



## Elements to understand the challenges of migration

UNDP LAC PDS N°. 37

# Migration in Trinidad and Tobago: current Trends and Policies

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### Abstract

*Migration to and from the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago has traditionally involved the movement of labour. Trends in net migration rates over the two decades 2000–2020 show that there has been excess of emigration over immigration in successive years. Emigration has been chiefly to the USA. Immigration from Caribbean countries has also been significant and with a long history. A dramatic change in the source and characteristics of immigrants has occurred since 2016 due to the arrival of large numbers of refugees from the neighbouring Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.*

*The consequences for Trinidad and Tobago of various types of migration are identified. In the past, the implications were mainly for the size and capacity of the labour force, with work permits the chief means of selective immigration to fill specific sectoral labour demands. Policy responses to migration have been in relation to concerns about the immigration of CARICOM nationals entering under the free movement of labour agreements. Since 2016 policy has focused on addressing the humanitarian needs of large numbers of Venezuelan citizens of a wide range of demographic and socioeconomic characteristics seeking refugee status, as well as the regulatory frameworks relating to their legal status and access to jobs and essential services.*

*The challenges faced by Trinidad and Tobago in optimizing the benefits of migration over its negative impacts are identified. The policy document concludes with issues pertaining to the role of migration in contributing to the stated goals of sustainable national development envisioned for the national development strategy, Vision 2030.*

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## 1. Introduction

Trinidad and Tobago experiences both intra-regional and extra-regional migration movements as a source, transit and destination country for migrant workers both within the Caribbean region and elsewhere, but the country is predominantly an emigration country. During the past two decades, the country's annual net migratory rate has decreased considerably because of the exponential increase in migratory movements towards the islands, going from -4 per thousand inhabitants in 2000 to about -0.6 per thousand inhabitants in 2020. The trends in emigration and immigration show that the emigration from Trinidad and Tobago is mostly of persons with high levels of education and specific skills—for example, teachers and medical professionals. The immigrant population, in comparison, is chiefly comprised of persons granted work permits to fill positions in the labour force. After 2015, the dramatic change in the immigrant population is shown to relate to the refugees and asylum seekers from Venezuela that have arrived in numbers never experienced in Trinidad and Tobago before. As a consequence of the recent waves, the number of Venezuelans was projected to be rising to approximately 34,100 as of mid-2022, a 42 percent increase from 2020, with evidence of the influx continuing in the future.<sup>1</sup>

For policymakers in the country, the focus of attention a decade ago and up to around 2015 was the numbers of immigrants arriving in Trinidad and Tobago under the provisions of the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME) Free Movement of Persons and holders of CARICOM Skill Certificates. The focus and policy response has shifted since 2016 to address the dramatic rise in entry of Venezuelan citizens seeking refugee status. Although Venezuelan immigrants in Trinidad and Tobago was not a new phenomenon, the unusual increase in numbers within a short timespan became a challenge for the national government as well as local authorities.

The UNHCR in association with the Government of Trinidad and Tobago and NGOs responded in positive ways to the challenge. By 2020, there was a focus on family migration and family reunification of the refugees in Trinidad and Tobago, and efforts were made to address their immediate housing and food requirements as well as the specific needs and longer-term education of children. Health consultations for a range of issues were facilitated in 2021, and refugees were included in the national mass COVID-19 vaccination programme.

This policy document also discusses the likely consequences of migration for society and the national economy in terms of the size and capacity of the labour force at all levels. Remittance receipts are also examined for their economic contribution at the national and household levels. Also taken into account is that Trinidad and Tobago has gained from a wider array of returns from migration and the building of social capital. Personal liberty and human rights are important indicators of development and a nation's well-being. The parties affected by the freedom in migration could be categorized in a variety of different ways, although it is helpful to group them into three groups—the migrants themselves and their families/households, their immediate professional and social sectors and the country in general. To amalgamate the benefits of migration across these societal components and minimize the negative aspects for all three is, undoubtedly, a major challenge. Nevertheless, as the basis of migration's potential for achieving inclusive development, the focus on that objective provides an appropriate and valuable compass for guiding government policies in relation to the varied aspects of migration and its inherent challenges.

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## 2. Trinidad and Tobago migration: The context

### 2.1 Trinidad and Tobago migration in historical perspective

There has been a tradition of migration between countries of the Caribbean and circum-Caribbean region since the late nineteenth century. Major projects such as the construction of the Panama Canal generated massive flows from the islands from the late nineteenth century, increasing in the early twentieth century. Large-scale movement from Trinidad and Tobago to the United States of America (USA) also began early in the twentieth century. The direction of migrant flow shifted dramatically to the United Kingdom (UK) in the 1950s and 1960s, as part of a movement from former Caribbean colonies to fill the labour demands of post-World War II reconstruction (Thomas-Hope, 2002a). When legislation in the UK brought this movement to a virtual end through legislation in 1962, opportunities opened up for the entry of Caribbean citizens into Canada. The movement from Trinidad and Tobago to Canada has continued to the present (op. cit.).

Intra-Caribbean migrations, occurring since the mid-nineteenth century, continued and increased momentum with new capital investments in the region through the twentieth century especially in the tourist or petroleum industries in certain islands, each one attracting migrants from other parts of the region (Thomas-Hope, 2015 cited in IOM, 2017). Consequently, much of the present immigrant stock across the Caribbean, including Trinidad and Tobago, dates back to migrations before 1970. In the 1970s, when island economies were adversely affected by the global crisis brought on by the hike in OPEC oil prices, the petroleum industry in Trinidad and Tobago, together with increased construction activity associated with economic growth, attracted workers from neighbouring Caribbean states. The workers chiefly went from St. Vincent and the Grenadines, and Grenada to the refineries in the US Virgin Islands, Aruba, the Dutch Antilles and Trinidad and Tobago (Thomas-Hope, 2002a). The subsequent decline of the petroleum industry in the 1980s associated with the dramatic reduction in the price of crude oil, and the consequent structural adjustment implications for the Trinidad and Tobago economy, encouraged a new wave of outward migration from the country, chiefly to the USA and Canada. This trend was reinforced in the 1990s by policies in the USA, Canada and the UK for selectively attracting immigrant labour with the focus on gaining qualified teachers and medical personnel to fill the gaps in their domestic labour markets. Trinidad and Tobago citizens, as well as those from other Caribbean countries, went in considerable numbers to fill the positions.

The economic recovery of the Trinidad and Tobago economy in the 2000s, based once more on natural gas and the accompanying growth in the construction sector, revived the trend in immigration. The inward movement of labour took place from countries outside of and within the Caribbean region to work in Trinidad and Tobago for periods of varying duration. This latest period of economic growth occurred at a time of changing migration legislation in the Caribbean and, in particular, the focus on free movement of labour between the states of the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME). Over the past two decades (2000–2020), the trends in movement outward from Trinidad and Tobago have continued, especially to the USA, but they have largely been overshadowed by significant inflows from other Caribbean countries and, since 2016, from the neighbouring Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (IOM, 2020; UNHCR, 2021). Within the Caribbean, the Dominican Republic was the destination for 66 percent (or 114,500) of the estimated 172,500 Venezuelan refugees and migrants as of 14 June 2021, according to the Interagency Coordination Platform for Refugees and Migrants of Venezuela (R4V) (UNHCR, 2021). Others went to Aruba, Curaçao and to Trinidad and Tobago (IOM, 2020).

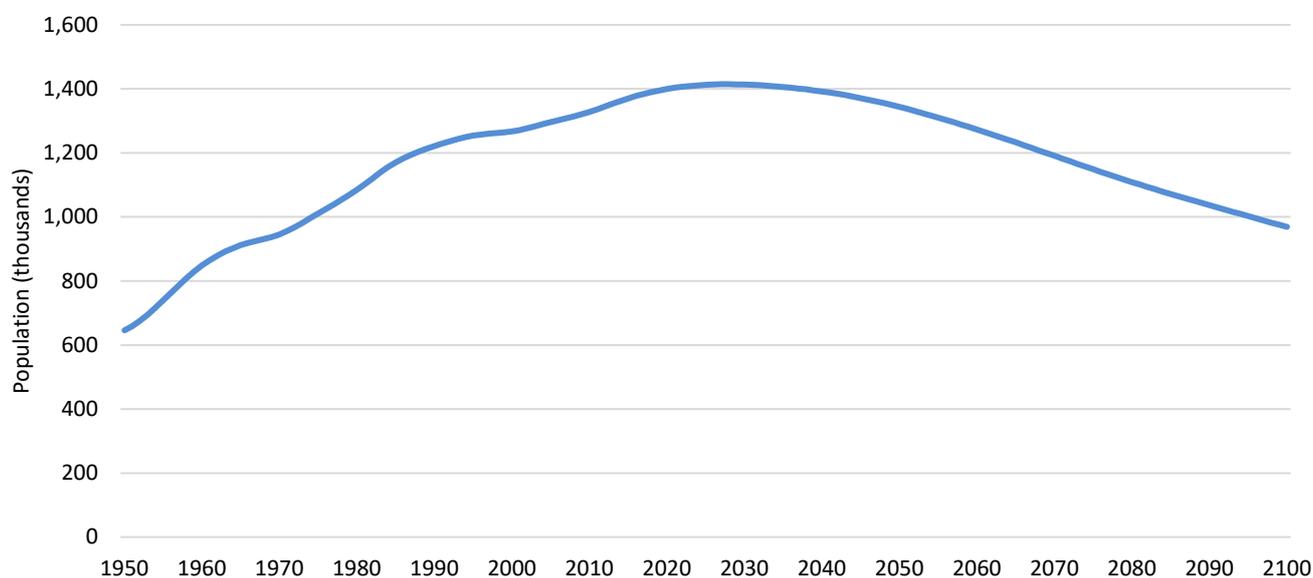
The pattern and trends in Trinidad and Tobago migration and their implications are best understood within the context of demographic, economic and human development. These aspects are outlined below.

## 2.2 Demographic context

As previously indicated, the normally resident population of Trinidad and Tobago in 2021 was projected at just over 1.4 million (1,403,375) by United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) (2019) having increased from an estimated 1,262,366 in 2011, based on the Census of Population (Trinidad and Tobago Demographic Report, 2012). The pattern of population growth between Censuses from 1861 to 2011 showed that the population of Trinidad and Tobago increased in each intercensal decade. However, the rate of growth declined to 1.2 percent between 1980 and 1990, then declined further to 0.4 percent between 1990 and 2000, rising slightly to 0.5 percent between 2000 and 2010, a rate that was sustained between 2010 and 2020 (Figure 1).

This trend of declining population growth, especially over the last 20 years, was associated with a fall in fertility levels as well as a reduction in the rate of immigration. A fertility rate of 2.5 percent was recorded in 1990, which declined to 1.8 in 2000, stabilized at 1.8 in 2010 and decreased in each following year until reaching 1.7 in 2020 (UN DESA, 2022). The median age of the population indicated progressive ageing, increasing from 23.08 in 1990, and 26.75 in 2000, to 30.94 in 2010, 35.18 in 2020, and 35.59 in 2021 (Trinidad and Tobago Statistics, n.d.). One of the important implications of these demographic trends is that the labour force is unlikely to increase over the forthcoming two decades without immigration.

**Figure 1.** Trinidad and Tobago population size and growth (1950–2100)<sup>2</sup>



**Notes:** Data for 2021 onwards are projections.

**Source:** UN DESA Population Division – World Population Prospects 2019.

<sup>2</sup> Data from medium-variant projection, which is based on the assumptions of medium fertility, normal mortality and normal rate of migration.

## 2.3 Economic context

Trinidad and Tobago has had a robust economy for more than a decade, primarily because of rapid growth in its production of liquefied natural gas and the country's substantial exports of petrochemicals. This growth has been strongly reflected in its immigration trends. There have been some years of negative growth (in the 1980s) followed by recovery. Then sharply falling oil and gas prices resulting in contraction of the country's energy sector from 2014 to 2017, which was worsened by the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 (Trinidad and Tobago Statistics, n.d.). For example, the price of oil plunged by US\$ 10 a barrel in November 2021, the largest one-day drop since April 2020, as the new variant of the Coronavirus (Omicron) was highlighted internationally. This added to concerns about forthcoming conditions that could further dampen economic growth and therefore also reduce fuel demand (Caricom Business, 2021). The situation was worsened by the fact that in 2020 the COVID-19 pandemic also threatened the non-energy sectors and the labour market (IOM, 2020b). Economic growth for the year 2020 was equivalent to -7.7 percent; and economic growth for 2019 was equivalent to -0.5 percent (WDI, 2022).

Two indicators of recent economic trends are gross domestic product (GDP)<sup>3</sup> and patterns of employment. Despite some retrenchment in the petroleum industry in the past decade, Trinidad and Tobago continued to have a relatively high GDP in the Caribbean context. Trinidad and Tobago's GDP per capita (PPP constant international 2017) was US\$ 24,457 in 2021 and the second highest after the Bahamas, at US\$ 31,047 (World Bank, 2021). By contrast, other CARICOM states, such as Guyana and Jamaica (the main CSME countries that were sources of immigrants to Trinidad and Tobago in 2020) recorded levels of GDP per capita of US\$ 22,295 and 9,126, respectively. Trinidad and Tobago has had a relatively high GDP per capita compared to other territories in the region as well as other countries of the Global South.

The overall employment rate for Trinidad and Tobago is high and compares favourably with other CARICOM countries. Importantly, the unemployment rate in Trinidad and Tobago in 2020 was 4.57 percent, increasing from the 3.42 percent rate in 2019. In Jamaica, by comparison, the unemployment rate in 2020 was estimated at 9.48 percent (WDI, 2022; ILO, 2021). In Guyana, the unemployment rate was assessed at 16.43 percent in 2020, increasing from 13.99 percent in 2019 (WDI, 2022; ILO, 2021). With high GDP and employment rates in Trinidad and Tobago as compared with most other Caribbean states, it is to be expected that the trend to attract immigrants will continue.

## 2.4 Human development context

The indicators that make up the Human Development Index (HDI) include a combination of social, population, economic and environmental variables. The HDI for Trinidad and Tobago was recorded as 0.71 in 2000, 7.6 in 2010–2013 and 7.9 in 2021, each year ranking the country 67th worldwide. This rank position placed Trinidad and Tobago 4th among CARICOM states (UNDP, 2021). By comparison, the Human Development Index for Jamaica was 0.734 in 2021, ranked 101<sup>st</sup> worldwide; the HDI for Guyana was 0.682, ranked 122<sup>nd</sup>; the HDI for Venezuela at 0.711 ranked that country 113<sup>th</sup> worldwide.

In summary, despite the high relative position of Trinidad and Tobago in CARICOM, the traditional countries of migrant destination in the Global North record much higher levels of economic and social indices. For example, GDP per capita in the USA in 2020 was US\$ 63,544 and in Canada, US\$ 46,195. These relative differences, together with the existing considerable network of Trinidad and Tobago nationals in those countries and the immigration preferences given to persons reuniting with and sponsored by the family, indicated that the USA and Canada were likely to continue to be major destinations for Trinidad and Tobago emigrants in the future.

<sup>3</sup> Data from medium-variant projection, which is based on the assumptions of medium fertility, normal mortality and normal rate of migration.

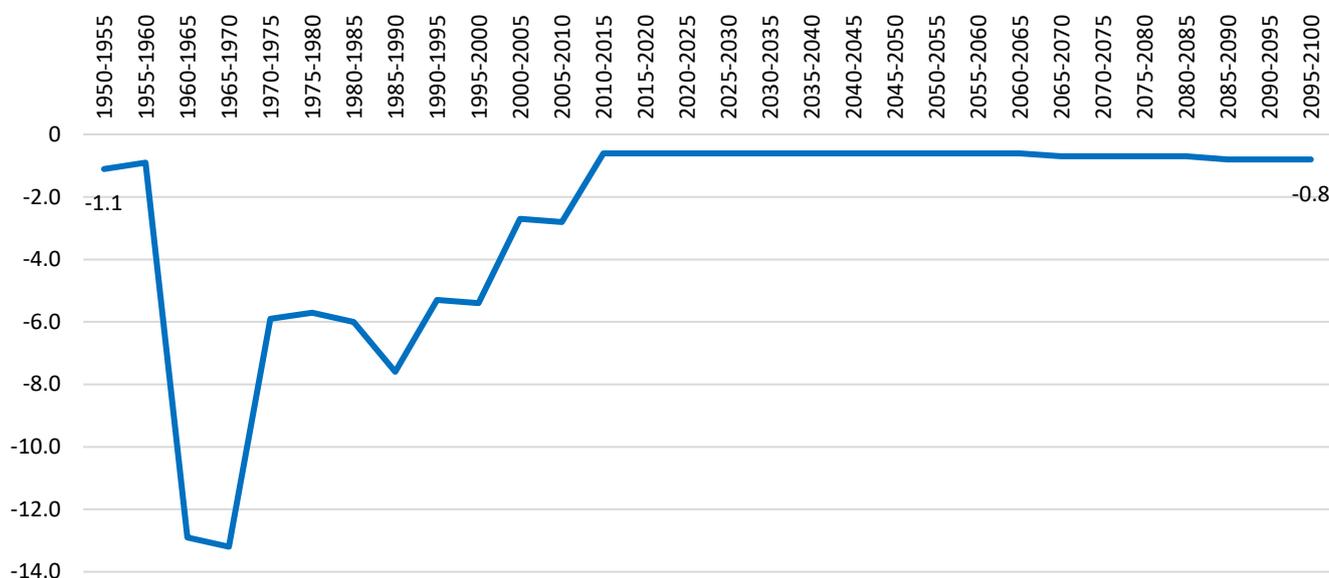
### 3. Migration characteristics and trends

Trinidad and Tobago is predominantly an emigration country. In 2020, there were 330,519 emigrants recorded and 78,849 immigrants (UN, 2020). In 2007, the Caribbean emigration rate was four times higher than Latin America’s overall emigration rate. The Caribbean rate has somewhat slowed in recent years, but the region nevertheless remains an area of net emigration. The following sections outline both the emigration and immigration trends of the past two decades.<sup>4</sup>

#### 3.1. Net migration

The current net migration rate (the difference between numbers of immigrants and emigrants per 1,000 of the population) was  $-0.6$  per 1,000 population for the 2015–2020 period.<sup>5</sup> Figures from the 1950s demonstrated that there was an excess of emigration over immigration each year and especially in the 1960s when the net migration rate was between  $-8.0$  and  $-13.0$  (Figure 2). In 2000, the country recorded a negative migratory balance of  $-4.4$  per 1,000 inhabitants, in part reflecting the notable emigration of Trinidadian nurses in the 1990s. In summary, the projected change in the different components of the total population meant that the current net migration is still expected to be negative by 2050. However, this prediction will depend on future trends in migration such as immigration from Venezuela.

**Figure 2.** Net migration rate between 1950 and 2100



Data Source: UN DESA Population Division – World Population Prospects 2019.

<sup>4</sup> The research for this policy document included information obtained from both qualitative and quantitative data from secondary literature selected as they relate to Trinidad and Tobago in terms of migration, including the context, trends, policies and practical implications of the movements; published Population Censuses; published data and reports identified from national and international data sets collated by the World Bank and United Nations organizations and agencies, in particular, UN DESA, USA and Canadian official Government Immigration Statistics and Yearbooks, and unpublished data collected by and obtained from the relevant ministries of the Government of Trinidad and Tobago.

<sup>5</sup> UN DESA Population Division – World Population Prospects 2019

## 3.2. Emigration from Trinidad and Tobago

The discrepancy in data collected at source versus destination is evident in the case of Trinidad and Tobago.<sup>6</sup> For example, it was reported in the National Census Report of Trinidad and Tobago in 2011 that 15,455 nationals had emigrated over the intercensal period, 2001–2011, which would imply an average emigration of 1,545 persons per year. The immigration data in the USA alone showed that the number of Trinidad and Tobago–born persons admitted to the USA over the same period was 60,162 as permanent legal admissions (or 6,016 on average per year) apart from the admission of persons on temporary visas.

The method of collecting emigration data for Trinidad and Tobago at source has been instituted (since 2001) by means of the Population Census, consistent with the rest of the CARICOM region (Thomas-Hope, 2009). The data for emigration derived from the censuses had to be based on information provided by household members interviewed on behalf of those who were absent because the migrant members were not themselves there to answer the questions. It is likely that there were memory lapses or inadequate knowledge on the part of the persons providing the information. Furthermore, in cases where an entire household had migrated, no information could be collected for its members (*op. cit.*). By contrast, the data obtained in the country of destination is usually a measure of entries that were carefully collected and monitored for the purpose of managing their national borders. Since either visas or other formal entry procedures are required, a range of verifiable information is recorded for each individual entering—both principal applicant and dependents. Such data provide useful information about the emigration of nationals. However, different countries classified persons seeking entry in different ways based on different priorities, so there is no consistency across countries in the data that were available. Therefore, these data cannot be used comparatively or collectively across all destinations (Thomas-Hope 2001).

### 3.2.1. Volume and rate of emigration

The emigration rate from Trinidad and Tobago was calculated for 2010 as being 26.1 percent of the country's population (UN Fact Sheet 2011). There have been no further updated data in this regard. This level of emigration in relation to population size ranked Trinidad and Tobago 8th worldwide, which, although significant, was not as high as for other Caribbean countries that rank in the top group. The volume of emigration is elaborated below in relation to the major destinations.

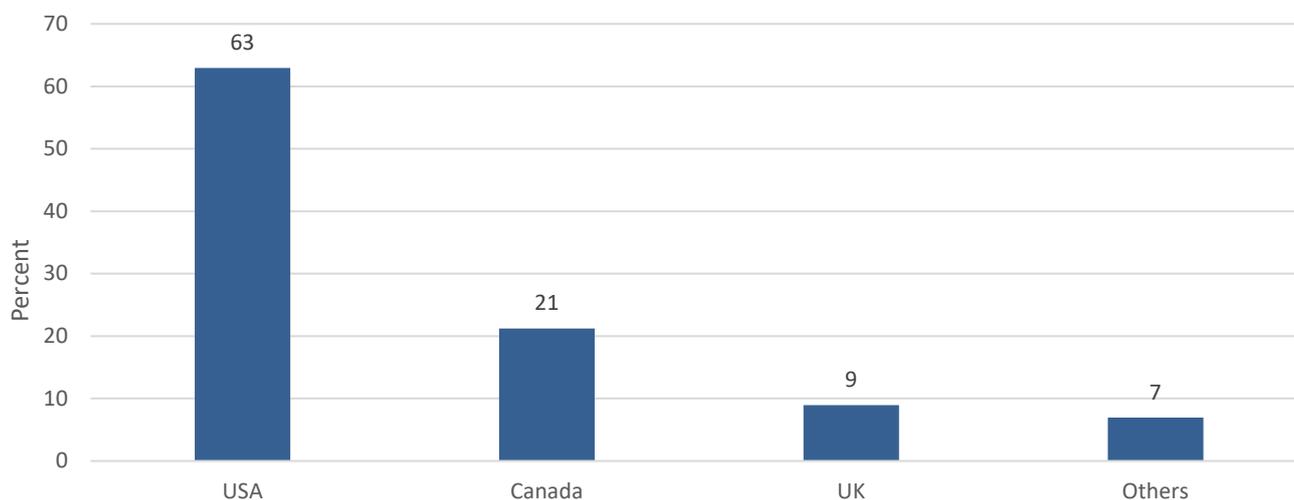
### 3.2.2. Destinations of emigrants from Trinidad and Tobago

The Trinidad and Tobago diaspora population was estimated by the World Bank at 374,492 (Anatol et al., 2013). The largest and most consistent movement of persons from Trinidad and Tobago historically and currently, has been to the USA. Canada was second to the USA in terms of volume of movement, followed by the UK and select Caribbean countries. Of the total 354,046 emigrants recorded in 2013 for example, 70 percent went to the USA (Figure 3).

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<sup>6</sup> Emigration refers to the movement or flows of persons outward from their usual country of residence. The data that provide a measure of emigration may be collected at the place of departure, that is, in the source country; and the place of arrival, that is, in the destination country.

**Figure 3.** Trinidad and Tobago migrant stock (2020) by main countries of destination

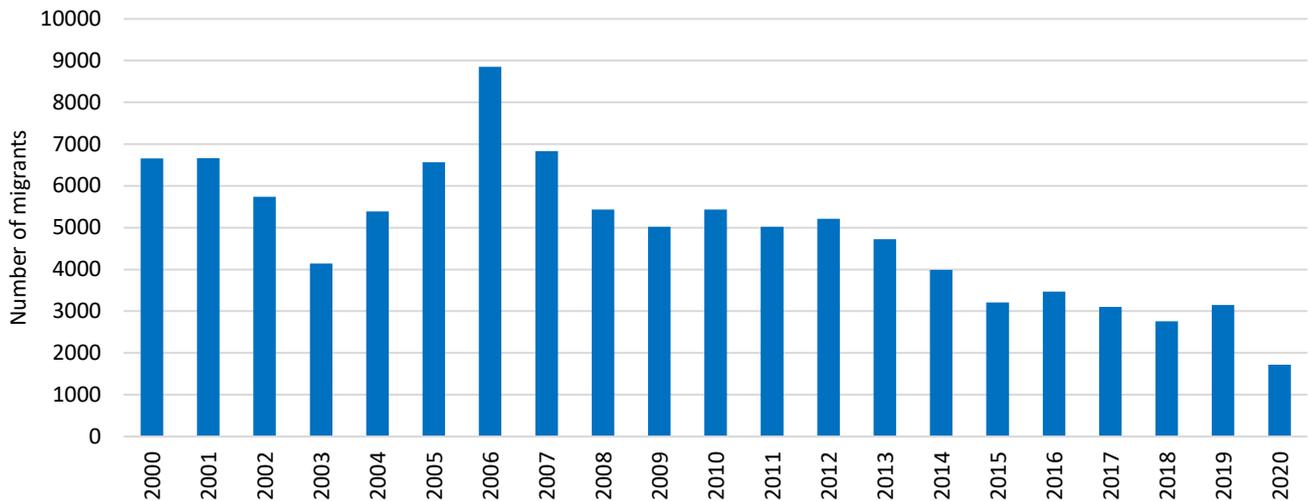


Source: UN DESA Population Division – International Migrant Stock 2020.

#### a) The USA

In the period 1990–2001, the number of Trinidad and Tobago-born migrants obtaining legal permanent resident status in the USA showed a steady upward trend each year. The emigration then peaked in 2006, followed by a decline in subsequent years. Over the 2000–2009 decade, the total number obtaining legal permanent residence was 61,294, implying an annual average of 6,129. Thereafter, the admission of persons granted permanent resident status continued, although in lower numbers, and declined between 2010 and 2020 to a total of 41,791 representing an annual average of 3,799 (Figure 4). Nevertheless, in 2021, the overall figure for persons born in Trinidad and Tobago resident in the USA was calculated to be 1,403,375, or approximately the same as the total population in Trinidad and Tobago itself (USA Immigration Statistics, 2021).

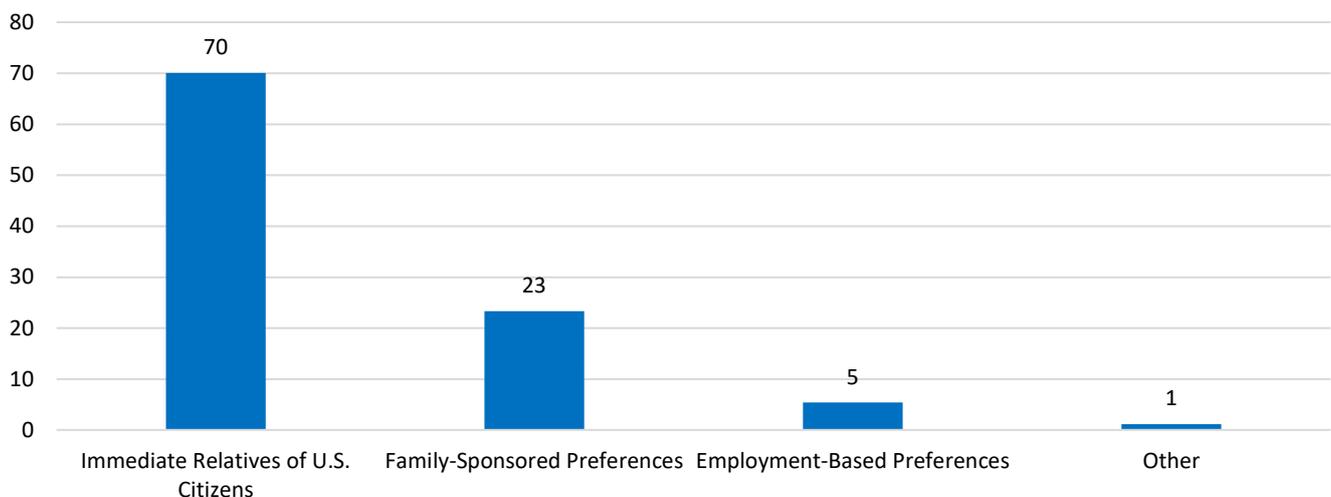
**Figure 4.** Trinidad and Tobago: Persons granted lawful permanent resident status in the USA (2000–2020)



Sources: U.S. Department of Homeland Security – 2020 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics.

The persons entering the USA were admitted principally in the category of immediate relative of a US citizen, and others as sponsored by family members who had previously migrated (Figure 5). For example, in 2019, of the total 3,158 persons from Trinidad and Tobago granted permanent resident status, the majority was admitted as immediate relatives of a US citizen or as family sponsored. Only 180 were admitted in the employment-based category even though many in the other categories would subsequently enter the labour force.

**Figure 5.** Class of admission of Trinidad and Tobago-born migrants to the USA 2019



Source: U.S. Department of Homeland Security – 2019 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics.

There were also large numbers of Trinidad and Tobago nationals who entered the USA as non-immigrants each year, for example, for the purpose of business or vacation, and including multiple entries for some persons. In the decade 2012–2019, there were 1,819,041 such entries or an annual average of 181,904 (op. cit).

Some persons who had already been permanent residents of the USA became naturalized US citizens, constituting an important part of the Trinidad and Tobago diaspora. Between 2012 and 2019, a total of 34,337, or an annual average of 4,292 migrants from Trinidad and Tobago became naturalized citizens of the USA (op. cit).

## b) Canada

The migration from Trinidad and Tobago to Canada has been in much smaller numbers than to the USA. The trend in emigration to Canada showed that over the 2003–2012 period, a total of 8,305 persons were admitted as permanent residents, or at an annual average of 830 (Canada Facts and Figures, 2012). Numbers of later years were not available at the time of reporting.

Emigration from Trinidad and Tobago to Canada for the 10-year period 2003–2012 included a total of 8,305 persons admitted as permanent residents, or at an annual average of 830 persons (Canada Facts and Figures: Immigration Overview-Temporary and Permanent Residents 2012). These migrants were chiefly in managerial and professional jobs especially in medical professions, followed by ‘skilled trades’. Other categories of migrants admitted with temporary, non-immigrant status, though in smaller numbers, have also been important, including guest workers, students and visitors.

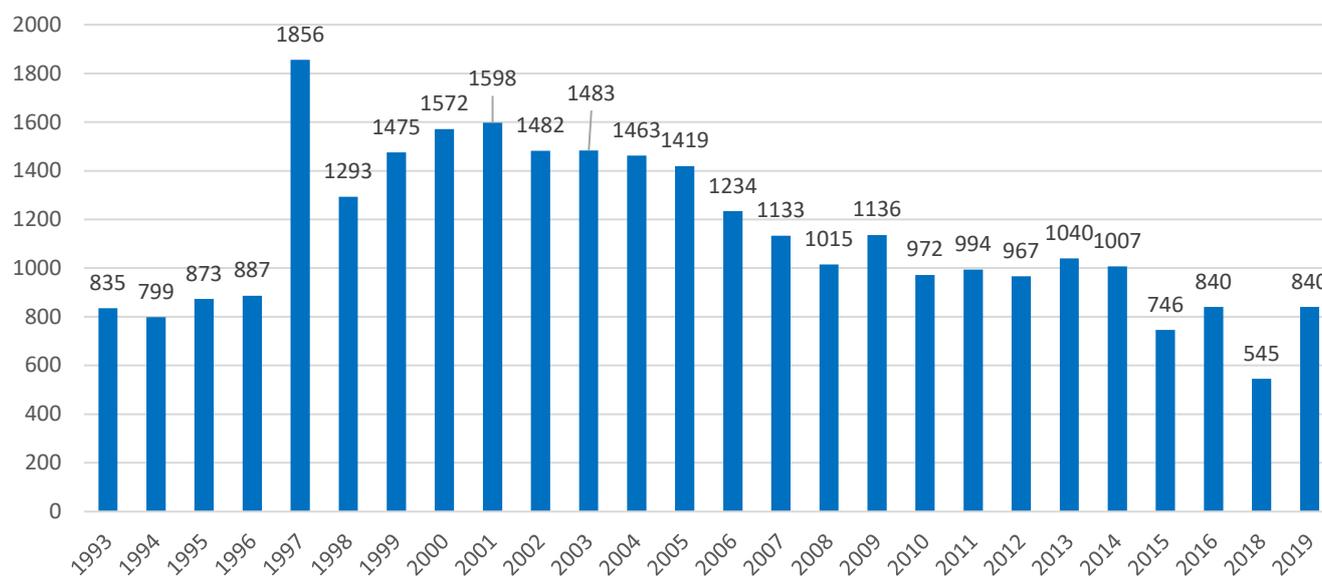
Guest workers from Trinidad and Tobago have gone on short-term farm labour contracts organized through the Commonwealth Caribbean Seasonal Agricultural Workers’ Programme (CCSAWP), referred to as the Canadian Farmwork Programme. The administration of the Farmwork Programme maintains an office in Canada in the Provinces of Ontario and Alberta. The processing of nationals of Trinidad and Tobago applying to the programme is carried out by the Farm Work Unit of the Ministry of Labour and Small Enterprise Development under the Seasonal Agriculture Workers’ Programme of the Ministry of Labour and Small and Medium Enterprise Development (MLSMED) in Trinidad (Government of Trinidad and Tobago Farm Programme, labour.gov.tt).

Trinidad and Tobago nationals between the ages 21 and 45 years, with a background in agriculture and with the ability to perform labour-intensive work in extreme hot and cold conditions, are eligible. Interested candidates apply in response to published advertisements. This programme has involved the temporary recruitment and selection of workers for varying periods, starting at six weeks to eight months throughout the year on Canadian farms in the Provinces of Ontario and Alberta. The time limit was contingent on the Canadian farmer being able to offer the workers a minimum of 240 hours of work within a period of six weeks or less (op. cit.).

The gender composition of the migrant workers on the Farmwork Programme was not included in the data, but an indication of the low level of female participation was based on selectivity of males for the work involved. For 2009, when the total number of workers participating in the CCSAWP was 1,054, there were 46 females and 1,008 males (ibid.).

The total number of persons from Trinidad and Tobago on this programme for the period 1993–2019 amounted to 29,504, representing an annual average of over 1,135 (Figure 6). The numbers fluctuated over the 21 years. They peaked in 1997 and although they declined in the following years, they remained high from 1998–2009, after which they fell below 1,000 annually in most years. The numbers (not yet available) likely fell even more in 2020–2022 on account of the COVID-19 pandemic.

**Figure 6.** Numbers of persons from Trinidad and Tobago on the Farmwork Programme 1993–2019



Source: Administrative Records, Farm Programme Section, Manpower Division, Ministry of Labour.

Prepared by: Labour Market Information - Statistical Unit, Ministry of Labour (Updated 11 January 2022).

In the 10-year period 2003–2012, there were 7,072 students who went to Canada from Trinidad and Tobago to engage in educational programmes. Numbers for later years were not available. The data showed that most students remained for more than one year and that on completion of their studies and temporary visa requirements, many applied for permanent residence in Canada (Canada Facts and Figures, 2012).

### 3.2.3. Characteristics of emigrants from Trinidad and Tobago

There were no data available at the destination countries relating to the characteristics of the Trinidad and Tobago migrants whether to the USA, Canada, or any other country of destination. Therefore, the only data from which the demographic and educational characteristics of the emigrants could be derived were of necessity obtained from the most recent Population Census of Trinidad and Tobago (2011), despite the deficiencies of those described earlier.

#### a) Demographic characteristics of the emigrants

The largest number of persons who emigrated over the period 2002–2011 as recorded in the Population Censuses were between ages 20 and 29 years. The second largest age cohort among emigrants was 10–19 years, especially the 15–19-year-olds within that group. This reflected the emigration of persons from the youthful cohorts of the labour force (Government of Trinidad and Tobago, 2012). In terms of the distribution by sex, the Trinidad and Tobago Census of Population 2011 revealed that the overall emigrant population was predominantly female (56.6 percent) (op. cit.).

#### b) Educational characteristics of the emigrants

The number of students from Trinidad and Tobago in tertiary education in the European Union went from 780 in 2004 to 1633 in 2007, more than doubling within the three years and at a rate second only to Jamaica (Ponce, 2010).

Taking the emigrant population in the working age group (15–64 years), the largest proportion (59.5 percent) had attained secondary school education and 4.6 percent had a post-secondary qualification. Non-university tertiary-educated accounted for a small percentage (0.6 percent), but university-educated emigrants accounted for 15.1 percent of the total population. A large proportion of the tertiary-educated emigrants were in age group 20–29 years, followed by age group 30–39 years. This indicated the departure of young, tertiary educated, especially university educated (Government of Trinidad and Tobago, 2012). Of the 1,846 tertiary students from Trinidad and Tobago, 58 percent went to the USA, 25 percent to the UK, 15 percent to Barbados and the rest to other countries, including France and Australia (UNICEF, Trinidad and Tobago pdf, n.d.).

The absence of data on the specific qualifications or professional skills at the time of emigrating from Trinidad and Tobago, meant that no assessment could be made of the impact of the movement on specific sectors within the labour market. Notwithstanding the absence of actual data, there was evidence of the high attrition of teachers in the mid-1990s, recruited for employment in primary and secondary schools in cities of the USA and the UK. This led to a short-lived reduction in trained teachers, but the impact was not deemed (by Ministry of Education senior personnel) to have been significant as replacement teachers could be produced through local institutions, especially the University of the West Indies. Vacancies being experienced in the health-care system (Browne, 2013) have been replaced, not by internal increase, but through applications by local public and private establishments for the issue of work permits to international immigrants.

The Censuses of the OECD Countries (2000) further indicated the relatively high level of tertiary-educated persons from the Caribbean living abroad. In most cases, part or all of the individuals' higher education was gained in the destination country after the migration followed by a tendency for a high rate of non-return to the home country afterwards. Of the countries ranked the top-20 tertiary-educated countries per capita worldwide, 14 Caribbean countries were included. Trinidad and Tobago was ranked 6th with a total of 79,300 tertiary-educated persons recorded in OECD population censuses in 2000 (World Bank, Migration and Remittances Factbook, 2011). The OECD censuses further showed that Trinidad and Tobago nationals who were doctors, amounted to around 55 percent of the number of doctors that were working in Trinidad and Tobago at that time.

The Trinidad and Tobago Census of Population 2011 revealed that most emigrants moved from Tunapuna and Piarco (3,019), San Juan and Laventille in Port of Spain (2,091) and Diego Martin (1,669) during the intercensal period. Females constituted a larger share among the emigrants amounting to 56.6 percent. The largest number of female emigrants came from the Tunapuna and Piarco areas. However, when female emigrants were calculated as a percentage of the resident female population in any given municipality, Diego Martin had lost the largest proportion (Trinidad and Tobago 2011 Census Demographic Report, 2012).

### 3.3. Immigration to Trinidad and Tobago

Although unskilled labour migration still exceeded skilled migration in most Caribbean countries, the proportion of skilled labour migration has been increasing in recent years chiefly because of the changes in requirements for intra-regional movement of labour and services (see regulations under the terms of the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas: CARICOM, 2002a; 2002b; Thomas-Hope, 2007).<sup>7</sup> There has been a higher proportion of qualified migrants in the Caribbean than in Latin America (IOM, 2012). Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago were unusual in that the proportion of their immigrants in high-end positions was higher than the proportion of local born. In Barbados 25.8 percent of

<sup>7</sup> Immigration refers to the flows of persons into the country, but these movements were not fully monitored so that the data relating to immigrants were deduced on the basis of immigrant stock and the number of work permits issued, CSME Skills Certificates issued, return nationals, and refugees and asylum seekers.

the local labour force held a high-end position, as compared with 28.4 percent of immigrant workers. In Trinidad and Tobago, there were 21.7 percent of the local labour force in high-end jobs and 26.9 percent of immigrant workers (Fraser and Uche, 2011).

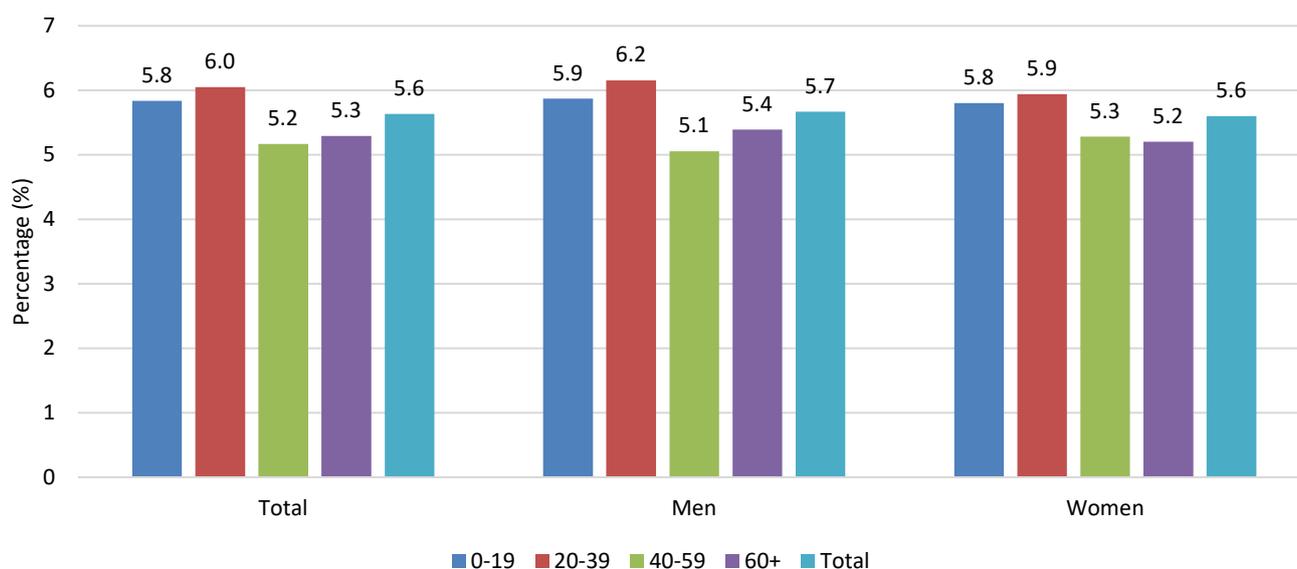
### 3.3.1 Immigrant stock in Trinidad and Tobago and immigrants' characteristics

Estimates of immigrant stock could be derived from the data on the foreign-born population, namely persons reported in the Population Censuses who were born in another country. The number of foreign-born persons enumerated in the 2011 Trinidad and Tobago Census of Population (the latest Census conducted) was 48,781 compared with 41,753 in the 2000 Census. This suggested that there was an increase of 7,028 in the total foreign-born population entering the country during the intercensal decade, representing an increase of 16.8 percent.<sup>8</sup> Estimates from UN DESA indicate that 5.6 percent of the population in 2020 was born in a foreign country.

#### a) Age and sex of the foreign-born population in Trinidad and Tobago

UN DESA estimates indicate that the distribution by sex of the immigrant population in 2020 have similar proportions, with female immigrants representing 5.6 percent of the total population of the country and male immigrants 5.7 percent (Figure 7). It was noted that the age distribution showed the largest percentage of the immigrant population was in the 20–39 age group (6 percent) followed by the 0–19 age group (5.8 percent). The older age groups were also well represented in the immigrant stock, with 40–59 years accounting for 5.2 percent and immigrants in their 60s for 5.3 percent, respectively, with males and females in similar proportions.

**Figure 7.** Age and sex of the Trinidad and Tobago immigrant stock (2020)



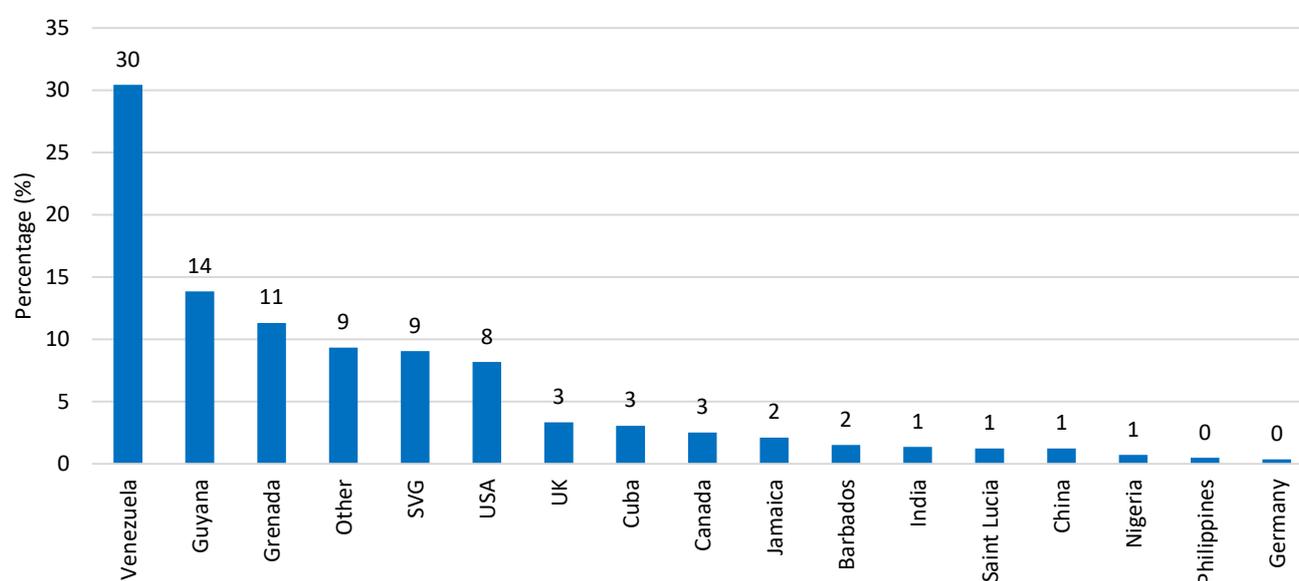
Source: UN DESA Population Division – International Migrant Stock 2020.

<sup>8</sup> International migrant stocks are estimates of “the total number of international migrants present in a given country at a particular point in time” (UN SD, 2017: 9). United Nations data on these stocks are based mostly on the country’s population that is born abroad and (where this information is not available) on holding a foreign citizenship (UN DESA 2020a: 5; UN SD, 2017).

## b) Source countries of the foreign-born population in Trinidad and Tobago

The main sources of the foreign-born population in Trinidad and Tobago were other Caribbean countries, in total accounting for 55.6 percent of foreign-born in 2011. This represented a 10 percentage-point decrease when compared with the figure of 65.5 percent in 2000. In 2013, of the total 22,540 immigrant stock in Trinidad and Tobago, most were from neighbouring CSME countries (Figure 8). The immigrant stock from outside the Caribbean were principally from the USA, an increase over the numbers in 2011. Other immigrant groups were nationals of India, China, Nigeria, Philippines and Germany who entered on the basis of being issued with work permits.

**Figure 8.** Source countries of immigrant stock in Trinidad and Tobago (2020)



Source: UN DESA Population Division – International Migrant Stock 2020.

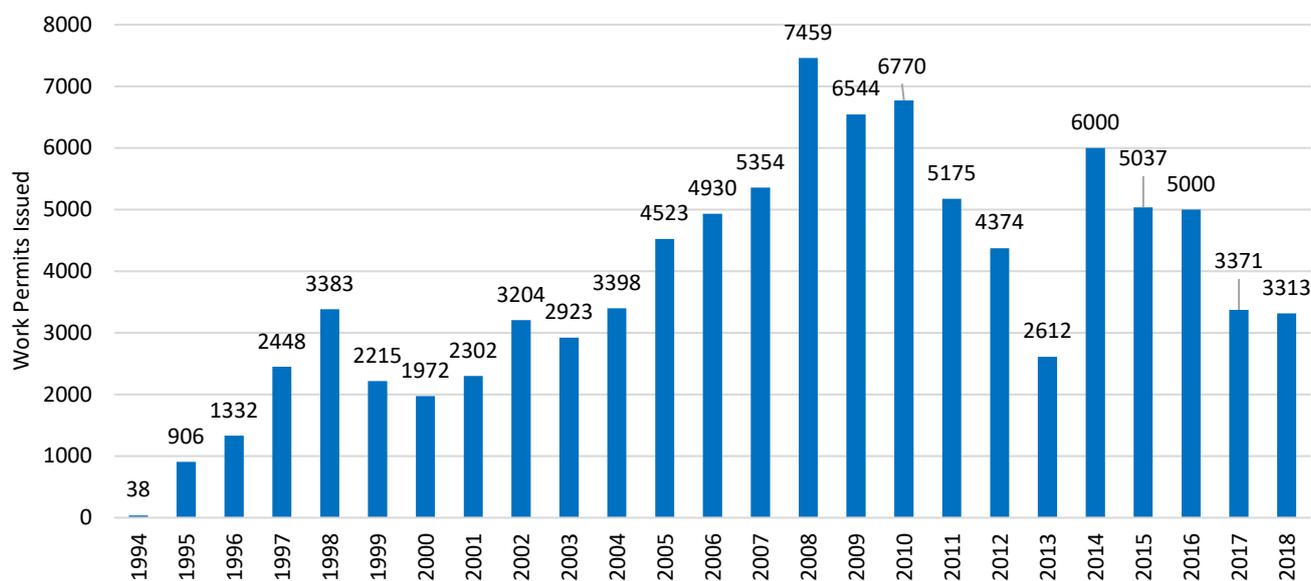
Note: SVG refers to St. Vincent and the Grenadines.

### 3.3.2 Work permits issued to immigrants by Trinidad and Tobago

Immigrants from outside the Caribbean, as well as regional immigrants who did not fall within the categories of CSME Member State citizens, were required to obtain work permits in order to remain in the country for more than a temporary vacation stay. Over the period 1994 to 2013, a total of 71,862 work permits were issued: 4,916 to women and 66,946 to men (Data from the Government of Trinidad and Tobago, Ministry of Labour and Small and Micro Enterprise Development (MLSMED), 2014). An additional 22,721 work permits were issued between 2014 and 2018 (Figure 9).<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> No data available after 2018.

**Figure 9.** Number of work permits Issued by Trinidad and Tobago to immigrants (1994–2018)

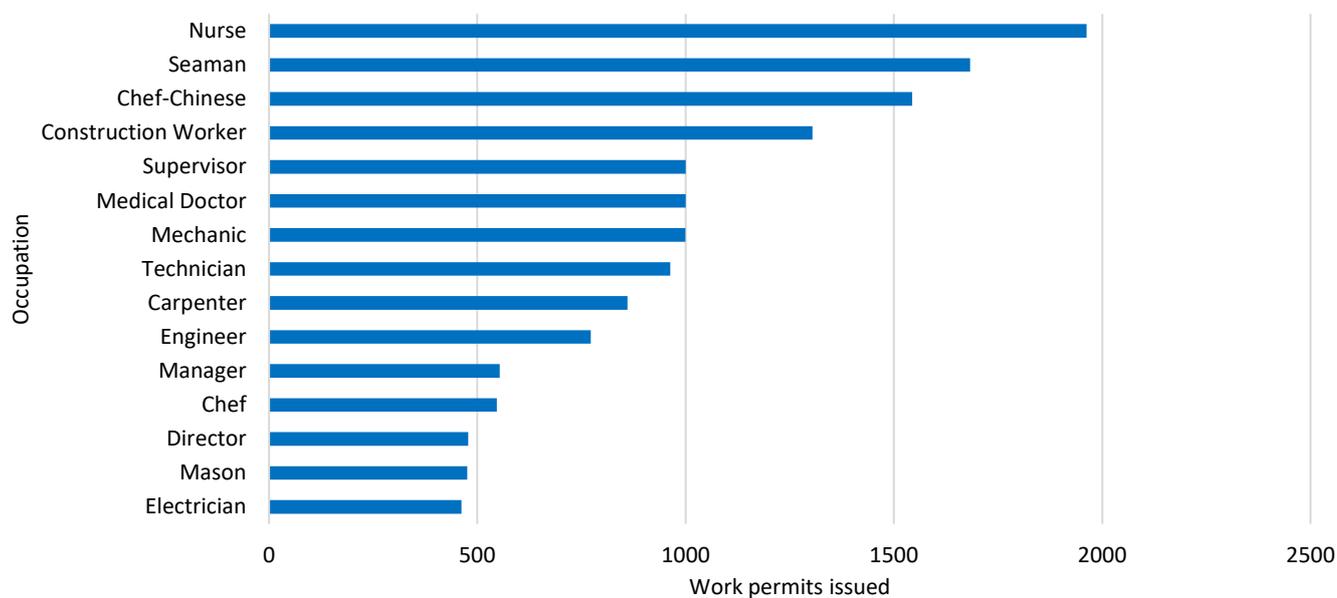


Source: Government of Trinidad and Tobago, MLSMED (2014; updated 2022).

### a) Main occupations for which work permits were issued

The immigrants from outside the CARICOM region were granted work permits principally for work in professional occupations—chiefly in health—and construction (Figure 10). From 1994 to 2013, there were 11 occupations for which more than 500 permits were issued. These were: medical house officers and nurses, as well as engineers, (ships) captains, carpenters, masons, welders and electricians in addition to project managers and consultants (in unspecified fields). In the five-year period 2014–2018, there were 15 occupations for which approximately 500 or more work permits were issued. There were still large numbers of immigrants from outside the Caribbean who were issued with work permits for employment as health professionals, as well as other professionals—particularly engineers. The need for construction workers and other skill-trade workers also continued into the recent years, with large numbers of masons, carpenters, electricians and mechanics among the top occupations for which immigrant workers were required. The numbers of chefs, and especially Chinese chefs, was noted, reflecting the large numbers of Chinese nationals in the immigrant population.

**Figure 10.** Main occupations for which work permits were issued 2014–2018



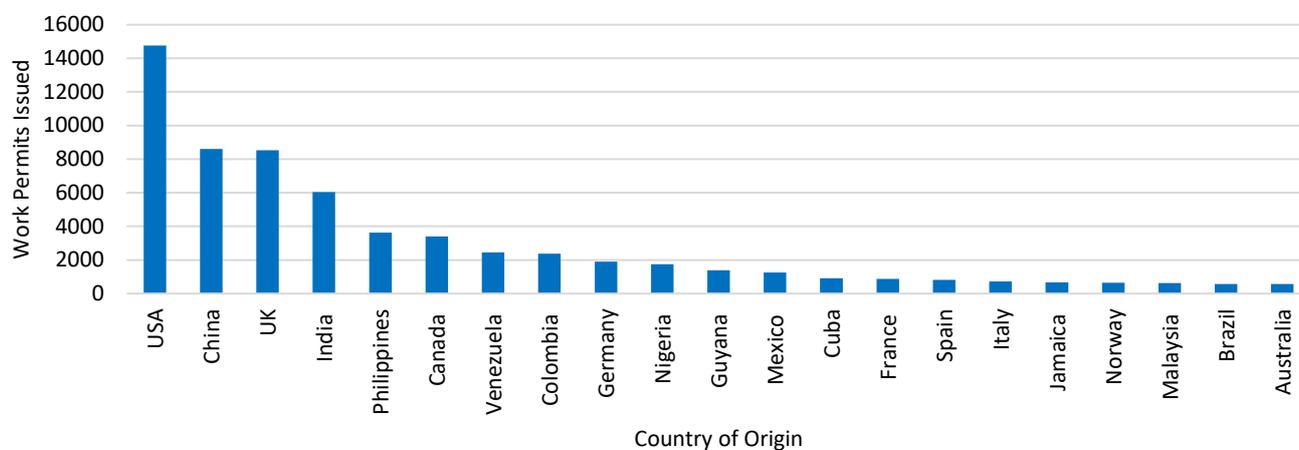
**Source:** Ministry of National Security, Prepared by: Labour Market Information - Statistical Unit, Ministry of Labour, 28 February 2022.

**Note:** Seamen included professional and service workers on ships

### b) Origin countries of persons to whom work permits were issued

Most of the work permits issued were to nationals of the USA, China, the UK and India, though more than 500 permits per country were issued to other nationals (Figure 11).

**Figure 11.** Countries of origin with more than 500 work permits issued 1994–2013

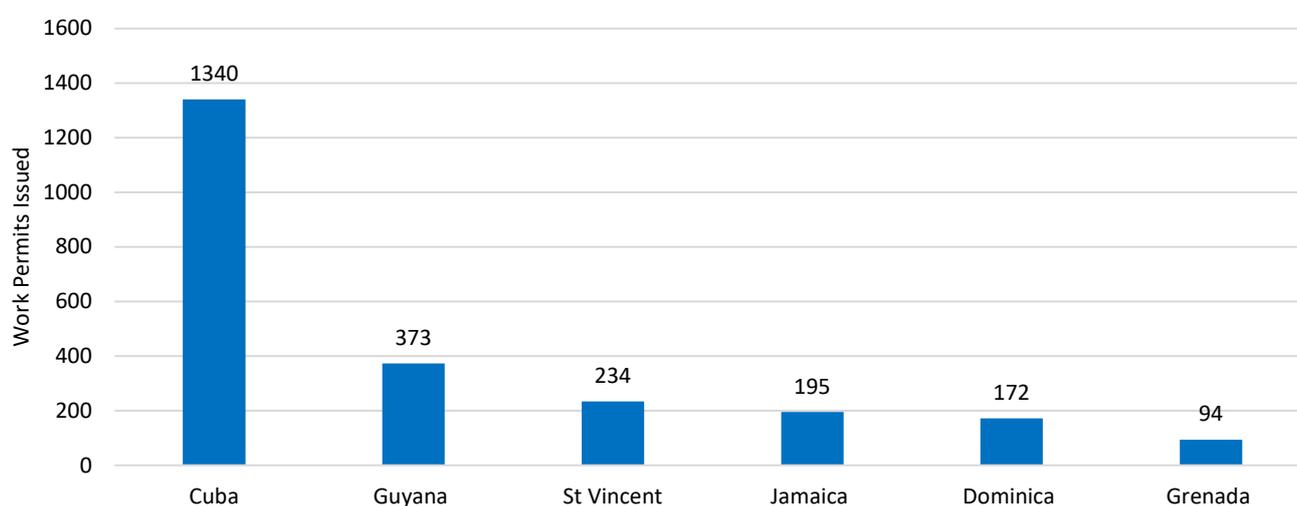


**Source:** Government of Trinidad and Tobago.

**Note:** Compiled by the author from Work permit data obtained from the Research and Planning Division, MLSMED.

Prior to 2009 and the implementation of the Revised Treaty permitting Free Movement of Labour between CSME countries, Caribbean nationals also required work permits to work in Trinidad and Tobago. The largest number of permits was issued to nationals of Guyana, Cuba, Jamaica, Dominica and Barbados. Since 2009, the numbers of work permits to citizens of CARICOM states declined or ceased since most professionals from the CARICOM states would have had the previous permit requirements waived and replaced by the regulations under the terms of the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas (CARICOM, 2002a; 2002b) and the provisions made for the free movement of persons within the CSME Member States. However, in some cases CARICOM nationals were still issued with work permits (Figure 12).

**Figure 12.** Work permits Issued by Trinidad and Tobago to Caribbean nationals 2014–2018



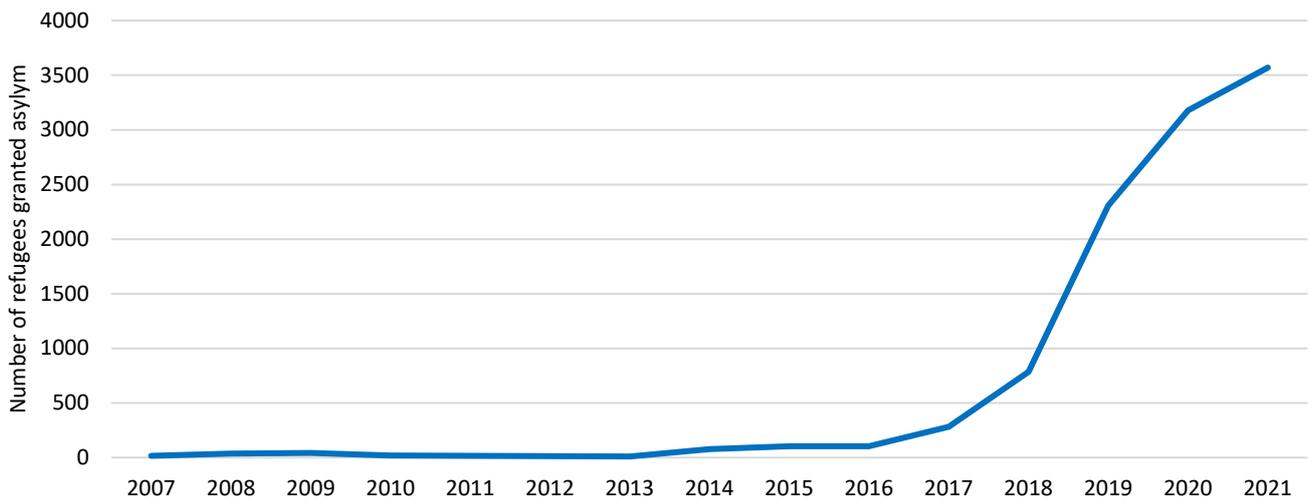
**Source:** Government of Trinidad and Tobago, Ministry of National Security.

**Prepared by:** Labour Market Information – Statistical Unit, Ministry of Labour (17 January 2022).

### 3.3.3 Refugees and asylum seekers

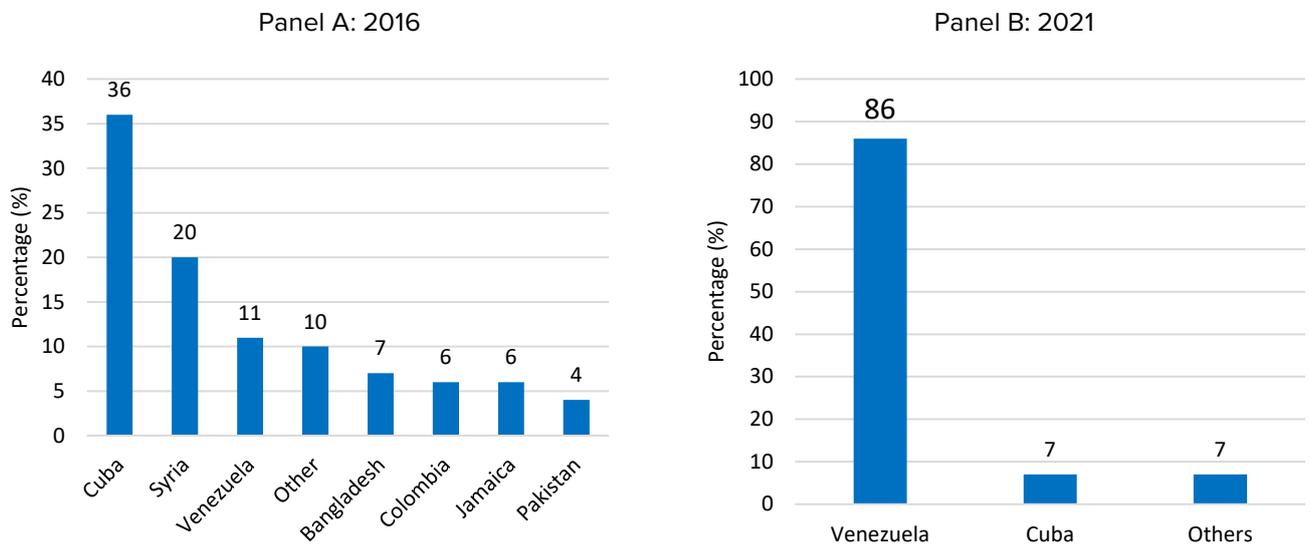
The migratory status of most of the Venezuelan nationals on entering Trinidad and Tobago has been irregular or undocumented. Refugees enter as irregular immigrants on account of the specific circumstances in the origin countries generating the movement without the procedures for obtaining relevant documents for travel. However, most refugees had the intention to seek asylum in Trinidad and Tobago or to move on to a third country where they hope to settle. The number of refugees arriving in Trinidad and Tobago rose sharply after 2016, with a 62 percent increase compared to 2015 in the number of asylum seekers (Figure 13). The country of origin of the refugee population has considerably changed in recent years. While most of the UNHCR’s registered population of refugees and asylum seekers originated from Cuba (36 percent) and Syria (20 percent) in 2016, by 2021 most of them originated from Venezuela (86 percent) (Figure 14, Panel A and Panel B).

**Figure 13.** Refugees under UNHCR mandate in Trinidad and Tobago (2007–2021)



Source: UNHCR – Refugee Population Statistics.

**Figure 14.** Source countries of Refugees in Trinidad and Tobago



Sources: UNHCR, Trinidad and Tobago Fact Sheet 2017; 2021.

Trinidad and Tobago closed its borders due to the COVID-19 pandemic from March 2020 through March 2021, but it was reported that Venezuelans continued to arrive in large numbers on a daily basis by sea through illegal points of entry (United States Department of State, 2021). Venezuela, at the nearest point is separated from Trinidad by only 7 miles of water. The country was also observed to be a transit country for Venezuelan refugees and migrants trafficked to Europe, North Africa and elsewhere in the Caribbean. Employment was offered in brothels and clubs, and engagement occurred in different ways—increasingly via social media due to the pandemic—along with advertisements in Venezuelan newspapers and recruitment by other victims. Migrants from the Caribbean region and from Asia, in particular those lacking legal status, were at risk of forced labour in domestic service and the retail sector (op. cit.).

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) have conducted a series of surveys of the population of Venezuelan Refugees in order to monitor numbers and characteristics of the population, their circumstances since arriving in Trinidad and Tobago and their needs (see Annex I for information on the surveys conducted).

UNHCR reported that in 2021, over 80 percent were making efforts to seek asylum in Trinidad and Tobago to obtain temporary legal status (UNHCR, 2021). Almost 6,000 asylum seekers received UNHCR documentation for the first time in 2021 (Macro Trends, 2021e). It was further revealed that in 2019, the demographic composition of the Venezuelan population in Trinidad and Tobago was comprised of 35 percent married/in partnerships; 62 percent were single; and 3 percent were separated, widowed or divorced (IOM, 2019a). Levels of education showed 41 percent secondary educated and 29 percent technical, tertiary or university (op. cit.). By 2020, the percentage of those married had increased to 46 percent. These figures suggested a trend towards a more stable demographic profile of the Venezuelan refugees. Additionally, the educational profile was at a higher level in 2020 than previously. In 2019, whereas 31 percent were secondary educated and 32 percent had completed university (plus 7 percent incomplete), in 2021, almost one third (32.3 percent) had completed university plus 15.5 percent that had started. There was also 1.5 percent with a postgraduate qualification (IOM, 2020a). One would also assume a greater extent of experience among the Venezuelan refugee university graduates in 2020 since most were age 40–44 as compared with the graduates in 2019 population, who were mostly younger, in the 30–39-year age group (op. cit.). By 31 March 2021, of 17,106 Venezuelans registered with UNHCR, 2,850 (16.7 percent) were between the ages of 5 and 17. While this presents a challenge to the educational system, it also means that the prospect for integration into the host society should be enhanced with so many arriving at a young age. The IOM has continued to monitor the changing characteristics of the refugee population through successive Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) surveys with the most recent report to date, published in December 2021.

#### 4. The regulatory framework for migration

The distribution of responsibilities in relation to migration in Trinidad and Tobago indicated that they were allocated among several ministries and public agencies according to their traditional separate mandates. In addition to ministerial responsibilities for migration, there were intergovernmental migration committees that addressed various aspects of monitoring and managing migration and its impacts, as well as formulating regulations, laws and policies.

## 4.1 Institutional context for migration

### 4.1.1 Government ministries and agencies

The government ministries directly involved with migration included: Ministry of Interior; Ministry of Labour and Small and Micro Enterprise Development (MLSMED); the Central Statistical Office in the Ministry of Planning and Sustainable Development; Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Ministry of National Security; the Counter Trafficking Unit in the Ministry of National Security (since 2013); and Ministry of the People and Social Development.

### 4.1.2 Inter-agency committees

The existing areas of joint responsibilities were carried out by committees comprised of multiple ministries and other agencies. The activities included the granting of work permits, the CARICOM Skills Certificate, certification of persons relating to the Right of Establishment and Provision of Services as well as issuing of passports.

### 4.1.3 Civil society

Civil society groups involved with migration included: non-governmental organizations (NGOs), labour unions, and Living Waters Community (a faith-based NGO), which engaged in outreach activities and has served as the UNHCR liaison in Trinidad and Tobago, assisting asylum seekers in preparing their applications.

## 4.2 Legislative framework

The legislative framework that related to migration included national legislation, regional agreements and international conventions and guidelines.

### 4.2.1 Trinidad and Tobago national legislation

#### a) Immigration Act (Chapter 18:0, 1 July 1976).

Subject to this Act and its regulations, persons who came within the approved classes may, on application, be granted permission by the Minister to become residents.

Migrant workers in Trinidad and Tobago have been governed by the Immigration Act (Chapter 18.01), which stipulated that any migrant seeking gainful employment must apply for a work permit for which the application should be made by the employer/potential employer if the position cannot be filled by a Trinidad and Tobago national.

#### b) Trafficking in Persons Act (2011)

The Trafficking in Persons Act (assented to in June 2011 and proclaimed on 2 January 2013) has sought to fulfil the terms of the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Woman and Children, Supplementing the UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime and for matters connected to crime.

### c) Proposed Law to Criminalize People Smuggling

There is no legislation to combat smuggling of persons into Trinidad and Tobago, but a model law to criminalize smuggling was developed in 2010, as an example of draft legislation to counter migrant smuggling. This was in accordance with obligations under the Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime.

The law was intended to include provisions for persons engaging in people smuggling, regardless of whether the smuggled person arrived in the intended country. It was also an offence if a person intentionally facilitated (by unlawful means) the continued presence of a smuggled person in a receiving country. A commercial carrier would be deemed to have committed an offence if it brought a person into a receiving country and upon entry the person did not have lawful travel documents for entry. The law applied to a company, its directors and employees, in the same way as it applied to an individual (Government of Trinidad and Tobago, Policy Framework in Relation to the Passage of Legislation and the Operational Requirement to give Effect to the Supplementary Protocol of the United Nations Transnational Organized Crime Convention, 2010: Appendix VI).

## 4.2.2 Regional agreements for CSME free movement of labour

Caribbean nationals may live and work in Trinidad and Tobago based on the provisions of the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas (5 July 2001). This stipulated that Nationals of CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME) Member States were eligible to move freely across the CSME without the need for work permits, under three regimes. These were: The Skilled Nationals Act (and being in possession of a Skill Certificate), the Rights of Establishment, and the Movement of Temporary Service Providers (Mode 4 of the Services Regime).

## 4.2.3. International conventions and guidelines

As party to United Nations legal instruments, Trinidad and Tobago ratified the conventions that related to different types of migration. (For details of adoption of the Conventions, see Annex II.)

## 4.2.4 Bilateral agreements

Two bilateral agreements pertained to Trinidad and Tobago migrants in Canada.

### a) Transferability of social security payments

An Agreement on Social Security between Canada and the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago became effective 1 July 1999 through December 2013 (Canada, Minister of Justice, 1999). Article II stated that this Agreement shall apply to the following legislation: with respect to Canada, the Old Age Security Act and its regulations, and the Canada Pension Plan and its regulations; and with respect to Trinidad and Tobago, the National Insurance Act (Chapter 32:01) and its regulations. This was as they related to retirement benefits, including spousal allowance calculated on the basis of the periods of residence, which may be considered under the Old Age Security Act; Invalidity benefit; and death benefit-survivors' benefit and funeral grant (Old Age Security Act, Article XI).

## **b) Canadian Farmwork Programme or Caribbean Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme**

A Memorandum of Understanding was signed between the Government of Canada and the Government of Trinidad and Tobago concerning the admission to Canada of workers from Trinidad and Tobago seeking entry for the purpose of engaging in seasonal employment in the agricultural sector.

## **5. Government response to migration**

Within the context of a national strategic plan to achieve developed country status, since June 2002 the government of Trinidad and Tobago embarked on a set of goals, the most recent were articulated as Vision 2030 (Trinidad and Tobago, n.d.). Population issues were seen as an integral part of the national development process, with a focus on migration. In that regard, six primary goals were identified, two of which were directly linked to migration: (i) to develop a reliable population database that informs the decision-making process of all ministries; and (ii) to minimize the negative impacts of migration on the society (Reis, 2007).

In terms of the first point, Reis suggested that achieving that aim was likely to “pose a significant challenge due to the low priority given to migration traditionally and also due to the unreliability and unavailability of migration statistics, given the financial and human resource constraints of the Central Statistical Office (CSO)” (Reis, 2007: 3). Other issues pertaining to the second point made above were also required to optimize the role that migration could play in the development objectives of the country. In this regard, Reis referred to the need for a policy pertaining to: the return of qualified nationals, the exchange of expertise of returning nationals and retirees, remittance/money transfers, the incorporation of overseas communities in national development plans and management of brain drain and gain (ibid.).

### **5.3.1 The nature of the government’s response to emigration**

The Government of Trinidad and Tobago’s response to emigration in the past two decades has been to actively participate in arrangements to facilitate the temporary emigration of persons. This included short-term contract labour under the Farmwork Programme as well as students for purposes of higher education. There was a laissez-faire response to the emigration of teachers, which peaked in the 1990s, as the view was that the colleges and universities in the country could produce a replacement cadre. However, concern that the emigration of large numbers of highly skilled, especially from the medical profession, could be regarded a ‘brain drain’, captured the attention of the government. There was no apparent policy forthcoming in this regard, except for the recourse to the issuing of work permits to overseas nationals to fill vacancies so as to replace skills where needed.

### **5.3.2 The nature of the government’s responses to immigration**

The Government of Trinidad and Tobago has chiefly responded to migration in a number of ways, as outlined below.

#### **a) Capacity-building for managing immigration**

There has been some capacity-building in recent years including in November 2012 when IOM adopted a Migration Crisis Operational Framework with the aim of institutionalizing IOM’s capacity to respond to migration crises. A contingency emergency response plan was developed to deal with any possible mass inward flows brought on by a crisis event and to address current gaps with regards to migration in the international humanitarian system (IOM, 2017). Secondly, it included the strengthening of the Technical Capacity for a Migration Management programme

commenced in 2006 with support from the IOM. This included workshops in the areas of human trafficking and document fraud, creation of the Smuggling and Trafficking in Persons Investigation Manual, as well as the establishment of a document examination laboratory (op. cit.). Additionally, starting in 2013 a training programme was established for four senior immigration officers to be sent each year to York University, Toronto, to undertake migration studies, with the aim of sensitizing participants on migration in relation to development (Browne, 2013).

#### **b) Implementation of the protocols related to free movement of persons**

Trinidad and Tobago did not change its national legislation to accommodate the entry of all groups of persons under the terms of the CSME Agreement for the Free Movement of Labour and Services of CSME nationals. Only the first five agreed-upon groups were permitted admission: university graduates, media workers, artistes, musicians and sportspersons. Pending the amendment of legislation to include the expanded categories of workers (as listed above), Trinidad and Tobago administratively facilitated the free movement of workers by allowing entry to applicants with a Certificate of Recognition from their country of origin for six months initially, with indefinite extensions of six months until the legislation was amended. During this time, the necessity for obtaining a work permit was waived.

#### **c) Response to trafficking**

A Trafficking in Persons Bill (2011) was passed to give effect to the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Woman and Children, supplementing the UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime and for matters connected to crime.

The bill made provisions for tackling trafficking as follows: the bill provided for the establishment of a National Task Force to counter trafficking (Clause 5); empowered the Minister of National Security to establish the Counter Trafficking Unit within the Ministry (Clause 11); provided for powers relating to entry, search and seizure in situations where there is reasonable evidence of trafficking (Clauses 13 & 14); provided for trafficking and related activities to be treated as criminal offences (Clauses 15–31); provided for assistance to and protection of victims of trafficking (Clauses 32–45); and referred to miscellaneous aspects of the bill.

Despite the existence of legislation, the USA Trafficking in Persons (TIP) Annual Report 2021 determined that: “The Government of Trinidad and Tobago does not fully meet the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking but is making significant efforts to do so” (United States Department of State, 2021, p.1.) These efforts included: “bringing trafficking charges against three police officers prosecuted in the previous [2019] reporting period; producing a guide for frontline officers on identifying victims of trafficking; taking steps to expedite and streamline cases and expand the use of virtual hearings and testimony; providing deportation relief to victims affected; drafting legislation that included increased penalties for official complicity in trafficking crimes; and drafting an anti-trafficking national action plan (NAP) for 2021–2023 in consultation with outside stakeholders” (op. cit.). However, it was assessed by the US State Department that “the government had not demonstrated overall increasing efforts on its anti-trafficking capacity and no trafficker had ever been convicted under its 2011 anti-trafficking law. Furthermore, corruption and official complicity in trafficking crimes remained significant concerns” (ibid.). Consequently, Trinidad and Tobago was downgraded to the Tier 2 Watch List (ibid.).

#### d) Response to refugees and asylum seekers

The 2017 UNHCR report stated that “Trinidad and Tobago is one of the largest refugee-receiving countries in the Caribbean. In response to the growing number of asylum seekers, the Government adopted a Refugee Policy in 2014 and UNHCR established an office in January 2016” (UNHCR, 2017, p 1.). From April 2017, a Quality Assurance Initiative Project was executed with the intention of bringing about the progressive transfer of responsibilities from UNHCR to the Government of Trinidad and Tobago. Meanwhile, UNHCR was engaged in the provision of technical support and capacity-building to the government and participation in public awareness events (UNHCR, Trinidad & Tobago Fact Sheet – July 2021).

UNHCR has supported the government and other agencies to provide assistance for recognized refugees to obtain a permit to stay, authorization to work and access to public assistance and protection as needed (op. cit.). Working in association with UNHCR, the Government of Trinidad and Tobago collaborated with the local non-governmental organization, Living Waters Community (LWC). Since 1989, this NGO identified and referred persons of concern to UNHCR and ensured their access to protection. Coordination with other agencies working to support forcibly displaced persons was also enhanced with the launch of joint planning exercises for 2022 (UNHCR, 2022).

Living Waters Community continued to be the main implementation agency for UNHCR and to cooperate in a number of activities. One such activity was to facilitate the registration of asylum seekers with UNHCR. In June 2019, prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, the Government of Trinidad and Tobago conducted a Venezuelan Registration Exercise. There were 16,523 Venezuelan nationals registered and authorized to work for a period of one year. Additionally, the Government instituted visa requirements for Venezuelan nationals to enter or transit Trinidad and Tobago. Twenty-five refugees were resettled from Trinidad and Tobago to a third country in 2016. (UNHCR, 2021). With the onset of COVID-19, on 23 March 2020, the national borders were officially closed, which resulted in the previously mentioned increase in the number of irregular Venezuelan entrants (IOM, Dec 2020b).

Work opportunities were provided to refugees who were not able to obtain work permits by hosting a cash-for-work programme (UNHCR, 2021). Furthermore, psychosocial support and humanitarian assistance was offered to asylum seekers and refugees. Between January and February 2022, UNHCR delivered psychosocial support through its partner, Rape Crisis Society (RCS), providing remote counselling sessions to help 61 refugees and asylum seekers cope with the forced displacement experiences. These sessions applied to those who have been subject to severe trauma as a result of gender-based violence, human trafficking, intimate partner violence, exploitation and discrimination (UNHCR, 2022).

The enrolment of refugee and asylum-seeking children in schools took place and provided English-language training opportunities. More than 1,744 children were enrolled in the Equal Place (EP) programme, which delivered accredited education and tailored learning via two globally recognized platforms: NotesMaster (in English) and Dawere (in Spanish). Access to these platforms was provided at no cost to students or their families (UNHCR, 2022).

Refugees were also enabled to access services such as health care at public facilities. UNHCR has continued to deliver medical assistance through the Family Planning Association (FPATT) via telehealth and at clinics. Over 1,500 health consultations were facilitated by UNHCR via partners in 2021, including for sexual and reproductive health, paediatric care and psychosocial support (UNHCR, 2022). National mass COVID-19 vaccination was also rolled out, inclusive of refugees and documented migrants. In the first two months of 2022, FPATT provided 816 sexual and reproductive health and diagnostic services for 284 refugees and asylum seekers in Trinidad and Tobago. A Medical Assistance Review Committee has been formed to discuss and prioritize individuals who require specialized medical

attention for critical illnesses (*ibid.*). Emergency food assistance was provided to 376 extremely vulnerable asylum seekers and refugees via vouchers redeemable at participating supermarkets nationwide in the first two months of 2022, by UNHCR through its partner LWC (*ibid.*).

Efforts were also made to assist the government in capacity-building by providing technical guidance for the adoption of legislation and procedures to promote local integration of those refugees recognized under the Mandate to be eligible for resettlement, as well as transfer to a third country through the Regional Refugee Transfer Mechanism (UNHCR, 2021). Additionally, UNHCR delivered a workshop for 30 participants including judges, magistrates, registrars and judicial research counsels on ‘Non-Refoulement as a Principle of Customary International Law’ through the Judicial Education Institute of Trinidad and Tobago (*op. cit.*).

### 5.3.3 Timeline of the government’s response to Immigration over the past two decades

According to ECLAC (2006:14), “Caribbean countries seem to be generally rather reluctant to integrate foreign migrants into their societies,” seeking to avoid permanent immigration. In Trinidad and Tobago, the focus a decade ago and up to around 2015, was on the numbers arriving under the provisions of the CSME Free Movement of Persons and holders of CARICOM Skill Certificates. The main concern at that time was on the increased numbers of persons entering from Guyana especially and, increasingly, from Jamaica. Recent focus has been on the dramatic rise in entry of Venezuelan citizens seeking refugee status. Venezuelan immigrants in Trinidad and Tobago was not new due to the locational proximity of the two countries, but Trinidad and Tobago experienced an unusual increase in numbers within a short timespan, which attracted the attention of the national government as well as local authorities (Selee, 2020).

In terms of achievements, by 2020, a further IOM tracking exercise showed that less than a quarter of the respondents were in irregular situations, and there was a notable shift of immigrants away from the informal work sector, which may have been encouraged by the government’s provision of allowing legal job options for registered migrants (IOM R4V, 2021, p.4). Despite many deficiencies in services, by 2020 there was a focus on family migration and family reunification in Trinidad and Tobago and efforts made to address the immediate housing and food requirements of the immigrants as well as the specific needs and education of children (*op. cit.*). Also, starting in the 2019–2020 school year, Venezuelan children gained access to education through the Equal Place programme developed by some of the Response for Venezuelans (R4V) partners (*op. cit.*).

On the negative side were issues among which the following need to be addressed as a priority. There was evidence of persisting employer underpayment and contraction of local employment opportunities, both of which were worsened as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. These issues with regard to employment were a serious challenge to the livelihoods of the refugees (UNHCR, 2021). Discrimination and gender-based violence (with women as the victims) have remained serious issues reported by immigrants. In a study conducted by Agreda (2019), 93 percent of her sample population indicated that they felt discriminated against in the workplace. This was despite the indication in the IOM Immigrant Tracking surveys that discrimination had decreased from 2019 to 2020 (IOM, 2018; 2019b; 2020b). The IOM Displacement Tracking Mechanism data indicated that 25 percent of the respondents in the 2021 survey stated that they had experienced physical and sexual violence in Trinidad and Tobago; and 59 percent felt discriminated against. There were 8 percent of the respondents who stated that they knew a fellow refugee who had been forced to work or perform other activities against their will. These experiences were reported to have occurred mostly in the construction and the tourism/hospitality/entertainment sector. Over 80 percent of respondents in both 2019 and 2020 DTM surveys stated that they had not had access to sexual and reproductive health services.

As a consequence of restrictive employment conditions during the COVID-19 pandemic (2020–2021), 68 percent of the respondents stated that they had lost their jobs. Approximately 25 percent of the Venezuelan refugees in Trinidad and Tobago in 2019 had a technical degree or higher (Solano, 2022).

## 6. Consequences of Migration for society and the economy

The main elements in the complex nexus between migration and development are the inter-relationships between various aspects of the migration process on the one hand and, on the other, a country's human capacity and economic environment, sociopsychological and cultural environment, human rights and welfare, and national security. In each of these areas there are potential positive and negative consequences of migration at different levels—for the country itself, families and households, and individuals.

### 6.1. Implications of Migration for human capacity and the economy

#### 6.1.1. The labour market

Migration, both emigration and immigration, has significant consequences for the size, composition and quality of the labour force.

##### a) Emigration

The emigration of persons in elementary occupations contributed to the continued demand for labour in Trinidad and Tobago's construction and manufacturing industries. Additionally, the emigration of persons in specialized professional sectors, such as health care or persons who migrated as students and trained as health workers/doctors abroad and remained there to work, directly and indirectly reduced the capacity for health-care services in Trinidad and Tobago (Reis, 2007). Furthermore, in the case of the health sector, the extent of losses was reflected in the numbers of vacancies recorded. The South West Regional Health Authority was worst affected, accounting for 63 percent of the total 2,209 vacancies reported in 2013 (Browne, 2013). Other vacancies that were experienced in the health-care system included shortages of pharmacists, radiologists and medical laboratory technologists.

##### b) Immigration

Immigrants have generally brought new skills, and even low-skilled migrants, who are themselves consumers, have boosted local economies. But for host communities to reap these benefits, immigrants must find housing, employment, education for their children and access to healthcare for their families, and they cannot be left, as many people are, without regular migration status (Harris et al., 2021).

Selective immigration has been an effective means of securing labour-force replacements. The process has been driven by work permits applied for by private sector companies and academic institutions and, since 2010, by Skills Certificates for arrivals from CSME Member States. In addition to filling specific gaps in the labour force, some of which have been created by the emigration of skilled nationals, immigration has played the practical role of immigrants enhancing the size of the labour force, which was declining through negative population growth rates and the trend in ageing.

### c) Return migration

The impact of return migration on communities of origin and larger development processes is increasingly gaining attention (IOM, 2017). Return migrants and Trinidadians in the diaspora have been a potentially valuable asset on account of the additional qualifications and experience that many of them acquired while abroad and the desire to maximize the benefits gained through migration on their return to the home country (IOM, 2013; Thomas-Hope, 1985; 2006b). In recent years, some emphasis has been placed on ‘brain gain’ upon return, particularly of the highly skilled (Oomen, 2013). Voluntary return migration is also associated with the level of remittances and investment, especially in housing, which needs to be encouraged (Thomas-Hope 1985; 2006b).

Involuntary return migration or deportation has been relatively low in the case of Trinidad and Tobago, especially by comparison with other Caribbean countries such as the Dominican Republic and Jamaica (Martin-Johnson, 2009; Thomas-Hope, 2018). The stigma associated with deportation and the fear of the deported persons being responsible for increased crime on their return to Trinidad and Tobago has generated negative responses to this group of returning nationals. Therefore, there is the need for policies to provide a framework to improve these individuals’ reintegration, many of whom can make useful contributions to the labour force.

## 6.1.2. Remittances

### a) Monetary remittances

Remittances in the form of financial transfers from migrants abroad are principally transmitted through private remittance companies and converted to local currency or managed by the Central Bank of Trinidad and Tobago. At the same time, outgoing remittances were also high in some years (Table 1). The wider economic implications were evident when examining remittances as a percentage share of GDP. The remittances to Trinidad and Tobago were low in terms of their contribution to GDP, accounting for less than 1.0 percent each year. This was an indication of the strength of the economy and fact that there was no dependency on emigrants to maintain economic buoyancy or growth. Material remittances included money as well as goods (cash and in-kind), but the value of the goods received have not been quantified.

**Table 1.** Trinidad and Tobago remittances

	1990	2000	2010	2020
Inflows (millions of US\$, current)	3	38	91	194
Inflows as share % of GDP	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.9
Outflows (millions of US\$, current)	2	-	-	137

Source: World Bank estimates based on IMF Balance of payments data.

Remittances in the form of money were typically received periodically, and as relatively small sums, as gifts or ad hoc support from family members overseas. A study conducted in Trinidad and Tobago found that 29.4 percent of respondents admitted that when they were abroad, they had sent remittances only “in emergencies or on special occasions” (Anatol et al., 2013). However, in some cases remittances were received on a more regular basis, thereby providing this major benefit of emigration to less economically well-off local households. Although the actual extent of this in Trinidad and Tobago was not known, studies by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) have shown that remittances constituted an important source of income

for many households in the country (Allende and Solimano, 2007). Strong migrant networks also have led to more trade and investment and could contribute to human capital formation in Trinidad and Tobago. Caribbean tourism revenues were deemed to have also grown through diaspora networks, although the extent of this impact has not been systematically measured.

### **b) Social remittances and their potential**

Apart from economic benefits, Trinidad and Tobago has also gained from a wider array of returns and the building of social capital. Overseas-based nationals, school alumnae and professionals have in many Caribbean countries, such as Jamaica (Thomas-Hope, 2018), contributed time, technical assistance and equipment to support development services in their home countries. Research by scholars on return migration to Trinidad and Tobago have also reported on positive social and cultural contributions of persons in the diaspora that return to the country suggesting that a significant share of the transfers was non-monetary but, rather, material goods as well as skills and knowledge (Conway and Potter, 2009; St. Bernard, 2005; 2006; De Souza, 2006). Therefore, in order to better assess the social impact and human development potential of monetary and non-monetary transfers in and out of Trinidad and Tobago, more research is needed concerning the transfer of knowledge and sociocultural capital from the Trinidadian diasporas (Ponce, 2010).

## **6.2. Implications of migration for the sociopsychological and cultural environment**

### **6.2.1 Freedom in migration**

Personal liberty and human rights are important indicators of development and a nation's well-being. The parties affected by the freedom in migration could be categorized in a variety of different ways, although it is helpful to group them into three categories: (a) the migrants themselves, (b) the migrants' families and/or households and immediate professional and social associates and (c) the country in general (UNDP, 2009).

The personal development of the migrants has been remarked upon by many who emigrated to improve their standard of living and gain qualifications and later returned to Trinidad and Tobago (Anatol et al., 2013). The professional migrants (for example, teachers and health workers) are those whose interests in international migration are most straightforward to identify. Of the emigrants from Trinidad and Tobago, 57.7 percent obtained certifications and qualifications while living abroad (op. cit.). The evidence was that the migrants gained economically and/or educationally and professionally as well as socially from their international migration experience. Consistent with the experience of immigrant groups in other parts of the world, so in Trinidad and Tobago, migrants have been motivated by their deliberate intention to succeed. Many have attested to the higher standard of living that they have been able to achieve on returning to Trinidad and Tobago than before they left (Anatol et al., 2013). At the national level, economic and social benefits were also derived through return migration. It was reported that the majority of return migrants came back with higher educational qualifications than before they migrated. Furthermore, they tended to want to get more involved in social commentary than most people, especially as it pertained to corruption in Trinidad and Tobago (op. cit.).

Appreciating the potential contribution of immigrants is an essential step to be taken to respond to the ongoing challenge of absorbing asylum-seeking refugees and fully absorbing them into the labour force (Selee, 2020). There is no reason why the movement from Venezuela will not contribute significantly to economic growth over time as the

migrants' previous training, skills and experiences are more fully utilized. Furthermore, in addition to employment, immigrant populations have generally been recognized in the Caribbean and elsewhere to have contributed to innovation and cultural enrichment in the countries in which they settle.

### 6.2.2. Human rights, human welfare and social capital

The case can be made that properly managed migration integrates human rights standards and principles, advancing efforts to achieve the broader United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and ensuring basic rights such as rights to health and a healthy environment; education of migrant children; public participation; transparency; equal access to justice; community engagement; labour rights; and the rights of women and other marginalized groups and minorities.

Negative effects of migration also occurred, especially wherever there were weaknesses in migration management and its supporting procedures. Such deficiencies have, in general, contributed to making smuggling and trafficking of persons a highly profitable enterprise at the expense of gross violations of basic human and labour rights. As indicated above, irregular migration has also been associated with high levels of exploitation, forced labour and abuse. Such situations are inconsistent with the objectives of development with negative implications for the rights of individual migrants and, in various direct and indirect ways, on the wider societies as found by a number of researchers (Agredo, 2022; Solano, 2022; Thomas-Hope 2002c; 2006b). One example of this is the increasing violence at multiple levels, including the gender and institutional spheres reported in several countries. Another example is that of migrants who were driven to return to their country of origin or migrate to third countries by restrictive migration policies and by the barriers to access to destination countries' social protection systems for those with irregular migration status (ECLAC, 2020). Among the groups that were particularly vulnerable to the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic—in addition to the undocumented or irregular migrants that have already been mentioned—were migrant women, children and adolescents, as well as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) persons (UNDP, 2020; ECLAC, 2020). The Montevideo Consensus on Population and Development, which was adopted in 2013, highlighted the need to effectively apply measures to protect migrants, regardless of their migration status (Jones et al, 2019).

## 7. Conclusion

Every aspect of the migration process has implications for one or more of the main pillars of national development—economy, society and governance. With respect to Trinidad and Tobago, the evidence from this study is that, overall, migration relates in a positive way to national development. This has been mainly through the various aspects of migration that have complemented the country's economic performance and societal well-being, enhancing both. In terms of the economy, the degree of complementarity is evident in the coherence that has occurred between labour needs in the critical economic sectors and labour supplies through immigration that has been utilized to replace losses sustained through emigration of the educated and highly skilled as well as those in the skilled trades.

Immigration to Trinidad and Tobago could be expected to continue given the high economic growth as compared to most other Caribbean states. This points to the importance of policies that focus on management of inflows in the numbers and with the competences required and mechanisms to regulate and manage all aspects of immigration, refugee or otherwise. Professional and highly skilled persons are required as well as elementary skilled individuals and those who would potentially contribute creatively and artistically. At the same time, the periodic retrenchment

that has occurred in the industrial sector, especially in the petroleum and manufacturing industries, points to the need for plans to deploy the labour force that could become surplus in these sectors. The tensions that immigration at times caused, was heightened as the country tried to accommodate large-scale flows of refugees in a short period of time, as for example, since 2016 as indicated above. Nevertheless, the official views expressed above indicate awareness of the need to respond to the ongoing challenge of absorbing asylum-seeking immigrants into the labour force and the society in general. This suggests that the government should regularly review measures that ensure respect for and protection of the human rights of all migrants.

Emigration has also been significant and in larger numbers than has been generally assumed. It has effectively supported professional and educational opportunities at the personal level. However, in order to avoid 'brain drain' and to achieve the best advantage from the freedoms and openness inherent in migration, it would be logical to propose that outward flows need to be at low to moderate levels.

Despite the role that immigration and emigration management can play, the evidence is that policies meant to manage migration and its consequences should move beyond the traditional approach. This approach has usually focused on trying to manage the recruitment of migrants by foreign nations and to prevent mass exodus of skilled professionals and students of tertiary institutions, for example, by issuing permits to recruiters. These strategies may contribute to migration policy but need complementary strategic policies aimed at more effective management of human capital. Given the importance of maintaining the freedoms in migration that people in Trinidad and Tobago and other Caribbean countries enjoy and from which they benefit, policies should take into account the migratory culture and transnational personal identities of migrants (Thomas-Hope 2005:55 cited in IOM 2017). Furthermore, as previously stated elsewhere, "Paradoxically, migration itself could be a major part of the solution, especially if the social capital that has been created through migration networks could be effectively trans-nationalised to benefit the Caribbean, and if the diaspora were to become a greater resource for the region" (Thomas-Hope, 2002b:29).

Return migration may focus on the optimization of the migrants' wider experiences gained abroad, to increase 'brain gain' as well as to benefit from the range of other material and non-material assets. The experiences of strategies employed in other countries can be informative in this regard. Although there has been general acknowledgement of the effects of emigration on 'brain drain', greater emphasis should be placed on 'brain gain' not solely of the highly skilled but also from the skills associated with blue-collar occupations as well. For example, Oomen (2013) referred to a study conducted by Black et al. (2003), which found that around 70 percent of less skilled Ghanaian returnees had studied during their time abroad. Although 'elite returnees' tended to have gained higher levels of human capital during their time abroad mainly in terms of education, the low-skilled returnees had much greater potential than had been generally recognized by policymakers (Amarfi and Jagare, 2005).

Developing a climate of sustainable return has been identified as an aspect in which effort should be placed rather than focusing solely on the transfer of human capital for the labour force upon return and the potential of financial investments of returnees (IOM, 2017). Strategies to persuade migrants to return could include focus on building trust in public institutions and improving the socioeconomic environment. Information on human resource needs at home need to be easily accessible to the migrant (Thomas-Hope, 2002b, p.25, cited in IOM, 2017). Such efforts could include the following: creating incentives for the immigration of migrants' descendants. Suriname is a recent example of a country that provided incentives for Surinamese descendants to 'try their luck' back in Suriname. These people could bring new economic, social and cultural capital into the country (IOM, 2017). Secondly, supporting expatriates in the diaspora, as maintained by Reis (2007; 2022) for example, could be accomplished by maintaining a tie with expatriates to build social capital, which is important to increase the prospect of a movement back to the Caribbean. Supporting expatriate communities in the diaspora is also a way

to build the potential market for Caribbean goods and services abroad, both fostering exportation and tourism. Additionally, dual citizenship could be encouraged, as already done by some countries in the region such as Jamaica, Belize, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines with some of the main destination countries. This gives confidence in the ability to freely move back and forth across the transnational space in which they have interests and family ties.

More research is needed to assess the social capital and cultural impact and other transfers of Trinidadian and Tobagonian diasporas to their origin country beyond financial remittances, as data presented above indicated that skilled migration constituted an important part of population flows out of the country (Ponce, 2010). A human development approach on the study of the implication of the diasporas in the development of the country can support policies directed at capitalizing on the development potential of Trinidadians abroad, which is not only based on remittances but also on cultural and social aspects that are more difficult to quantify (Bonnett, 2009, cited in Ponce, 2010).

Diaspora engagement in national development is a policy currently being developed and, consistent with the holistic approach to migration suggested here, should be encouraged. Without the need for the actual physical return of migrants to reside in Trinidad and Tobago, such engagement has the potential to build critical networks. These networks would: benefit trade, tourism and investment promotion; harness the knowledge, skills and assets of the migrants living abroad; and attract remittances, especially social remittances through education, which would likely have positive effects in the areas of health and education. Overall, research should focus on supporting the generation of policy responses concerning migration and its associated flows of people, information and capital in and out of Trinidad and Tobago. As indicated by Ponce (2010), such research could be part of wider capacity-building strategies to increase data sharing and harmonization and centralization of migration management structures and to allocating more resources to the inclusion of migration in development agendas.

## Annex I: Surveys of refugees from Venezuela in Trinidad and Tobago

The IOM and UNHCR have conducted and published the results of a series of surveys to monitor the characteristics and circumstances of refugees from Venezuela arriving in Trinidad and Tobago.

The main purpose of the surveys is to monitor Venezuelan citizens' presence in Trinidad and Tobago and to identify a profile, which would aid in developing a better understanding of their needs, vulnerabilities, working and health status and the challenges they face in the routes they follow to get to Trinidad and Tobago.

Survey & Date	Organization	Methodology	Variables Included
Monitoring Venezuelan Citizens' Presence: Trinidad and Tobago. Round I - Sept 2018; Round II - Sept 2019	IOM	<p>548 Venezuelans were interviewed. All participated voluntarily.</p> <p>A bilingual team of Spanish and English speakers was trained as enumerators to gather data from the Venezuelans and was also trained to identify and refer protection cases. A snowball methodology was adopted whereby key informants were first interviewed by the group of enumerators, then these informants garnered other Venezuelan citizens to be interviewed. This process continued until the end of the exercise, which resulted in a sample of Venezuelan citizens located in all 14 regional corporations being interviewed.</p>	<p><b>1. PROFILES</b> Distribution by sex &amp; age Marital status Global education level distribution</p> <p><b>2. WORK STATUS</b> When comparing 'BEFORE' (the work status in Venezuela before migrating) and 'AFTER' (the work status in Trinidad and Tobago)</p> <p><b>3. DEPENDENTS</b> Dependents' location Means to send resources Family groups - Sex distribution of the family members Education level of family members by age range Ages &amp; sex of the family members</p> <p><b>4. ROUTES</b> Transportation type by age Cost of trip Main difficulties encountered</p> <p><b>5. NEEDS</b> Top needed assistances for each priority level Accommodation Main issues when seeking health services Children's access to school by time in the country Was the vaccination schedule being followed?</p>
Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) Trinidad & Tobago Dec 2019 & Dec 2020	IOM	<p>The DTM 2020 employed both qualitative and quantitative methods to capture information on key thematic areas. More specifically, 26 baseline interviews were convened with key stakeholders to inform preliminary migrant profiles and the creation of a Venezuelan migrant database for the enumeration process.</p> <p>Surveys were administered only to Venezuelan migrants, who willingly consented to participate in the interview process and were over the age of 18 years.</p> <p>The data collection method was influenced by the COVID-19 pandemic, which permitted only telephone-based interviews, as opposed to the face-to-face approach.</p>	<p><b>1. MIGRANT PROFILES</b> Age &amp; sex Marital status Education level completed and age State of birth in Venezuela</p> <p><b>2. STAY IN TRINIDAD &amp; TOBAGO</b> Time in Trinidad &amp; Tobago Migration status</p> <p><b>3. TRAVEL FROM VENEZUELA</b> Routes taken Transportation types Trip difficulties Cost of trip</p> <p><b>4. LENGTH OF STAY IN TRINIDAD &amp; TOBAGO</b></p> <p><b>5. DEPENDENTS</b> Family groups Accommodation Means of remitting money Dependents by location</p> <p><b>6. WORK STATUS</b> Work status of migrant Work sector</p> <p><b>7. PROTECTION</b> Vulnerabilities Unpaid work</p> <p><b>8. CHILDREN</b> Age &amp; sex Assistance to female victims of violence</p> <p><b>9. HEALTH</b> Health service options Top 3 sources of information on health services Emotional support</p> <p><b>10. COVID-19 &amp; NEEDS</b> Top 4 COVID-related difficulties Top 4 prioritized migrant needs</p>

## Annex II: Trinidad and Tobago – Ratification of international conventions relating to migration

DATE RATIFIED	CONVENTION
24 May 1963	1930 ILO Convention No. 29: Forced or Compulsory Labour
24 May 1963	1949 ILO Convention No.97, Migration for Employment Convention
1963	1957 ILO convention No. 105: the Abolition of Forced Labour
26 November 1970	1958, ILO Convention Recommendation no. 111: Against Discrimination in Employment and Occupation
Signed 27 June 1985 Ratified 12 January 1990	1979 Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women, art. 6.
Signed 30 September 1990 Ratified 5 Dec 1991	1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child art. 34, 35, 36
10 November 2000	1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees
Signed 9 June 1967 Ratified 4 October 1973	1965 Convention on the Elimination on All Forms of Racial Discrimination, art. 5
Signed November 1995 Ratified 8 May 1996	1994 Inter-American Convention on the Protection, Punishment and Eradication of Violence Against Women (Belem do Pará)
2003	1999 ILO Convention No. 182: the Prohibition and Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour
Signed 26 September 2001 Ratified 6 November 2007	2000 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (UN TIP Protocol)
Signed 26 September 2001 Ratified 6 November 2007	2000 Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Air and Sea (UN Smuggling Protocol)

Source: ILO, UN, OAS cited in IOM Working Paper1 Migration in the Caribbean, 2017.

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