorities also emphasized the challenges posed by such factors as in several countries although there are no official restrictions prohibiting irregular migrants' access to shelter and humanitarian aid, in many cases they prefer not to seek help.

During the Second Meeting of the CMC on Refugee Protection, hosted in The Bahamas in 2017, governments in the Caribbean discussed the region's vulnerability to large-scale migration movements as a consequence of issues like climate change and natural disasters. During the meeting, representatives from various countries also expressed concerns regarding situations of economic and political unrest in neighboring countries, which have also resulted in mass migration movements. Historically, this has been the case for Haiti in several occasions, but more recently the focus has shifted to the growing migratory influx of Venezuelans to the sub-region. As estimates of the Venezuelan diaspora range from 1.6 million to 4 million people as of 2018, it is difficult to accurately estimate the number of forced migrants who have traveled to the Caribbean (London School of Economics, 2018). Trinidad and Tobago has been the

most affected among the ten countries included in this study, and has received over 4,847 applications for asylum from Venezuelans as of July 2018 (UNHCR, 2018a). In order to address these and other situations of displacement and to meet the differing needs of affected populations, Caribbean countries are frequently having to expand and adapt their protection laws and mechanisms. Still, the only two official documents existing in the sub-region which explicitly address displacement are: the *National Disaster Plan in Jamaica*, and the *Draft Resettlement Policy Framework* in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

In this complexity context, concerted action by all governments in the sub-region is required to improve collaborative crises mitigation efforts, as well as in providing assistance to all migrants, displaced persons and affected groups. Government actions addressing these challenges should follow best practices in accordance with humanitarian principles, and should encourage durable solutions to prevent forced migration. Furthermore, both governments and the international community should recognize that migration is an expected result of a crisis, and that recovery efforts require the consideration of the specific needs of migrant and displaced populations (IOM, 2015).²⁴

Identified Needs

- Strengthening and expansion of emergency management plans to address the displacement impacts of crises
- Enhanced EWS and communication mechanisms to make them language inclusive and accessible to migrants
- Improved training and data collection mechanisms to facilitate the execution of comprehensive multi-hazard risk and vulnerability assessments and better utilization of existing information
- Better policy alignment with international standards related to the protection of migrants' rights during emergencies

24. A migration crisis approach would be useful in this regard, as a mechanism to identify and respond to migrant-specific vulnerabilities (IOM, 2012).

CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION

Scientific research demonstrates that the highest intensity points of tropical storms increases as temperatures rise, and the time needed to achieve these peak points decreases. Evidence of this was exhibited in the hurricane season of 2017, which had a higher frequency of more intense hurricanes (UNDP, 2017).

Although countries in the Caribbean have different vulnerabilities and experience impacts differently, projections indicate that annual temperatures in the Caribbean will increase by between 1°C and 5°C by the year 2080 (Centella, 2010). Among the countries included in this study, the smaller island states are the most vulnerable to rises in sea level and salt water intrusion, but all ten countries are expected to continue being affected by hurricanes and tropical storms. In the entire sub-region of the eastern and southern Caribbean, cold weather events are anticipated to decrease significantly by 2060, while the intensity of tropical storms will grow. Moreover, changes in precipitation are projected to vary throughout the region, but the frequency of category 4 and 5 hurricanes is expected to increase by 25 to 30 per cent (USAID, 2018).

Climate risk management is an important dimension of Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) measures that countries are trying to incorporate into their development strategies. To date, all countries have at a minimum outlined measures for climate change adaptation, and several countries, like Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, and Trinidad and Tobago, have developed specific strategies or policies for Climate Change Adaptation. Other countries such as The Bahamas, Grenada, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, have opted for incorporating Climate Change Adaptation into their national development plans.

In this context, the need to build resilience and improve the national capacities for DRR in the Commonwealth Caribbean has been identified as one of the major priorities for both governments and the international community (See Figure 4. Priority areas for DRR). As of today, Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago, have been able to draft Country Documents for Disaster Risk Reduction, with the support of international organizations. These documents present a comprehensive overview of the DRR status of these island states, as well as guidelines for policy design, strategic planning, and decision-making. Still, there is a need to prioritize the development of provisions to address both internal and external displacement within these DRR initiatives. In some documents, such as *Barbados' Country Document for Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) of 2014*, displaced persons are considered to be one of the most at-risk populations; however, further attention needs to be placed on tackling the fundamental drivers of displacement.

FIGURE 4. PRIORITY AREAS FOR DRR



Source: (UNISDR, 2016).

While the particular DRR reduction strategies vary based on the capacity and specific needs of each country, all of them are focusing actions in the priority areas of: EWS, community resilience, capacity building, training and public awareness, institutional strengthening, and private-public partnerships (UNISDR, 2016).

Governments, as well as international and regional organizations, are recognizing that prompt actions are required to develop effective conceptual and practical frameworks for managing the risks and mitigating the impacts of climate change in Small Island Developing States. In order to effectively address these challenges, focus should be directed towards building resilience and coordinating integrated responses involving all key actors.

Identified Needs

- Improved analysis on displacement risks due to or exacerbated by climate change in the sub-region
- Increased focus into tackling the fundamental drivers of displacement as part of the DRR strategies

COUNTER- TRAFFICKING

COUNTER-TRAFFICKING

Trafficking in Persons (TIP) is a modern-day form of slavery and a global phenomenon affecting all countries. As a diverse region of transit, and oftentimes a migration corridor to the United States and Canada, the Caribbean fights against networks of human trafficking and other forms of organized crime, posing a threat to the national security of Caribbean nations and territories, as well as other countries in the Americas (IOM, 2008). Studies have shown that recruitment is frequently executed through employment advertisements in newspapers and on internet sites for positions such as cashiers, waitresses, domestic workers, and manual labourers, among others. Such employment schemes usually appear attractive to foreign nationals, as they offer appealing salaries and cover the costs of transportation, accommodation, and training. However, they can be deceptive forms of recruitment that result in situations of exploitation that are difficult to escape (IOM, 2005).

According to the most recent data collected by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), in 2014 there were 17,752 victims of human trafficking assisted in 85 countries. Women and girls comprise the majority of these cases, representing 71 per cent of the identified victims (IOM, 2017d). Precise data on the number of victims of modern slavery across the world are unavailable, though the most recent estimates indicate more than 40.3 million victims worldwide (Alliance 8.7, 2017), revealing that the available global figures of assisted victims are believed to be well below the actual incidence due to low levels of identification and reporting of trafficking cases, as well as the lack of systematic data at the national levels in many countries, including those in the Caribbean.

The MiGOF includes provisions related to the protection of migrants in situations of exploitation, including forced labour and trafficking in persons, and states that “Forced labour, trafficking in human beings and smuggling of migrants should be criminalized” (IOM, 2015). Additionally, the MiGOF promotes that migration occur in a “safe, orderly and dignified manner,” which includes the recommendation that mechanisms and policies regulating and monitoring migration address transborder criminal activity such as trafficking in persons. This section explores the counter-trafficking efforts made by the governments of the countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean and their adherence to international standards and the aforementioned principles of the MiGOF, as well as identifies the best practices in combating trafficking in persons and the main gaps found in the current responses.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK AND STRATEGY

The United Nations’ Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, entered into force on 25 December 2003, is the “first global legally binding instrument with an agreed definition on trafficking in persons” (United Nations, 2003). As such, it has served as the principal framework for the development of counter-trafficking legislation and strategies in countries across the world, including the ten states of the Caribbean sub-region.

All countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean are parties to the Protocol and have largely modeled their national counter-trafficking legislation on the document. However, the scope of the legislation and the development of SOPs enacting the provisions in the legislation varies from country to country. Dominica is the only country of the ten Caribbean Commonwealth nations that does not have legislation dedicated exclusively to the crime of trafficking in persons; yet, Part III, Section 8 of the *Transnational Organized Crime (Prevention and Control) Act, No. 13 of 2013* addresses the crime of trafficking in persons and the respective penalties (See Table 12. Counter-trafficking legislation by country). Various countries have amended their original counter-trafficking acts in order to better adhere to international standards. The Government of Jamaica’s revision of their legislation offers an example of such efforts, as the counter-trafficking act of 2007 was amended in 2013 to expand the definition of “exploitation,” authorize Justices of the Peace to issue warrants, and increase penalties for cases involving aggravating circumstances (Government of Jamaica, 2013), and again in 2018 to enable that all cases of trafficking in persons be tried by a judge alone without a jury (Government of Jamaica, 2018a). Additionally, the Government of Antigua and Barbuda revised their counter-trafficking legislation in 2015 to ensure that the crime could be tried in the appropriate Court to allow adequate sentencing (Government of Antigua and Barbuda, 2015); however, the amendment of the act in Antigua and Barbuda resulted in the dismissal of all pending trafficking prosecutions due to the adjusted definition. While many of the acts are modeled after the UN Protocol, several of them include penalties that allow for fines in lieu of prison time and are therefore not commensurate with the penalties for other serious crimes (as recommended by the Protocol), such as rape, under national legislation.

TABLE 12. COUNTER-TRAFFICKING LEGISLATION BY COUNTRY

Antigua and Barbuda	Trafficking in Persons (Prevention) Act No. 12 of 2010; Trafficking in Persons (Prevention) (Amendment) Act, 2015 No. 13 of 2015
The Bahamas	Trafficking in Persons (Prevention and Suppression) Act, No. 27 of 2008
Barbados	Trafficking in Persons Prevention Act of 2016
Dominica	Part III, Section 8, Transnational Organized Crime (Prevention and Control) Act, No. 13 of 2013
Grenada	Prevention of Trafficking in Persons Act, No. 34 of 2014
Jamaica	Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) Act, 2007; Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) (Amendment) Act, 2013; Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) (Amendment) Act, 2018
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Trafficking in Persons (Prevention) Act, No. 32 of 2008
Saint Lucia	Counter-Trafficking Act, No. 7 of 2010
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Prevention of Trafficking in Persons Act, No. 27 of 2011
Trinidad and Tobago	Trafficking in Persons Act Chapter 12:10, No 14 of 2011 (Amended by No. 12 of 2012)

Sources: (Government of Antigua and Barbuda, 2010b). (Government of Antigua and Barbuda, 2015). (Commonwealth of The Bahamas, 2008). (Government of Barbados, 2016). (Commonwealth of Dominica, 2013). (Government of Grenada, 2014). (Government of Jamaica, 2017). (Government of Jamaica, 2013). (Government of Jamaica, 2018a). (Government of Saint Christopher and Nevis, 2008). (Government of Saint Lucia, 2010). (Government of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, 2011). (Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, 2011).

The Bahamas has implemented one of the most comprehensive counter-trafficking responses among the ten Commonwealth Caribbean countries in the study, as it has developed thorough SOPs for victim identification and assistance, including the “Plan to Provide Assistance to Victims of Trafficking in Persons and their Accompanying Dependent Children,” as well as the “Trafficking in Persons Response Standard Operating Procedure of March 2016,” which was funded through a cooperative agreement with the U.S. Department of State. The Bahamas’ counter-trafficking legislation complies with international standards, and the country has developed a national strategy, the *National Anti-trafficking in Persons Strategy of 2014-2018*, which is currently being revised for 2019. Jamaica has also made significant strides in implementing a robust counter-trafficking response, and the National Taskforce Against Trafficking in Persons (NATFATIP) has recently developed SOPs relating to responses to trafficking in persons for health providers, labour officials and law enforcement officers, and one is in process for the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA) to guide the actions of immigration officers. Jamaica was also assisted by IOM in 2007 in the development of the *Jamaican Law Enforcement Guide to Investigation Manual: Practicalities of the Trafficking in Persons (Prevention, Suppression and Punishment) Act, 2007*, which serves as a guideline to support law enforcement officers and persons working in the judiciary (IOM, 2018c).

The majority of the Caribbean Commonwealth countries have also developed counter-trafficking taskforces in order to lead the national response against trafficking in persons, with the exception of Dominica, Grenada, and Saint Kitts and Nevis (See Table 13. Organizational structure & anti-trafficking bodies). According to the 4Ps Paradigm,²⁵ comprehensive trafficking responses should include provisions for Prevention, Protection, Prosecution, and Partnership. The national taskforces usually handle policy and strategy matters, as well as interagency coordination and the development of trainings for relevant stakeholders. As such, partnership is usually coordinated through such taskforces, both between other government agencies and departments, as well as with civil society actors, in order to develop the most comprehensive response possible. Taskforces are normally inter-ministerial, and the agencies and departments usually engaged in these bodies include the ministries responsible for health, labour, social services, legal affairs, and immigration, among others. Generally, the Ministry of National Security leads the taskforce and counter-trafficking response. In the countries without a taskforce, the response to cases of trafficking in persons generally falls under the purview of the department or agency responsible for immigration matters, and there is no cohesive national counter-trafficking strategy. In this context, the creation and mobilization of national taskforces proves to be an essential component of developing a comprehensive response to trafficking in persons and promotes cohesion across sectors.

25. For more information on the 4Ps Paradigm, see USAID’s *Counter-Trafficking in Persons Field Guide*, available from https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/2496/C-TIP_Field_Guide_Final_April%205%202013.pdf.

TABLE 13. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE & ANTI-TRAFFICKING BODIES

Organizational Structure/Anti-Trafficking Bodies	
Antigua and Barbuda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trafficking in Persons Prevention Committee (TPPC) under the Ministry of National Security and Labour. Comprised of representatives from: Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Immigration Department, Directorate of Gender Affairs, among others.
The Bahamas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trafficking in Persons Committee (TIP Committee) headed by the Ministry of National Security. Comprised of representatives from: Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Immigration, Finance, Social Services and Community Development, Health, and Legal Affairs, the Royal Bahamas Defense Force (RBDF), the Royal Bahamas Police Force (RBPF), and the Office of the Attorney General. Trafficking in Persons Task Force (TIP Task Force) under the Ministry of National Security, includes a Special Investigative Unit consisting of RBPF officers.
Barbados	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons, chaired by the Attorney General, comprised of representatives from: Office of Public Prosecutions, Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Labour, Health, and Housing, and the Royal Barbados Police Force (RBPF). Sex Crimes and Trafficking Unit of the RBPF responsible for identification and investigation of perpetrators.
Dominica	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No taskforce in place; Ministry of Justice, Immigration and National Security responsible for trafficking matters.
Grenada	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No taskforce in place nor formally designated lead ministry for counter-trafficking.
Jamaica	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Taskforce Against Trafficking in Persons (NATFATIP), under the Ministry of Justice. Comprised of representatives from: Ministries of Labour and Social Security, Foreign Affairs and Trade, National Security, Tourism, Health, Education, the Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF), the Passport, Immigration and Citizenship Agency (PICA), the Office of the Director for Public Prosecution, the Office of the Children's Advocate, the Officer of the Children's Registry, the Victim Support Division, the Bureau of Gender Affairs, the Child Protection and Family Services Agency and Woman, Inc. Anti-Trafficking in Persons Unit within the Counter Terrorism and Organized Crime Unit, under the JCF responsible for identification and investigation of perpetrators.
Saint Kitts and Nevis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No taskforce in place nor formally designated lead ministry for counter-trafficking.
Saint Lucia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Task Force under the Ministry of Home Affairs and National Security. Comprised of representatives from: Customs, the Royal Saint Lucia Police Force. The Major Crimes Unit handles the investigation of potential human trafficking cases.
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Taskforce against Trafficking in Persons (NTFATIP) under the Ministry of National Security. Inter-ministerial Working Group against Trafficking in Persons, implements programs and policies of the NTFATIP Anti-Trafficking in Persons Unit (ATIPU) under the Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force investigates potential cases of human trafficking.
Trinidad and Tobago	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Task Force Against Trafficking in Persons under the Ministry of National Security. Comprised of representatives from ministries of: Labour, National Security, Foreign Affairs, Social Development, Justice and Education; the Head of the Central Authority; and the Chairman of the Children's Authority. Counter-Trafficking Unit (CTU) under the Ministry of National Security investigates potential trafficking cases and coordinates efforts to provide assistance to victims.

Sources: (U.S. Department of State, 2018). (Commonwealth of The Bahamas, 2012). Government representatives.

Some countries also have specific operational bodies and/or police units dedicated to investigating cases of trafficking in persons, including The Bahamas, Jamaica, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Trinidad and Tobago. In other countries where there is no dedicated police unit, specific officers within the police force are usually trained on the identification of possible cases of trafficking in persons (See Table 13. Organizational structure & anti-trafficking bodies). Frequently, police units trained to investigate cases of trafficking in persons are also responsible for handling other special crimes. For example, the Sex Crimes and Trafficking Unit of the Royal Barbadian Police Force handles the investigations of all trafficking crimes; however, as the unit is only comprised of four officers and is responsible for crimes other than trafficking, they are currently functioning at limited capacity. Officials cited such capacity limitations as constraints to identification efforts.

Identified Needs

- Revision of counter-trafficking legislation to ensure adherence to international standards
- Greater inter-agency coordination and information-sharing in order to implement comprehensive counter-trafficking strategy
- Assistance developing updated SOPs and guidelines on counter-trafficking efforts
- Increased capacity and investment in human resources to build a robust counter-trafficking response

IDENTIFICATION AND PROSECUTION

Officials from all Commonwealth Caribbean countries in the study highlighted victim identification as an area of difficulty, largely due to lack of sufficient training for frontline staff, including immigration officers, police officers, and oftentimes, healthcare professionals. Many officials expressed the belief that low numbers of identified trafficking cases were not due to the nonexistence of such cases in-country, but, rather, are attributable to low levels of reporting and the lack of capacity. Dominica and Grenada have experienced the greatest difficulties out of the ten countries in identifying victims of trafficking (VOTs), and have not yet conducted any investigations or recorded any cases of trafficking in persons within their borders. Other countries have made significant strides in victim identification, and in the past years have improved their operational mechanisms through increased training of frontline officers on indicators of trafficking. Even so, officials in all countries have emphasized the need for increased and continuous training on victim identification and assistance provision, largely due to high turnover among frontline officers. Additionally, while officials stated that they have a general idea of the main sectors associated with trafficking in persons, frequently including the hospitality and tourism industry, there is limited data collection occurring at the national level to determine trends with certainty.

Although some countries have made progress increasing investigations of possible trafficking cases, many countries still struggle with the prosecution and conviction of traffickers. Out of the ten countries, only The Bahamas and Jamaica have ever secured a conviction for the crime of trafficking in persons. Many countries have cited a lack of victim cooperation during the investigation and prosecution as a contributing factor to low levels of indictment, and officials stated that some victims, especially those in the country with irregular status, fear adverse immigration consequences or the loss of livelihood if they report. Although not explicitly stated in their legislation, Saint Lucian officials also noted that prosecution is not initiated if there is no cooperation from the victim, as trafficking is a

crime against a person and not the state. Relatedly, authorities from various countries of the sub-region expressed the need for increased training for members of the judiciary on the prosecution of trafficking cases. Many countries have either developed or are working on the development of SOPs in order to offer guidelines to frontline officers on the identification of potential trafficking cases, as well as conducting sensitization trainings for judges to better support victims and secure more convictions for the crime of trafficking in persons. There is also a need to continue to work on investigation techniques that do not rely solely on the testimony of a victim, in line with global good practice, as this continues to be a common challenge in prosecuting trafficking in persons.

TABLE 14. NUMBER OF INVESTIGATIONS, PROSECUTIONS AND CONVICTIONS

COUNTRY	INVESTIGATIONS	PROSECUTIONS (pending/finalized)	CONVICTIONS
Antigua and Barbuda	3 (2017-2018)	2 (2018)	0
The Bahamas	12 (2017-2018)	2 (2017-2018)	1 (2017)
Barbados	5 (2017)	1	0
Dominica	0	0	0
Grenada	0	0	0
Jamaica	30 (2017)	19 (2017-2018)	2 (2018)
Saint Kitts and Nevis	0	0	0
Saint Lucia	N/A	0	0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	7 (2017)	0	0
Trinidad and Tobago	38 (2017)	2 (2017)	0

Sources: (UNDESA, 2017). (World Bank Group, 2018). Government representatives.

Identified Needs

- Increased training and sensitization for frontline officers on victim identification and assistance
- Increased training for judiciary on investigation and prosecution of TIP cases, protection and assistance of VOTs when acting as witnesses in order to prevent re-traumatization, and on how to build a case not entirely based on victim testimony

VICTIM ASSISTANCE AND SHELTER PROVISION

The majority of the countries included in this study offer varied assistance to VOTs as detailed in their counter-trafficking legislation. According to international guidelines, this assistance should include support with accessing safe housing, medical care (including psychological care), and aid interpreting national law and with legal proceedings (OHCHR, 2002). The Bahamas' counter-trafficking legislation mandates that VOTs are entitled to assistance through the state regardless of their willingness to cooperate with authorities during the investigation and prosecution of perpetrators of human trafficking (Commonwealth of The Bahamas, 2008). Out of the ten countries, Jamaica is the only one that has a dedicated shelter for VOTs, albeit specifically for women and children. In the other countries, according to officials, the lack of a dedicated shelter is largely due to security and capacity concerns, as a VOT-specific shelter would be easy to locate on such small islands and put victims at risk. Women

and child victims are frequently housed in shelters used for victims of domestic violence if available, and men are found safe accommodation on an ad hoc basis. Most countries stated that even without a formal process for housing provision, authorities provide shelter for victims as needed. Grenada is an outlier, as its counter-trafficking legislation does not include any protocol for the provision of housing for VOTs, and potential victims may remain under a Protection Order as directed by a magistrate for placement in a refuge for a specified period of time as indicated in the Act (Government of Grenada, 2014). Although most legislation mandates that national law must be explained to the victim in a language they understand, frequently, interpretation services for non-English speakers is provided on an ad hoc basis, and there are usually no formal mechanisms for the provision of interpretation services. Many officials identified this as an area of weakness to be addressed.

According to government representatives in most countries, immigration relief is available for VOTs for the duration of the criminal proceedings, and occasionally extends to their immediate family. Status is usually conferred through the issuance of a work permit; however, this is usually at the discretion of the immigration authorities and there is no formal mechanism ensuring immigration status. Some countries have no written provisions mentioning immigration relief for VOTs either during legal proceedings or following the culmination of the legal case. Assisted voluntary returns are generally provided, however it is not always stipulated in the counter-trafficking legislation. Many countries have cited the lack of capacity to execute assisted voluntary returns due to the financial

burden, and have received assistance from IOM, including Jamaica, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Antigua and Barbuda. Additionally, many countries lack formal mechanisms regarding assisted voluntary returns. As many states have had no or very few identified cases of human trafficking, mechanisms for the provision of services to VOTs and for assisted voluntary returns have not yet been tested or implemented.

Identified Needs

- Increased training and sensitization for frontline officers on victim identification and assistance
- Development and support to implement formal mechanisms to provide legal migration status and provide work permits to VOTs
- Development of formal mechanisms to implement assisted voluntary returns
- Creation of VOT-specific shelters, safe houses, and other housing mechanisms to provide appropriate housing support for VOTs

AWARENESS CAMPAIGNS

The presence of effective information and awareness campaigns is essential to any comprehensive counter-trafficking response. To this end, many countries have made efforts to develop and implement public awareness campaigns on forced labor and sex trafficking. The countries in the sub-region are at varying phases of implementation of their counter-trafficking response, and have different levels of resources dedicated to information campaigns.

Saint Lucia, for example, is beginning to build capacity on counter-trafficking with the assistance of international organizations, and has recently designed a public education campaign; however, the dissemination of the campaign will be linked to funding available. In comparison, The Bahamas and Jamaica have the capacity to engage in nationwide public awareness activities including campaigns in schools and the media, film screenings, comic books, animated mini-series, and the distribution of brochures. The Bahamas has also implemented trafficking awareness campaigns at areas of transit, including in airports, with the aim of targeting one of the main sectors associated with trafficking in persons: the tourism sector. Jamaica has adopted the UNODC Blue Heart Campaign against Human Trafficking, an international awareness-raising campaign, which was recently launched in three separate locations on the island, and has also collaborated with the Ministry of Labour to disseminate information on indicators of trafficking for various stakeholders in circular migration programs. The Ministry of Labour and Social Enterprise Development (MOLSED) in Trinidad and Tobago is also involved in counter-trafficking efforts and campaigns, as it provides information to

participants in the Seasonal Agricultural Worker Program with Canada on indicators of trafficking and training to diplomats on trafficking in persons, and also conducts radio and television campaigns on workers' rights, specifically for domestic workers, and sensitization campaigns on child labour (U.S. Department of State, 2018). In Antigua and Barbuda, the Trafficking in Persons (Prevention) Committee through its Education Task Force organizes activities for an annual Human Trafficking Awareness Week held in September. This includes an awareness walk through St. Johns, community engagement, and a media blitz.

Only Dominica, Grenada, and Saint Kitts and Nevis have not implemented any awareness campaigns regarding human trafficking at the national or local levels. Relatedly, these are also countries that have not established a taskforce to develop national strategy and policy regarding counter-trafficking efforts. For those countries that have implemented campaigns, most have not disseminated them in languages other than English.

Identified Needs

- Comprehensive counter-trafficking awareness campaigns disseminated in different languages reaching government officials across agencies and various strata of the public, including in schools, health systems and at border points and consulates

TRAININGS AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

The Governments of the Commonwealth Caribbean have engaged in various trainings and technical assistance projects in order to strengthen their counter-trafficking response. IOM has been involved in many of these initiatives, including collaborative dialogues and trainings in most of these countries. These have primarily been organized and facilitated by IOM Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago through sub-regional project funding from the U.S Department of State to Combat and Monitor Trafficking in Persons (JTIP). Additionally, through the CMC platform, IOM has engaged the Commonwealth Caribbean countries, among other Caribbean nations, on the topic of human trafficking and effective counter-trafficking measures. A regional Counter Trafficking network made up of the national counter-trafficking authorities of territories and countries across the region was established at the First Workshop of the CMC's Counter-Trafficking Network hosted by the Government of Trinidad and Tobago in April 2018 with the support of IOM and UNHCR; this event was attended by representatives from all the Commonwealth Caribbean nations except Dominica. Through the platform provided at the workshop, participants identified various areas for coordination, including the development of Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs) between countries on victim care and assistance, the revision of national counter-trafficking laws, regional trainings on victim identification and assistance, and the harmonization of counter-trafficking legislation in the region. The CMC Regional CT Network is focused on both protection and assistance needs as well as investigation and prosecution actions, and includes

also key partners, such as CARICOM IMPACS, and should prove an effective framework for future regional CT efforts.

Additionally, the ACP-EU Migration Action was launched in 2015 and provides technical assistance to governments in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific on various issues including trafficking in persons and the smuggling of migrants. Activities through the Action are implemented by IOM at the request of the participating governments. Several Commonwealth Caribbean countries have been recipients of technical assistance through the Action, including Grenada, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago.²⁶

Although countries of the sub-region have made a concerted effort to strengthen their counter-trafficking mechanisms, there is still a great deal of work to be done in order to form a comprehensive regional response to the crime of trafficking in persons. Many countries cited the need to share best practices and for increased data collection not only at the national level, but also on the regional level, on trafficking networks and trends.

Identified Needs

- Increased training and sensitization for frontline officers on victim identification and assistance
- Increased training for law enforcement and the judiciary on investigation and prosecution of TIP cases, how to build cases which are not solely dependent upon victim testimony and how to protect and support VOTs who participate in these processes
- Assistance developing and implementing updated SOPs and guidelines on counter-trafficking efforts

26. For more information on the activities of the ACP-EU Migration Action, see their website at <http://acpeumigrationaction.iom.int/activities>.

MIGRATION AND HEALTH

MIGRATION AND HEALTH

Migration in itself is considered a social determinant of health, as the process of migration oftentimes places migrants in hazardous conditions that make them more susceptible to illness and injury, and causes disruptions in access to medication and care. Data has demonstrated that migrant populations may have higher rates of communicable diseases, such as malaria, HIV/AIDS, and tuberculosis (WHO, 2018). These realities, relevant to all Commonwealth Caribbean countries, highlight the need to explicitly address migrant health at both the regional and national level not only to ensure migrant well-being, but also to follow public health principles and prevent pandemics (IOM Migration Health Division, 2017). Moreover, provisions for responding to migrants' health needs should be in alignment with good migration governance practices, which according to the MiGOF, must take a whole-of-government approach and also "advance the socio-economic well-being of migrants and society" through various means, including guaranteeing migrants' access to health care services (IOM, 2015).

In order to properly implement the vision of the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, under which all countries in the sub-region have committed to "Leave no one behind," migrant health should be mainstreamed into national plans, policies and strategies. This integration would include migrants of both regular and irregular statuses into health coverage plans and ensure that migrants are considered in the development of payment schemes, health plans and strategies at the national level (IOM Migration Health Division, 2017).

This section outlines the structure of the health systems in the sub-region of the Commonwealth Caribbean, as related to migration and migrant

access, and assesses alignment with the whole-of-government approach to health identified as necessary under "good migration governance," as well as the challenges facing the sub-region as a whole. The section also highlights the common needs in relation to migration health as expressed by government officials interviewed as part of the study.

INCLUSION OF MIGRANT ISSUES IN HEALTH PLANS AND STRATEGIES

Many countries of the sub-region have developed strategic health plans guiding activities and priorities of each respective Ministry of Health; however, frequently, these documents may only exist in draft form, or have not been updated in recent years. Even so, the majority of such plans are aimed primarily at the health of citizens and make no provisions for addressing the healthcare needs of migrant populations. Still, exceptions are found in some countries' national plans on HIV/AIDS, which occasionally identify migrants as "key" or vulnerable populations. However, none of these plans outline tactics for greater engagement with these communities.

Notwithstanding the exclusion of migrant issues in health plans and strategies, officials in various countries expressed a greater need to engage the migrant population in health services to foster a comprehensive approach to the health of the population, and many representatives expressed concern regarding the possible effect that migrants' health may have on the health of the national population as well. Consequently, there is a special interest in preventing the spread of diseases that are not endemic to many of the countries in the sub-region, such as malaria, as well as in developing better screening processes for migrants entering the country in order to ensure they receive the proper vaccinations.

As part of the port surveillance protocols in place across the majority of the countries of the study, governments have made efforts to incorporate nurses and environmental officers at principal border crossing points, with the main goal of identifying possible health threats, preventing pandemics, and monitoring regional outbreaks (See Table 15. Presence of health surveillance protocols at ports of entry by country). However, a significant gap in these protocols is found in the lack of provisions for the screening of forcibly returned nationals being sent from other countries in many of these island states. In this regard, several officials stated that proper health screenings for returned nationals is occasionally inhibited by the lack of information provided by the sending country. This represents a challenge for authorities, who without prior knowledge of the health conditions of the returnees, cannot take preventive measures or arrange care before their arrival. Officials expressed the need for greater coordination between the sending and receiving countries in this area.

TABLE 15. PRESENCE OF HEALTH SURVEILLANCE PROTOCOLS AT PORTS OF ENTRY BY COUNTRY

COUNTRY	PRESENCE OF PORT SURVEILLANCE PROTOCOLS
Antigua and Barbuda	No information
The Bahamas	√
Barbados	√
Dominica	No information
Grenada	√
Jamaica	√
Saint Kitts and Nevis	√
Saint Lucia	√
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	No information
Trinidad and Tobago	No information

Source: Government representatives.

Additionally, many countries do not have plans in place to deal with the health aspects of disasters. The disaster-prone nature of the Caribbean region has a large impact on the health system, primarily in two regards: (a) through direct damage to infrastructure resulting in the interruption of services; and, (b) by indirectly causing high numbers of casualties, injuries and illnesses among the affected populations (Pan American Health Organization, 2012). This was highlighted in the case of Dominica after Hurricane Maria in 2017, as reports stated that 17 clinics were not operational, and only 30 out of a remaining 49 remaining health facilities were working at full or partial-capacity a month after the storm. Furthermore, all vaccines were destroyed following electricity failures that disturbed the cold chain necessary to conserve the samples (PAHO, 2017a). The majority of the states in the sub-region do not have a formal coordination mechanism with their respective agencies responsible for emergency and disaster management. Some exceptions include Jamaica, which created the Emergency Disaster Management and Special Services (EDMSS), a branch under the Ministry of Health responsible for analyzing and responding to health risks resulting from emergencies or disasters, and also for monitoring and implementing health emergency and disaster management plans at various community levels (Government of Jamaica, 2018b); and Saint Lucia, where the Chief Medical Officer (CMO) serves as the focal point for disaster management for the health sector and coordinates with the National Emergency Management Office (NEMO).

Increased coordination between agencies and the mainstreaming of migration-related issues within the health system and health strategies has still been a challenge for many of countries of the sub-region. This remains an area in need of development in order to adhere to international standards, and ensure the well-being of the greater population, including migrant communities.

Identified Needs

- Inclusion of provisions addressing migrant health needs in national health strategies and plans
- Development of strategies to retain and recruit qualified medical practitioners
- Increased training on monitoring health risks and the collection of data at the national level
- Improved coordination between ministries and departments on protocols for potential health risks, especially the departments responsible for immigration and emergencies
- Implementation of specialized protocols regarding screenings and referrals for forced returnees

MIGRANT ACCESS TO HEALTH CARE SERVICES

In 2017, the Seventieth World Health Assembly (WHA) approved resolution WHA 70.15 on “Promoting the health of refugees and migrants,” which encourages WHO Member States “to identify and collect evidence-based information, best practices and lessons learned in addressing the health needs of refugees and migrants in order to contribute to the development of a draft global action plan on promoting the health of refugees and migrants” (WHO, 2017, p. 1). However, all of the countries in the sub-region struggle with primary data collection and regional coordination, and none of the countries in the study have been able to collect reliable statistics on the number of migrants accessing the health system, or information on their particular health needs. Consequently, although international guidelines encourage the integration of migrants into public health systems, the lack of information on migration trends and migrant access to health services makes it difficult to develop informed health policies aimed at addressing migrant care.

When analyzing migrant access to health services in Commonwealth Caribbean countries, this study found that both formal and informal barriers are present in all countries. Although the WHO Constitution states that the “enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being” (WHO, 1948, p. 1), migrant access to the healthcare system of each respective country varies largely, ranging from unhindered access at the policy level without any payment across services, to the prohibition of access for primary and secondary care services for any foreign national who is not a citizen or

permanent resident. Countries which offer primary care services free of cost regardless of migration status include: Dominica, Grenada, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago (See Table 16. Migrant access to primary and secondary/advanced care services by country).²⁷ Frequently, laboratory and hospital services require a small user fee that must be paid out of pocket by all users, including nationals. However, officials in many countries stated that care would never be denied due to inability to pay. In other countries which significantly restrict migrant access to primary and secondary care services, exceptions allowing access to care are made in regard to communicable diseases, such as HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis, as well as for the provision of immunizations to children and prenatal care for pregnant women. One such country that allows for these exceptions is Barbados, which otherwise requires a Barbadian National Identification in order to access the health system, only held by citizens and permanent residents.

27. The research team was unable to determine the lack of access to health services free of cost in Trinidad and Tobago.

TABLE 16. MIGRANT ACCESS TO PRIMARY AND SECONDARY/ADVANCED CARE SERVICES BY COUNTRY

COUNTRY	PRIMARY CARE SERVICES	SECONDARY/ ADVANCED CARE SERVICES
Antigua and Barbuda	Same access as nationals; payments for anyone not insured under Medical Benefits Scheme, including irregular migrants	Same access as nationals; payments for anyone not insured under Medical Benefits Scheme, including irregular migrants
The Bahamas	Same access as nationals, access not denied	Same access as nationals, access not denied
Barbados	Only accessible with Barbadian ID for citizens or permanent residents	Fees apply to certain foreign nationals
Dominica	Same access as nationals, no payment collected	Some restrictions may occur due to user fees
Grenada	Same access as nationals, no payment collected	Same access as nationals, no payment collected
Jamaica	Same access as nationals	Same access as nationals
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Same as nationals; some restrictions may occur due to user fees	Same as nationals; some restrictions may occur due to user fees
Saint Lucia	Same access as nationals, no payment collected	Same access as nationals, no payment collected
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Same access as nationals, no payment collected	Small user fee for hospital care increased by 50% for non-nationals
Trinidad and Tobago	Same access as nationals, no payment collected	Same access as nationals, no payment collected

Sources: (Government of Antigua and Barbuda, 2011b). (Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, n.d.). (PAHO, 2017b). Government representatives

In various countries, migrants currently have unrestricted access to health services at the policy level, as there are no laws or policies which restrict access to services. However, the lack of regulations can sometimes hinder access due to factors such as the absence of interpretation services, the stigmatization of migrant populations, as well as fears of utilizing public facilities due to irregular migration status. The HIV/AIDS Program in Dominica serves as an example of a health program which has made a concerted effort to reduce such barriers and conduct greater outreach with the migrant community through the employment of multilingual staff. According to officials, the program currently has the capacity to provide language interpretation services for Spanish and Haitian Creole speakers. The Bahamas has also made institutional efforts to facilitate greater access to HIV/AIDS care for the Haitian community in particular, as officials stated that Haitian Creole interpreters are available to beneficiaries at the National HIV/AIDS Center in Nassau as a matter of policy. However, in both the cases of Dominica and The Bahamas, there are no formal mechanisms in place through the Ministry of Health to ensure access to language interpretation, and the availability of interpretation services largely depends on the capacity of staff. In Saint Kitts and Nevis, according to officials, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is technically responsible for providing language interpretation services to all other ministries, however there does not appear to be any formal system in place for such provision of interpretation services. Officials from all other states in the sub-region reported that there are no formal mechanisms in place to facilitate interpretation or translation services for non-English speakers accessing health care, and frequently the provision of such services is ad hoc.²⁸

FIGURE 5: STATES WITH FREE ACCESS TO SEXUAL HEALTH SERVICES FOR MIGRANTS ²⁹

Free access to post-exposure prophylactic treatment	Free access to services through National Plan on HIV/AIDS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Antigua and Barbuda • The Bahamas • Dominica • Grenada • Saint Kitts and Nevis • Saint Lucia • Saint Vincent and the Grenadines • Trinidad and Tobago 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Antigua and Barbuda • The Bahamas • Barbados • Dominica • Grenada • Saint Kitts and Nevis • Saint Lucia • Saint Vincent and the Grenadines • Trinidad and Tobago

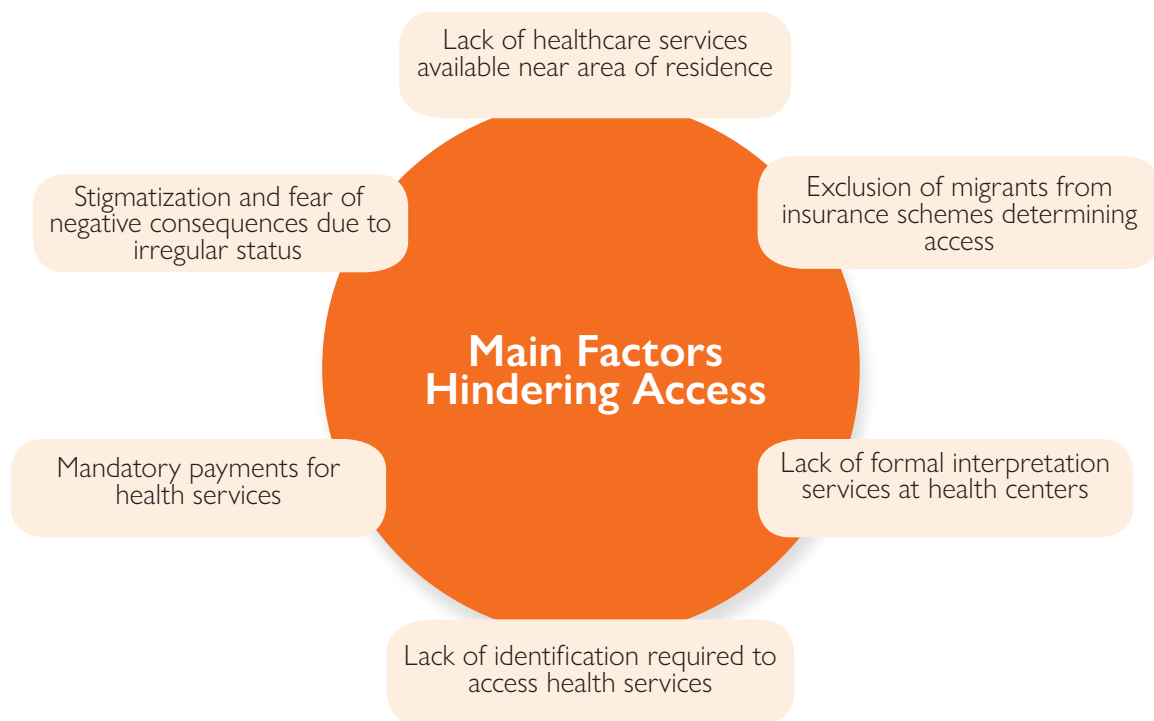
Sources: (Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, n.d.); (Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, 2013). (PAHO, 2017b). Government representatives.

Another important factor affecting migrant communities' access to health care is the political climate in receiving countries, as discriminatory practices can result in the exclusion of migrants from these systems rather than their incorporation into them (WHO, 2018). Such considerations demonstrate the need to not only provide access at a policy-level, but to remove social barriers through public sensitization on migrant communities.

28. The research team was unable to determine the unavailability of language interpretation or translation services in Trinidad and Tobago.

29. Although not included in the list, the research team was unable to determine that Jamaica does not provide free access to post-exposure prophylactic treatment or services through National Plan on HIV/AIDS.

**FIGURE 6. MAIN FACTORS
HINDERING ACCESS TO HEALTH CARE**



Source: Government representatives

Aside from informal barriers to access, the majority of the countries are in the process of developing a national health insurance scheme in order to ensure sustainable funding to cover the costs of the provision of health services to the population, which may result in significant changes in migrant access at a policy-level. Officials have expressed that the establishment of such insurance schemes would promote development, hoping that it will increase revenue that will allow the government to

invest in improved healthcare facilities and services, as well as the procurement of qualified healthcare professionals to fill gaps. The implementation would require the greater collection of data on migrant populations accessing the system in order to determine required payments, and therefore would allow them to identify trends in migrant access to care and better cater to their needs. However, while many officials reiterated the commitment to universal care in their respective countries, many

also voiced concerns about how an influx of migrants into the country may over-burden already under-funded health systems. Access to more data on the use of health services by migrant populations would allow decision-makers to calculate the actual cost of providing services to migrants, and to plan for health provision based on actual needs and resources. It is still to be determined how the implementation of such health insurance schemes may restrict migrant access.

Identified Needs

- Introduction of more sustainable funding schemes for public health system
- Formalization of interpretation services available at health facilities
- Mechanism allowing for systematic data collection on migrants accessing health services and their particular health needs
- Consistent adherence to international standards regarding migrant access to health care
- Sensitization campaigns for general public and healthcare providers on marginalized communities, including migrant communities

MENTAL HEALTHCARE SERVICES

The majority of officials working in the health sector across countries emphasized the need for more expansive and accessible mental health services. Although migrants frequently have the same access to mental health services as nationals, they are generally limited across the islands due to a dearth of mental health professionals in-country. Additionally, mental health services seem to be commonly limited to psychiatric care at hospitals, rather than applying a more comprehensive approach to mental health, available in communities and at all levels of care. In this regard, however, various countries are transitioning these services to the community-level and are in the process of developing or revising mental health policies in order to implement a more comprehensive community-based approach, examples of which are seen in Antigua and Barbuda and Jamaica. However, increasing access has proven challenging without the corresponding mental health professionals to provide care across health centers in the islands.

TABLE 17. MIGRANT ACCESS TO MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

COUNTRY	ACCESS TO MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES
Antigua and Barbuda	Limited; same access as nationals
The Bahamas	Same access as nationals, access not denied
Barbados	Not universal; depends on migration status
Dominica	Same access as nationals, no fee
Grenada	Limited; same access as nationals
Jamaica	Same access as nationals
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Same access as nationals
Saint Lucia	Limited; same access as nationals
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Limited; same access as nationals
Trinidad and Tobago	Same access as nationals

Source: (Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, n.d.), Government representatives.

A relative lack of psychosocial care is especially evident following disasters, as in the case of Dominica after Hurricane Maria in 2017. Officials of various ranks and working in multiple ministries expressed a need for increased mental health services for the general population following the devastation of the hurricane and trauma suffered by the population. As such, regional agencies have begun to focus greater attention on this aspect of health, as exhibited in an agreement signed between the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB) and the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) on 13 June, 2018 to “enhance capacity for mental health and psychosocial support in disaster management in the Caribbean” (Caribbean Development Bank, 2018). The scope of the project includes regional and in-country trainings for the health sector, as well as needs assessments to develop action plans. Additionally, the plan proposed to focus on certain groups which are in particularly vulnerable situations following disasters, including migrants (CDB, 2018).

Identified Needs

- Development of comprehensive mental health services at all levels of care with a focus on community services
- Recruitment and training of more qualified mental healthcare professionals

Acknowledging the gaps in mental health care in their health systems, many countries in the sub-region are participants to the WHO Mental Health Gap Action Programme (mhGAP), with the aim to “reinforce the commitment of all stakeholders to increase the allocation of financial and human resources for care of MNS disorders and to achieve higher coverage with key interventions especially in the countries with low and lower middle incomes that have large proportions of the global burden of these disorders” (WHO, 2008, p. 4).³⁰ Although mental health services are currently limited in the majority of the Commonwealth Caribbean, the countries are making strides to fortify their mental health systems through increased training, recruitment of professionals from other states, and the implementation of mental health services at the community level.

30. MNS makes reference to Mental, Neurological, and Substance use (WHO, 2008).

LABOUR AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

LABOUR AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

The search for improved employment opportunities and higher standards of living have consistently been important motivators for migration, both regionally and globally. According to a recent report published by the International Labour Organization (ILO), “North America, Central America, and the Caribbean have experienced significant geopolitical and geo-strategic developments whose patterns largely explain the formation of a complex system of labour migration corridors. This system of migration corridors is constantly being modified due to changes in the interdependence among economies and labour markets” (ILO, 2017, p. 8). The changing nature of these labour migration corridors highlights the need for countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean to develop informed policies and mechanisms to accommodate such changes in their respective societies. Additionally, it is important that such policy developments not only consider economic and security concerns regarding migration, but that they are also guided by international standards, and incorporate a human rights-based approach for promoting the well-being of the migrant population.

According to Objective 1 of the MiGOF, “Good migration governance and related policy should seek to advance the socioeconomic well-being of migrants and society” (IOM, 2015, p. 4). Under this Objective, key themes include the provision of information on regular migration channels, the development of integration and social cohesion programs, the advancement of labour exchange, the incorporation of regulations allowing for the portability of social benefits, and the assurance of equal access to various public services such as education (IOM, 2015).

This section explores the intersection between the aspects of human development discussed in Objective 1 of the MiGOF and the impacts on the labour markets and social services of the respective governments of the sub-region. A primary focus is placed on labour migration, and the section includes an overview of the main labour migration trends in the region in order to understand the economic and geographic context and identify areas where the utilization of migrant labour has proven beneficial for both the migrant and the recipient country, as well as identify areas for greater compliance with international standards.

EXTRA-REGIONAL AND INTRA-REGIONAL LABOUR MIGRATION TRENDS

The Caribbean is historically characterized as a region experiencing higher rates of extra-regional migration than intra-regional migration, especially among skilled labour. This is also the case for Commonwealth Caribbean countries, among which Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada and Saint Kitts and Nevis are in the top ten emigration countries in the world per capita (IOM; ACP Observatory on Migration, 2013).

Many skilled nationals from the Caribbean travel to traditional receiving countries, such as the United States and Canada, that have introduced legislation encouraging the admission of skilled workers to fill labour market gaps in selected sectors that cannot be filled by nationals. According to data from 2000, Caribbean persons comprised 19 per cent of the migrant stock in Canada and 12 per cent in the United States.³¹ Conversely, traditional sending countries frequently experience high levels of unemployment, which represents a major push factor in the region and results in a high rate






31. This includes Caribbean nationals from countries outside of the Commonwealth Caribbean, including the Dominican Republic and Haiti, among others.

of emigration of professionals, particularly skilled women working in the health and education sectors, creating gaps in the labour market and threatening the economy of the sending countries (ILO, 2006). An example of this is seen in Jamaica, where thousands of nurses migrated through recruitment schemes in the United States in the late 20th century, resulting in serious gaps within the healthcare system, which were subsequently filled by the importation of health professionals from Cuba, a strategy practiced by multiple countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean (IOM, 2017a).

Labour agreements facilitated by the governments of each respective country and, occasionally, through regional organizations such as CARICOM, have encouraged targeted extra-regional migration for Caribbean nationals. One such program is the Seasonal Agricultural Worker Program (SAWP) with Canada, in which all Commonwealth Caribbean countries participate, with the exception of The Bahamas. Certain countries, such as Jamaica, also have bilateral labour agreements in place with the United States and Canada, through which Jamaica provides low/semi-skilled labour, largely in the agricultural and hospitality sectors. These programs include the United States Farm Work Program; the United States Hospitality Program; the Canadian Farm and Factory Program; and the Canadian Low-Skilled Worker Program.

Extra-regional labour migration from other regions to the Caribbean has also been an increasing trend, as seen through a rise in the number of migrants entering the region from Sub-Saharan Africa and China. The growing number of labour migrants from China is largely fueled by policies of the Chinese Government for overseas expansion and job provision for Chinese nationals who cannot be accommodated in the People’s Republic’s labour market (IOM; ACP Observatory on Migration, 2013). Many of these Chinese labourers work on large-scale construction projects that are contracted out to the Chinese Government. An example of this was seen through the presence of Chinese labour in Dominica for reconstruction work following Tropical Storm Erica and Hurricane Maria in 2017.

FIGURE 7. MAIN SECTORS WITH SKILLS GAPS

	Education
	Agriculture
	Health
	Information Technology
	Construction

Source: Government representatives.

Although South-North flows of migration remain the dominant trend in the Caribbean, there is an emerging trend of intra-regional migration in the region, and various countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean have been identified as receiving countries for migrants from other states in the Caribbean and Latin America³². The available information on intra-regional migration is limited, however, statistics show one-half of all international immigrants in the region were from Caribbean countries and tend to be young and educated (IOM, 2017a), and are looking for better employment opportunities and increased economic mobility. Recent research done through the ACP Observatory on Migration has shown that Barbados has become a major final destination for migrants from Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago, and OECS Member States due to “a perceived robust economy, overall high standard of living and a well-developed social services system” (IOM; ACP Observatory on Migration, 2013, p. 1). Additionally, Trinidad and Tobago has historically been a host to a wide variety of migrants from the region, including Venezuela due to its geographical proximity. However, according to the ACP research, the Government of Trinidad and Tobago has not implemented any national plan to “manage, regulate and facilitate migration that is beneficial to the growth and development” of the country, in spite of the fact that high levels of migration will likely continue due to its location and relatively strong economy (IOM; ACP Observatory on Migration, 2013, p. 1). In such situations, many migrants often find themselves working in the informal economy, and studies have found that a large percentage of migrant workers in both The Bahamas and Trinidad and Tobago work in the informal sector (ILO, 2017). The lack of regularization and formalization of migrant participation in the economy thwarts governments from effectively leveraging their skills in ways that contribute to national development, and inhibits their ability to

implement protective measures for migrant populations participating in the labour market.

There have also been sizable waves of migration, occurring through both regular and irregular channels, from the Dominican Republic to eastern Caribbean States, as well as from Haiti to The Bahamas and Dominica (IOM; ACP Observatory on Migration, 2013). The emergence of this trend has resulted in the need for governments in the region to analyze and revise policies on migration and has highlighted the greater need for migration mainstreaming across government institutions which are impacted by the influx of new migrants, such as the education and social security systems.

The emergence of regional organizations such as CARICOM and OECS, and the subsequent introduction of free movement initiatives, has resulted in an increased intra-regional flow of labour between participating countries. CARICOM’s free movement regime, established in 1989 under the CSME, while eliminating the need for a work permit for migration between CARICOM Member States, limits skilled migration to eleven categories (IOM, 2017a). So far, the implementation of these mechanisms has only included a limited group of highly-skilled migrants. The OECS established a similar mechanism with the Freedom of Movement Regime, which became operational in 2011. This provision allows OECS nationals to reside and work freely in Member States without the need for a work permit or skills certificate. Although both agreements provide a framework for removing barriers to human mobility in the region with the purpose of enhancing the social and economic development capacities, not all countries have implemented them at the same level. Notably, The Bahamas is the only country in the sub-region which is currently not a part of CSME. In this regard, the Government of The Bahamas recently expressed in a July 2018 press release that there is no

32. As previously discussed, exceptions to work permit applications exist for participants in CSME and the OECS Free Movement Regime.

future plan for the country to become a part of CSME and participate in free movement through CARICOM due to security concerns and the need to prioritize the employment of Bahamian nationals in the local labour market (Commonwealth of The Bahamas, 2018). Additionally, government officials from other countries expressed that not all CARICOM Member States who are parties to CSME have been complying with the free movement provision, particularly in countries with small populations which may have concerns regarding the impacts of increased migration from larger states. Jamaican nationals in particular seem to have had their movement restricted through such inconsistent application of the provision within the region, therefore limiting the possible benefits of the agreement. The lack of cohesion in the acceptance and implementation of freedom of movement regimes demonstrates the need for greater regional dialogue on the topic of labour migration.

As stated in the MiGOF, “migration and related law and policy need to be designed not only to enable migrants to participate in local economies, but also to foster strong socioeconomic outcomes for migrants and communities of origin, transit and destination” (IOM, 2015, p. 4). However, many countries appear to struggle to create systems which balance the costs and benefits of migration. Both extra-regional and intra-regional migration can pose significant challenges for sending and receiving countries. However, migration also has the potential to create various benefits in these countries, including an increase in remittances from nationals in the diaspora which can foster greater development in-country, as well as the filling of skills gaps in struggling sectors and an injection to the receiving country’s economy through increased taxes paid by the new migrant population (ILO, 2006).

Identified Needs

- Greater retention of skilled labour, especially in the health sector
- Increased investment in skill development in the national population to address skills gaps in the labour market
- Analysis of labour market demand and creation of a shortage occupation list
- Development of mutually beneficial trade agreements that are favorable for workers and employers/investors alike
- More consistent implementation of CSME provisions among CARICOM Member States

MIGRANT PARTICIPATION AND ACCESS TO LABOUR MARKETS

The inclusion of migrants in the labour market requires systematic data collection on the population in order to develop informed policy. However, many countries in the sub-region have significant gaps in data regarding both regular and irregular migrant populations accessing the labour market. In most countries, records of regular migrants accessing the labour market are available through work permit registers; however, this data is generally not disaggregated by nationality or age and is not regularly analyzed in order to produce comprehensive data on migrants accessing the labour market or on labour market trends. Moreover, none of the countries are currently conducting systematic data collection on irregular migrants accessing the labour markets, and gathering this information has proven challenging for all countries, which may be partially attributable to the “clandestine nature of irregularity” (IOM, 2017d, p. 20). However, interviewed government representatives have recognized the importance of obtaining data on both the regular and irregular migrant population accessing the labour market in order to determine their impacts on the market and economy, to protect them from exploitation, as well as to be able to properly leverage migrant labour in order to fill existing skills gaps within the market. Various countries are making efforts to develop information systems to gather and analyze data on the labour market, including Saint Kitts and Nevis, which has launched the Labour Management Information System (LMIS), meant to capture trends in the national labour market and their effects on the economy. Additionally, Barbados is actively attempting to increase regional information-sharing on labour market trends as a participant in the CARICOM Labour Market Information System Project, which is in the process of being implemented. According to officials, Barbados is hoping to be the first country to upload their labour market information in the system by the end of 2018.

Migrants are not explicitly prohibited from working in specific sectors according to officials in all countries, however employment through the public sector is usually at the discretion of the State. All countries in the sub-region require a work permit in order for a non-national to access the labour market in a regular manner,³² and permits are applied for by the employer on behalf of the beneficiary, with certain exceptions for persons seeking to engage in self-employment. The processing of such permits varies widely according to each countries’ respective policies, however, in the majority of countries, work permits are processed by the government agencies responsible for labour, immigration or national security. Saint Vincent and the Grenadines serves as an exception, where applications are initiated at the Office of the Prime Minister, and copies of work permit grants are subsequently sent to the Labour Department. Many countries have cited a need for greater coordination and information-sharing between their respective immigration and labour departments in order to better regulate work permit issuance so as to address real gaps in the labour market. Officials stated that frequently, work permits are issued based on the merits of each application, and existing shortage occupation or skills gaps lists are not used to set quotas for the recruitment of qualified migrant labour. Some provisions facilitating the targeted recruitment of foreign labour can be found for specific skills gaps, as seen in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines which exempts work permit fees for teachers of math, English, business and science (High Commission for Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, n.d.).

Increased coordination between ministries and departments has been identified as a common need across sectors and countries, and echoes

international standards which call for migration mainstreaming and building strong partnerships. Many countries in the sub-region have not created inter-ministerial units to manage migration issues, especially in relation to labour migration. As stated in a 2017 ILO report, “Although migration processes in the region take place mostly for employment purposes, Ministries of Labour have a limited role in the formulation and implementation of migration policies” (ILO, 2017, p. 78). Some countries are in the process of addressing such coordination issues, including Barbados, which is currently planning to develop an SOP between the Immigration Department and the Labour Department regarding the issuance of work permits, as any coordination currently occurs on an ad hoc basis. At the current time, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago are the only states in the sub-region which have developed inter-ministerial committees addressing the issue of labour migration.

One sector that serves as an exception in many countries is the health sector, which regularly recruits professionals from other countries in the region in order to fill gaps in nursing and medical specialties, and recruitment is usually headed directly through the ministry responsible for health, such as in The Bahamas and Barbados. Imported healthcare professionals frequently come from Cuba, as in the cases of Grenada, Jamaica, and Saint Kitts and Nevis, among other states. Unlike some of its neighboring countries, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines has an abundance of nurses, and the government embarked on an education and training initiative of nurses for employment abroad beginning in 2003 as a poverty alleviation strategy.

As migrant workers tend to work in sectors and industries that are the least desirable to nationals, and more closely associated with conditions of exploitation,

including agriculture, construction, and domestic work, they can oftentimes find themselves in abusive and exploitative situations (ILO, 2017). Compounding this reality is the fact that migrant workers with an irregular status are hesitant to report abuses from employers to the appropriate authorities for fear of imprisonment or forced return to their country of origin or residence. In this context, in states in which the government agencies responsible for labour do not process work permits, such as Saint Kitts and Nevis, officials expressed a need to enhance coordination not only to address gaps in the labour market for national development, but also to ensure protection from exploitation and increased support for migrant workers, who may fall victims to schemes involving human trafficking and forced labour at higher rates than the national population.

Identified Needs

- Systematic collection of data on migrants accessing labour markets, both regular and irregular
- Inclusion of socio-economic information in data set on migrants to ensure effective utilization of their skills in the labour market
- Increased coordination between ministries and departments regarding the recruitment and protection of migrant workers
- Adherence to international standards regarding the protection of migrants rights

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

While having access to labour markets and the opportunity to contribute to the national development of receiving countries are determining factors in an individual's ability to achieve self-sufficiency in a new country, access to social services such as social security and education are also essential components of integration into society and foster greater well-being, and are essential to becoming a productive contributor to the economy and society.

Social Security

In the Commonwealth Caribbean countries, access to social security benefits is usually available when a migrant is working legally within the country and contributing to the social security scheme. Irregular migrants, on the other hand, generally do not have access to such schemes, and therefore are not protected by any social safety net such as sickness benefits, maternity benefits, or pensions.

Objective 1 of the MiGOF states that under "good migration governance", social benefits should be portable and should ensure that "regulations do not hinder, but rather support, employers in ensuring that pension, health and other benefits are portable" (IOM, 2015, p. 5). All countries in the sub-region are also participants to the CARICOM Agreement on Social Security, which established the portability of social security benefits within the region for CARICOM nationals. Under the Agreement, insured CARICOM nationals that migrate to other Member States are entitled to payments of pensions for invalidity, disablement, old age or retirement, survivor's benefits, and death benefits from the social security organizations in all CARICOM Member States. Certain countries, such as Barbados and Jamaica, also have reciprocal portability agreements with Canada and the United

States, which allow for nationals who work abroad to access their pensions when they return. However, outside of the agreement arranged through CARICOM, many countries have limited bilateral agreements for social security portability, therefore restricting migrants' access to pensions.

Identified Needs

- Dissemination of information to public on the benefits of contributing to the social security schemes
- Increased provisions allowing for the portability of social security benefits for migrants as a practice in good migration governance

Inclusion in the education system

Access to education is an essential component of human development and the integration of migrants in receiving countries. As stated in a 2018 IOM report on education and migration, "the economic success of the migrant will to a large extent be determined by his/her educational background, how the skills acquired are relevant to the host country labour market, and how much he/she will invest in further skills after arrival" (IOM, 2018d, p. 21). In order to achieve such goals, countries must consider migrant-specific needs in the education infrastructure and make appropriate revisions, focusing on creating inclusive education systems for nationals and non-nationals alike (IOM, 2018d).

As parties to the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*, theoretically all countries ensure free access to education for children at the primary and secondary levels (United Nations, 1990). In practice, most countries abide by this agreement, however not all legislation reflects the right for non-nationals to access primary education through public systems without payment. Some countries' education acts specifically mention the prohibition of discrimination due to "place of origin," yet also state that fees may be incurred for non-nationals from states outside of CARICOM accessing the education system.

Although children of compulsory school age have free access to public education systems in the majority of countries, there are rarely mechanisms implemented in schools which facilitate the integration of migrant children. A 2009 UNICEF report found that the number of children moving to the Anglophone Caribbean from Francophone and Hispanic countries has been increasing in the past decades, and these transitions can result in obstacles for school-aged migrant children due to language barriers. Common trends of such migration include the flow of migrants from the Dominican Republic to Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Dominica, as well as the flow of Haitian migrants to The Bahamas (UNICEF, 2009). None of the countries of the sub-region made reference to any interpretation or language assistance available in schools at an institutional or policy-level.

In the case of tertiary education, migrant access generally requires a specific student or residency visa, and tuition fees vary according to the institutions of higher education. In some countries, such as Barbados, government-granted scholarships are not accessible to non-nationals, including permanent residents. In Jamaica, on the other hand, scholarships are accessible to both citizens and persons who have been regularly residing in the country for the five years prior to the grant.

Identified Needs

- Implementation of mechanisms in schools which facilitate the integration of migrant children
- Adherence to international standards on access to education per the Convention on the Rights of the Child

Provisions for anti-discrimination towards migrants

According to international standards, “Human rights recognize that certain principles are true and valid for all peoples, in all societies, under all conditions of economic, political, ethnic and cultural life. Human rights are *universal* - they apply everywhere; *indivisible* - in the sense that political and civil rights cannot be separated from social and cultural rights; and *inalienable* - they cannot be denied to any human being,” including in situations of conflict and following migration (ILO, IOM, & OHCHR, 2001, p. 3). Additionally, while most countries, apart from Dominica, have ratified *the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965)*, the Convention does not apply to distinctions made by states between citizens and non-citizens (United Nations, 1965). As such, migrants are frequently subject to discriminatory practices, and there is no convention that addresses the specific types of discrimination faced by migrants in transit and receiving countries (ILO, IOM, & OHCHR, 2001).

The majority of countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean do not have specific legislation dedicated to anti-discrimination, however certain provisions are included within other pieces of legislation such as the constitution and labour legislation. Frequently, anti-discrimination provisions in labour legislation focuses on gender equality; however, none of the countries have enacted any specific anti-discrimination legislation regarding migrant populations. Many countries also do not have specific provisions regarding the prohibition of employment discrimination between nationals and migrant workers, including The Bahamas and Trinidad and Tobago, two of the largest receiving countries of the sub-region (ILO, 2017). The ILO has noted that migrants are oftentimes subject to discrimination in workplaces,

especially during periods of high unemployment or economic recession (ILO, 2017). Officials in various countries also mentioned that many migrants do not report grievances in fear of adverse immigration consequences, especially if they have an irregular status. This leaves them at risk of falling victim to continued discrimination and exploitation in the work place.

Countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean, as well as migrants within their borders, would benefit from the incorporation of provisions within their legislation to ensure the fulfillment of migrants’ rights, as a requirement for the implementation of humane, safe and regular migration.

Identified Needs

- Reviewal and revision of existing legislation and policies to strengthen provisions for anti-discrimination
- Sensitization campaigns for public on migrant participation in the labour force

CONCLUSIONS

Migration patterns in the sub-region of the Commonwealth Caribbean are shifting in response to emergence of new migration channels and several key changes in migration policies of traditionally receiving countries. The high levels of outward migration, prevalent in most countries of the study, along with the increase in irregular migration, have become shared concerns across states, as many countries continue to struggle in maximizing the benefits of migration while minimizing its potential cost.

Policies and strategies addressing migration-related issues within the sub-region generally rely on isolated ad hoc measures rather than cohesive and comprehensive frameworks. Usually, such policies emphasize the management of the movement of persons across borders, and do not include provisions for the protection of migrants in vulnerable situations and the promotion of the general well-being of migrants in-country. The lack of migrant-specific provisions is encountered across sectors, including in the areas of health, labour, social security, emergencies and education. In relation to the health sector, for example, many countries of the sub-region have developed strategic health plans which are aimed primarily at the health of citizens but make no provisions for addressing the health needs of migrant populations. Additionally, provisions pertaining to the regulation of domestic labour generally do not include mechanisms targeting qualified migrant workers to fill essential skills gaps, and although migrants are more likely to find themselves in situations of labour exploitation, there are no specific provisions regarding their protection. The education sector in some countries has not incorporated, explicit provisions ensuring access to education for non-national children of compulsory school age. The lack of provisions protecting migrants and ensuring them access to public services enshrined in law has the potential to increase incidences of exploitation

and diminishes governments' capacities to take advantage of the migrant communities' skills for national development.

As a diverse region of transit, and oftentimes a migration corridor to North America, the Caribbean fights against networks of human trafficking and other forms of organized crime, posing a threat to the security of the region. While many countries have made concerted efforts to increase security and better manage migration into the country, including the development of counter-trafficking policies and increased investment in traveler identification systems, widespread constraints hindering the application of effective strategies remain present in all ten countries of the study, especially in the areas of border management, national security and the protection of migrants in vulnerable situations.

Apart from security concerns, the Caribbean deals with significant threats due to natural disasters, and recent evidence demonstrates that the intensity of these events will continue to grow. Island states in the sub-region are particularly susceptible to these events, due to various geographical, social and economic factors. Although many countries have made real progress towards taking collective action on disaster management, there is still a pressing need to enhance these efforts to develop more comprehensive mechanisms to mitigate and manage the consequences of environmental hazards.

Following the principles of the MiGOF, the implementation of a whole-of-government approach would allow Commonwealth Caribbean countries to address the aforementioned challenges and advance good migration governance practices. Additionally, states should further incorporate international standards into their legislation and regulations, as none of the ten countries has yet ratified all the nine core international human rights

treaties. In order to effectively address these increasing challenges, countries would benefit from adjusting their legislation to consistently reflect the core principles of international instruments, and from strengthening regional coordination efforts, including the standardization of protocols and practices to address various migration-related issues.

However, to achieve these goals, it is important that not only the governments make efforts to improve migration governance systems, but also that the international community recognize the complexities of the sub-region and understand the need to tailor guidelines and frameworks to the realities of each of these island states. In most cases, the gaps in existing mechanisms are not due to a lack of will on behalf of the governments, but rather are associated with the capacity limitations of these countries. Officials across all countries expressed the need for greater investment in human capacity as a priority area, including the recruitment of more personnel and training of existing staff on various migration-related issues, in order to further mainstream migration across sectors. Additionally, the dearth of comprehensive and updated data on migration flows as well as the migrant communities in-country and their needs seriously inhibits the development of evidence-informed policies and strategies.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings from the Needs Assessment on Migration Governance as presented in this report demonstrate the need for governments to take further action in mainstreaming migration across sectors in order to ensure migrant protection, as well as guarantee the unhindered access of migrants to public services through the incorporation of various migrant-specific provisions to promote their well-being. Officials interviewed in the course of the research exhibited the political will to engage in such practices. However, engagement must be accompanied by greater investment in capacity at the national and regional levels, and a commitment on behalf of the international community to recognize the specific challenges facing the region in order to empower governments to develop effective solutions addressing real needs of their states and all persons residing in them, including migrants.

This research study highlighted several fundamental and unresolved information gaps on migration trends and migration governance in the Caribbean. Some general recommendations for future research are:

- Research could be conducted to explore how regional agreements facilitating the freedom of movement of persons affects circular migration flows among Caribbean countries, in order to support more reliable demographic and labour demand forecasting. An in-depth analysis on the labour market demands for migrant workers as well as on the impacts of migration in the labour market supply could help countries to establish regulations for the recruitment of migrants.
- Further qualitative research should be made on different types of exploitation and risks associated with irregular migration. More specifically, research should address information gaps on the existing mechanisms and prevalence of activities related to the smuggling of migrants, human trafficking and other forms of exploitation, including in the work place, which can potentially affect irregular migrants.
- Greater data should be collected and analyzed in relation to cases of unaccompanied children and stateless persons within the region, in order to take appropriate measures, to assist individuals in especially vulnerable conditions, as needed.
- There is an urgent need to evaluate the existing policies, protocols and institutional capacity on border security and immigration controls, both at the national and regional level, to determine the potential impact and security risks of freedom of movement regimes and economic citizenship programs.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Island States of the Commonwealth Caribbean



Appendix 2. Glossary

Assisted Voluntary Return

“Administrative, logistical, financial and reintegration support to rejected asylum-seekers, victims of trafficking in human beings, stranded migrants, qualified nationals and other migrants unable or unwilling to remain in the host country who volunteer to return to their countries of origin. Also referred to as repatriation and return” (IOM, 2011).

Asylum-seeker

“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 or unlawful situation, unless permission to stay is provided on humanitarian or other related grounds” (IOM, 2011).

Border Management System(BMS)

“The border management system is the key control mechanism for overall migration management” (Polner, 2016).

Climate Change

“‘[A] change of climate which is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and which is in addition to other natural climate variability that has been observed over comparable me periods’ (UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, 1992. Article 1)” (IOM, 2014, p. 19).

Commonwealth Caribbean

“The Commonwealth Caribbean is the term applied to the English- speaking islands in the Carribbean and the mainland nations of Belize (formerly British Honduras) and Guyana (formerly British Guiana) that once constituted the Caribbean portion of the British Empire” (Meditz & Hanratty, 1987); In this study, the term refers to the ten independent States: Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago.

Diasporas

“Diasporas are broadly defined as individuals and members or networks, associations and communities, who have left their country of origin, but maintain links with their homelands. This concept covers more settled expatriate communities, migrant workers based abroad temporarily, expatriates with the nationality of the host country, dual nationals, and second-/third- generation migrants” (IOM, 2011).

Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR)

“Disaster risk reduction is the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and reduce the causal factors of disasters. Reducing exposure to hazards, lessening vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improving preparedness and early warning for adverse events are all examples of disaster risk reduction” (UNISDR, n.d.).

Displacement

“A forced removal of a person from his or her home or country, often due to armed conflict or natural disasters” (IOM, 2011).

“El Niño” phenomenon

“The term El Niño refers to the large-scale ocean-atmosphere climate phenomenon linked to a periodic warming in sea-surface temperatures across the central and east-central equatorial Pacific (between approximately the date line and 120°W). El Niño represents the warm phase of the El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) cycle, and is sometimes referred to as a Pacific warm episode. El Niño originally referred to an annual warming of sea-surface temperatures along the west coast of tropical South America” (National Weather Service, 2012).

Emigration

“The act of departing or exiting from one State with a view to settling in another” (IOM, 2011).

Feminization of Migration

“The growing participation of women in migration (some 49 per cent of all migrants globally are women). While the proportion of migrants who are women has not changed greatly in recent decades, their role in migration has changed considerably. Women are now more likely to migrate independently, rather than as members of a household, and they are actively involved in employment. The increase of women in migration has led to certain gender-specific vulnerable forms of migration, including the commercialized migration of domestic workers and caregivers, the migration and trafficking of women for the sex industry, and the organized migration of women for marriage. Because of the unregulated nature of some of this employment, women migrants are often at greater risk of exploitation” (IOM, 2011).

Forced Return

“The compulsory return of an individual to the country of origin, transit or third country, on the basis of an administrative or judicial act. Also referred to as deportation, expulsion, involuntary repatriation, removal” (IOM, 2011).

Immigration

“A process by which non-nationals move into a country for the purpose of settlement” (IOM, 2011).

Irregular Migration

“Movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries. There is no clear or universally accepted definition of irregular migration. From the perspective of destination countries it is entry, stay or work in a country without the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations. From the perspective of the sending country, the irregularity is for example seen in cases in which a person crosses an international boundary without a valid passport or travel document or does not fulfil the administrative requirements for leaving the country. There is, however, a tendency to restrict the use of the term ‘illegal migration’ to cases of smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons” (IOM, 2011).

Labour Migration

“Movement of persons from one State to another, or within their own country of residence, for the purpose of employment. Labour migration is addressed by most States in their migration laws. In addition, some States take an active role in regulating outward labour migration and seeking opportunities for their nationals abroad” (IOM, 2011).

Migrant

“At the international level, no universally accepted definition for ‘migrant’ exists. The term migrant was usually understood to cover all cases where the decision to migrate was taken freely by the individual concerned for reasons of “personal convenience” and without intervention of an external compelling factor; it therefore applied to persons, and family members, moving to another country or region to better their material or social conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family. The United Nations defines migrant as an individual who has resided in a foreign country for more than one year irrespective of the causes, voluntary or involuntary, and the means, regular or irregular, used to migrate. Under such a definition, those travelling for shorter periods as tourists and businesspersons would not be considered migrants. However, common usage includes certain kinds of shorter-term migrants, such as seasonal farm-workers who travel for short periods to work planting or harvesting farm products” (IOM, 2011).

Migration

“The movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification” (IOM, 2011).

Migration Flows

“Migration flows ‘refer to the number of migrants entering or leaving a given country during a given period of time, usually one calendar year’ (UN SD, 2017). However, countries use different concepts, definitions and data collection methodologies to compile statistics on migration flows. Definitions of who counts as an international migrant vary over time in the same country and across countries” (IOM GMDAC, 2018).

Net Migration

“Difference between the number of persons entering the territory of a State and the number of persons who leave the territory in the same period. Also called ‘migratory balance.’ This balance is called net immigration when arrivals exceed departures, and net emigration when departures exceed arrivals” (IOM, 2011).

Push-pull Factors

“Migration is often analysed in terms of the ‘push-pull model’, which looks at the push factors, which drive people to leave their country (such as economic, social, or political problems) and the pull factors attracting them to the country of destination” (IOM, 2011).

Ratification

“Ratification refers to the ‘acceptance’ or ‘approval’ of a treaty. In an international context, ratification ‘is the international act so named whereby a State establishes on the international plane its consent to be bound by a treaty’ (Art. 2 (1)(b), Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, 1969). Instruments of ratification establishing the consent of a State take effect when exchanged between the contracting States, deposited with a depositary or notified to the contracting States or to the depositary, if so agreed (Art. 16). In a domestic context, it denotes the process whereby a State puts itself in a position to indicate its acceptance of the obligations contained in a treaty. A number of States have in their Constitutions procedures which have to be followed before the government can accept a treaty as binding” (IOM, 2011).

Receiving country

“Country of destination or a third country. In the case of return or repatriation, also the country of origin. Country that has accepted to receive a certain number of refugees and migrants on a yearly basis by presidential, ministerial or parliamentary decision. Also referred to as country of destination, host country” (IOM, 2011).

Refugee Status Determination (RSD)

“. . . the legal or administrative process by which governments or UNHCR determine whether a person seeking international protection is considered a refugee under international, regional or national law. States have the primary responsibility for determining the status of asylum-seekers, but UNHCR may do so where states are unable or unwilling” (UNHCR, 2018c).

Regional Consultative Process

“Non-binding consultative fora, bringing representatives of States, civil society (Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)) and international organizations together at the regional level to discuss migration issues in a cooperative manner. Some regional consultative processes (RCPs) also allow participation of other stakeholders (e.g. non-governmental organizations or other civil society representatives)” (IOM, 2011).

Regular Migration

“Migration that occurs through recognized, authorized channels” (IOM, 2011).

Regularization

“Any process or program by which the authorities in a State allow non-nationals in an irregular or undocumented situation to stay lawfully in the country. Typical practices include the granting of an amnesty (also known as ‘legalization’) to non-nationals who have resided in the country in an irregular situation for a given length of time and are not otherwise found inadmissible” (IOM, 2011).

Remittances

“Monies earned or acquired by non-nationals that are transferred back to their country of origin” (IOM, 2011).

Return Migration

“The movement of a person returning to his or her country of origin or habitual residence usually after spending at least one year in another country. This return may or may not be voluntary. Return migration includes voluntary repatriation” (IOM, 2011).

Sending country

“A country from which people leave to settle abroad permanently or temporarily. Also referred to as country of origin, source country” (IOM, 2011).

Small Island Developing States (SIDS)

“Small Island Developing States (SIDS) are a distinct group of developing countries facing specific social, economic and environmental vulnerabilities. SIDS were recognized as a special case both for their environment and development at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), also known as the Earth Summit, held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (3–14 June 1992). This recognition was made specifically in the context of Agenda 21 (Chapter 17 G)” (UN-OHRLS, n.d.).

Smuggling of Migrants

“The procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident’ (Art. 3(a), UN Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000). Smuggling, contrary to trafficking, does not require an element of exploitation, coercion, or violation of human rights” (IOM, 2011).

Trafficking in Persons (TIP)

“The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation’ (Art. 3(a), *UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000*). Trafficking in persons can take place within the borders of one State or may have a transnational character” (IOM, 2011).

Transnational Organized Crime

“The implied definition of “transnational organized crime” encompasses virtually all profit-motivated criminal activities with international implications. This broad definition takes account of the global complexity of the issue and allows cooperation on the widest possible range of common concerns, but leaves the exact subject matter rather vague. A better idea of the offences intended is provided in the attached Protocols, which relate to specific crimes: trafficking in persons, smuggling of migrants and firearms trafficking. These issues – which typically involve countries of origin, transit and destination – are areas where international cooperation is essential, since it is beyond the capacity of any single state to take comprehensive action to tackle the problem” (UNODC, 2010).

Unaccompanied children

“Persons under the age of majority in a country other than that of their nationality who are not accompanied by a parent, guardian, or other adult who by law or custom is responsible for them. Unaccompanied children present special challenges for border control officials, because detention and other practices applied to undocumented adult non-nationals may not be appropriate for children” (IOM, 2011).

Whole-of-government approach

According to the IOM MiGOF, “The law and policy affecting the movement of people are not restricted to any single issue, but include travel and temporary mobility, immigration, emigration, nationality, labour markets, economic and social development, industry, commerce, social cohesion, social services, health, education, law enforcement, foreign policy, trade and humanitarian policy. Similarly, the approach to migration law and policy can significantly affect other policy areas. Good migration governance therefore relies on whole-of-government approaches, whereby all ministries with responsibilities touching on the movement of people are implicated. In this way, a State can ensure that migration and mobility policy advances its broader interests” (IOM, Migration Governance Framework, 2015, p. 3)

“Windrush generation”

“Those arriving in the UK between 1948 and 1971 from Caribbean countries have been labelled the Windrush generation. This is a reference to the ship MV Empire Windrush, which arrived at Tilbury Docks, Essex, on 22 June 1948, bringing workers from Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago and other islands, as a response to post-war labour shortages in the UK. The ship carried 492 passengers - many of them children” (BBC, 2018)

Appendix 3. Domains and Indicators

DOMAIN	INDICATORS
1. ADHERENCE TO INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS AND THE FULFILMENT OF MIGRANTS' RIGHTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Compliance with international law b. Civil participation c. Anti-discrimination d. Migrants in vulnerable situations e. Management of irregular migration f. Combat human trafficking and smuggling g. Family rights h. Labour rights i. Residency and citizenship j. Right to enter the country k. Right to leave a country
2. EVIDENCE ON MIGRATION AND MOBILITY AND WHOLE-OF-GOVERNMENT APPROACHES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Data management b. Institutional framework c. Migration strategy
3. STRONG PARTNERSHIPS AMONG STATES AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Regional cooperation b. Cooperation at the national/ subnational level c. Cooperation with International Organizations
4. ADVANCEMENTS IN THE SOCIOECONOMIC WELL-BEING OF MIGRANTS AND SOCIETY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Access to basic services and social security b. Labour migration management c. Recognition of skills and qualifications d. Remittance schemes e. Reintegration policies f. Initiatives to reflect diversity g. Family reunification h. Access to legal recourse
5. ADDRESSING THE MOBILITY DIMENSIONS OF CRISIS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Crisis and climate risk management b. Humanitarian assistance c. Management of displaced populations d. Humanitarian assistance e. Management of displaced populations
6. SAFE, ORDERLY AND DIGNIFIED MIGRATION AND MOBILITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Border control and security b. Access to permanent residency c. Visa Policies d. Access to nationality e. Identity documentation

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