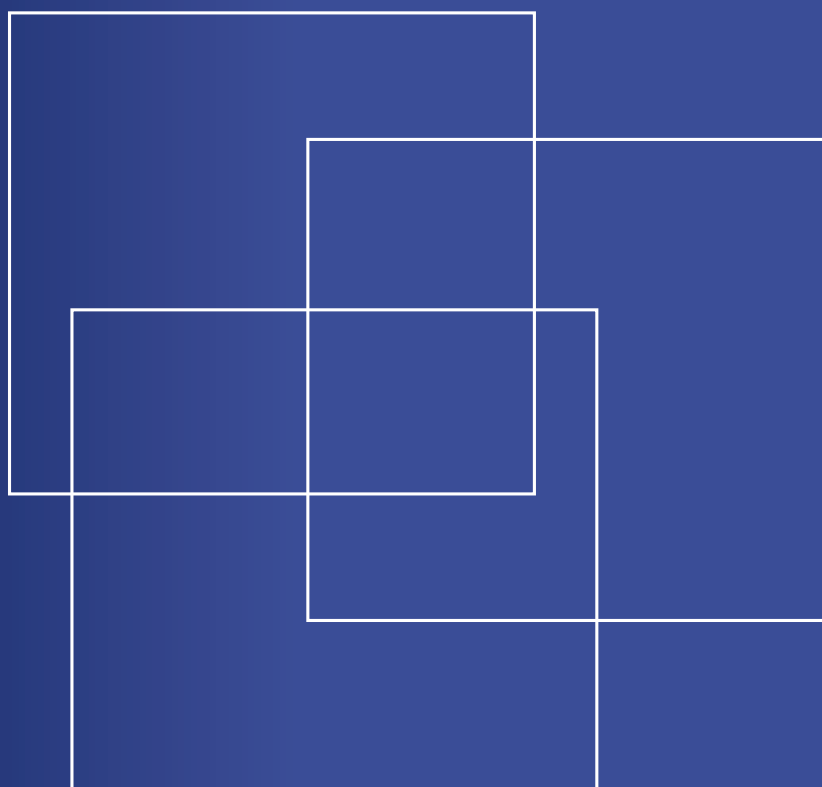


Pacific Labour Governance and Migration Pacific Seasonal Migration to New Zealand and Australia: Literature Review

April 2012



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Pacific Labour Governance and Migration
Pacific Seasonal Migration to New Zealand and Australia: Literature Review April 2012

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Foreword

This research was commissioned by the ILO's *Labour Governance and Migration Project* through the support of the Australian Government – ILO Partnership Agreement (2010 – 2015). The findings contribute to better understanding of the support required by workers after returning to their home countries following participation in seasonal migration schemes in Australia and New Zealand.

Migration is a significant source of jobs and income for the people of the Pacific Islands. The Australian Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme (PSWPS) and New Zealand's Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme have delivered a tangible development impacts in Pacific Island States. Indeed there are many examples of community development projects that have made a difference to the lives of families and communities. Seasonal workers' earnings have enabled families to build new houses and raise their living standards. Seasonal migration schemes have also enabled communities to establish important services such as water and electricity that deliver wider benefits to everyone.

However, the PSWPS and RSE schemes have even greater potential that could enable workers to use the knowledge, skills and earnings they've acquired overseas after returning home. This review explores literature on the availability of pre-departure and reintegration services provided for temporary migrants. It focuses in particular on the availability of services that support building economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects for workers who return home from New Zealand and Australia.

The ILO would like to acknowledge Anne Alkema who undertook this review.



David Lamotte

Director

ILO Office of South Pacific Island Countries

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Executive summary

The aim of this literature review was to identify pre-departure and reintegration services for temporary migrants and the impact of these services. In relation to reintegration services, it focuses on services that support building economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects. The primary focus was on literature relating to the New Zealand Government's Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme and the Australian Government's Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme (PSWPS). This review also explored Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme (CSAWP) and the Philippines temporary migration scheme to the extent that any lessons learned might be relevant to good practice and opportunities in the South Pacific region. Four key themes were explored and findings on these are provided below.

Pre-departure services

Pre-departure briefings are undertaken in a variety of ways, but in most of the countries take place over one day. Workers are generally told about the work and working conditions, the culture of host countries, employment contracts, pay, remittances and budgeting.

Overall aspects of the pre-departure services seem to be working reasonably well and pre-departure training continues to evolve in response to concerns as they arise. In the case of the RSE scheme this has meant the development of training DVDs in the workers' language, greater emphasis being placed on employment contracts, briefings by returning workers, and the provision of information about budgeting and financial management.

Knowledge and skills

There are no overarching vocational skills development programmes in the home or host countries in the context of the RSE scheme and PSWPS. Job-specific training is left up to individual employers and occurs on-job rather than through training programmes. The skills that the workers develop are specific to their jobs and may not be applicable or transferable in their home countries. However, workers also acquire other skills such as English language, time management, and financial management which are transferable and there is the potential to build on these once workers return to their home countries.

Within the New Zealand context there are two programmes underway that have the potential to be built on in order to aid the skills' development of workers. These are, a horticulture qualification that has been developed for Pasifika people and a literacy, numeracy and financial management programme that has been specifically developed for RSE workers.

Remittances, savings and reintegration

Very little literature was found on reintegration services under the RSE scheme and PSWPS that support development impacts for migrants returning home (i.e. supporting economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects) which suggests that very little is being done in this area. There is a history of remittances in countries that have temporary migrants, and the focus of its use has been on meeting the needs of individuals and their

families. While this has helped to alleviate poverty and improve living conditions and educational standards of the migrants' families, the development impacts with respect to building economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects has been less evident. Where it has happened, e.g. in the Philippines, it has happened as the result of the combined efforts of remittances from individuals and contributions from home governments, NGOs, host employers, and overseas aid agencies.

To date reintegration services in the Pacific, e.g. in Vanuatu and Tonga, have a stronger focus on community development activities compared to activities that support the improvement of economic outcomes for return workers. Further research, policy, and development work is required in order to establish reintegration services that focus on economic development in the Pacific.

Recruitment and employment of women

Temporary migration has positive and negative ramifications for women and there are considerably fewer women than men in temporary work programmes, with the exception of the Philippines. A range of factors contributes to this including, the culture and traditions of home countries, the nature of work in host countries and the gendered way in which employers recruit workers in the horticulture, viticulture and agriculture industries. However as women workers save more money than men, the literature shows that there are opportunities within home and host countries to develop their financial management skills so they are better placed to use their savings for productive and investment activities.

Conclusion

In summary there are opportunities for building economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects once temporary migrants return home, but this is reliant on a range of factors: the political, social and economic conditions of the countries; the finances of the individuals, their respective governments and NGOs; support in the form of aid, training and investment from host countries; training and skill development; and the characteristics of the migrants themselves.

Overall the literature shows that the RSE scheme and the PSWPS have the potential to make a significant contribution to the lives of Pacific people. At this stage the full benefits of the schemes have not emerged as the focus has been on pre-departure and meeting the labour market needs of host countries. If the full potential of temporary migration schemes is to be realised and the second and third of the 'triple wins', benefits to the individuals and their countries are to occur, research, policy and development work in relation to reintegration services needs to be undertaken. In doing so, consideration will need to be given to making stronger connections between immigration, development and aid policies in home countries. This will require deliberate efforts on the part of home and host governments and NGOs.

Introduction

Purpose

The purpose of this literature review was to find out about pre-departure and reintegration services for temporary¹ migrants and the impact of these services. In particular, it focuses on reintegration services that support building economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects. The primary focus was on literature relating to the New Zealand Government's Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme and the Australian Government's Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme (PSWPS). This review also explored Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme (CSAWP) and the Philippines temporary migration scheme to the extent that any lessons learned might be relevant to good practice and opportunities in the South Pacific region.

The review is set out in four sections and concludes with a discussion of the implications of the findings for further work in the Pacific.

Methodology

The review set out to answer the following research questions.

Primary questions

1. What knowledge and skills do workers return to their home countries with?
2. What reintegration services are offered that focus on the development impact of the schemes (i.e. supporting economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects) for seasonal workers in their home countries?
3. What is the impact of the reintegration services on the workers' economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects in their home countries?
4. How do savings and remittances support the reintegration process?
5. What gaps and opportunities exist to develop reintegration services that maximize the development impact as described above?

Secondary questions

6. What pre-departure services are offered by the 'home / host' countries?
7. What is the impact of the pre-departure services on the employment / knowledge / skills of workers?
8. What examples of good practice exist relating to the provision of pre-departure services

¹ The term 'temporary' is used synonymously with 'seasonal'. It covers all the schemes discussed in the review as temporary migration from the Philippines is not seasonal in the way that the three other schemes discussed in this review are. It refers to migration that takes place for work purposes.

9. How do the recruitment practices (in home countries) impact on the lives of women (either as migrants or partners of migrants) and people with disabilities and to what extent might this impact on the development potential of the PSWPS and RSE schemes ?
10. How do employment practices (in host countries) impact on the lives of women (either as migrants or partners of migrants) and people with disabilities and to what extent might this impact on the development potential of the PSWPS and RSE schemes?

Literature search

The literature for this review included evaluations, research, journal articles, policy papers, opinion pieces, media releases, masters' theses, and books that could be sourced electronically. It was limited to material that had been written since 2000 and to the geographic regions that the ILO had requested be included in the review – namely the Pacific, Canada, and the Philippines.

To start with key word searches using Google Scholar were used. The key words included: seasonal migration; temporary migration; circular migration; guest workers; labour mobility; pre-departure services temporary migration; reintegration services temporary migration; temporary migration and women; temporary migration and disabled people; remittance use; remittances and economic development; temporary migration and economic development. All searches included the key words and the Boolean term “and” related to the specific countries to be covered in the review. Once sourced, each piece of literature was then key word searched for information related to each of the aspects to be covered in the review. Following this the snowball method was used whereby the reference lists of publications were checked for additional sources. The ILO also provided literature to be reviewed.

Personal contact was made with the lead evaluator of New Zealand's RSE scheme, who provided additional material in relation to the evaluation of a New Zealand based training programme for RSE workers.

The limitation of the review is that no check was made to assess the reliability of the sources. However this was mitigated by the amount of literature covered and cross-referencing. This ensured that evidence gathered and conclusions drawn are sufficiently reliable. Where evidence was contradictory and could not be confirmed by other sources it was excluded.

The Temporary Migration Schemes

The literature review primarily covers two temporary migration schemes:

- New Zealand's Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) scheme
- Australia's Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme (PSWPS)

In addition two other schemes were looked at where they had lessons that could be learned from:

- Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Workers Program (CSAWP)

- The Philippines temporary migration scheme

New Zealand's Recognised Seasonal Employer scheme

The New Zealand Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme was established in 2006 and started in 2007 by the Department of Labour. Inter-Agency Understandings (IAU) were developed with five “kick-start” Pacific states – Vanuatu, Tonga, Samoa, Kiribati and Tuvalu (MacLellan, 2008; Williams, 2009; Research New Zealand, 2010; Evalue Research 2009; Evalue Research, 2010). An IAU was signed with the Solomon Islands in 2008 (Clark, 2008). Since that time the scheme has expanded to include workers from the Federated States of Micronesia, Nauru, Palau, Papua New Guinea, and the Republic of Marshall Islands.

The scheme provides temporary workers for the horticulture and viticulture industries. The scheme has been described in the literature as a “win-win-win” in that there are wins for the host countries, in particular the horticulture and viticulture industries, wins for the individual workers in terms of skills and financial gain, and wins to the home countries when the workers return with money and skills (Ramasamy, Krishnan, Bedford and Bedford, 2008).

The RSE policy has multiple aims which include improving the productivity of New Zealand's horticulture and viticulture industries, creating a sustainable seasonal labour supply, and contributing to New Zealand's broad objectives in the region with regard to encouraging Pacific economic development, regional integration, and stability (Evalue Research, 2009).

The main aspects of the RSE policy are:

- *Agency to agency relationship*: This aspect of the policy is restricted to six Pacific states – Vanuatu, Tonga, Samoa, Kiribati, Samoa and the Solomon Islands. An Inter Agency Understanding (IAU) between these six Pacific government agencies and the New Zealand Department of Labour sets out the respective obligations of the parties and arrangements for RSE.
- *Employer recognition*: Employers who wish to participate in the RSE policy must first gain recognition by complying with good employer and other requirements. Once they have achieved RSE status, the employer applies for an agreement to recruit (ATR) a specified number of RSE workers (for a specific timeframe, location and work tasks).
- *New Zealanders first principle*: ATRs are approved only upon confirmation that no New Zealand workers are available.
- *Employer driven*: The selection of workers and re-employment of return workers is determined by employers based on their requirements. The relationship between the employer and worker is an employment one.
- *Short term migration*: Worker applicants who have an offer of employment from a RSE employer and who meet the RSE worker criteria are granted a seven month Limited Purpose Entry visa in any 11 month period (except for nationals of Kiribati and Tuvalu where the duration is nine months in an 11 month period).
- *Circular migration*: The policy provides for the return of trained workers (who have an offer of employment) in future seasons.
- *Pastoral care*: The RSE employer is responsible for the pastoral care of workers (Evalue Research, 2009, p. 4; Clark, 2008).

At the outset the scheme allowed for 5000 workers. In 2008 this number expanded to 8000 workers. In 2007-2008 there were 4486 workers; in 2008-2009 there were 6821 workers; in 2009-2010 there were 6216 workers; and in 2010-2011 there were 7091 workers (Department of Labour, 2012).

Australia's Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme

The PSWPS was a three-year pilot scheme announced by the Australian Government in August 2008 with the first workers going to Australia in February 2009. The broad objective of the Pilot was to examine whether a seasonal worker program could:

- contribute to Australia's economic development objectives in the Pacific region, in particular by enabling workers to contribute to economic development in their home countries through remittances, employment experience and training gained from participating in the Pilot
- assist Australian employers in the horticultural industry who have demonstrated unmet demand for local seasonal workers to fulfill their seasonal labour needs (Reed, Southwell, Stafford, Healy and Barker, 2010).

Pacific seasonal workers are recruited from Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Tonga and Vanuatu to work with horticultural enterprises in Australia who cannot find enough local labour to meet their seasonal harvest needs. Approved Employers can choose to recruit Pacific seasonal workers for a minimum of six months, five months or four months (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), 2011).

Under the terms of the Pilot:

- employment is restricted to the horticultural industry
- there needs to be a demonstrated unmet demand for seasonal labour to avoid displacement of Australian workers
- workers are employed by an Approved Employer (AE)
- AEs are required to pay the full cost of the workers' international airfares and recoup half through workers' wages, meet all of the workers' domestic transfer costs, and ensure all workers have private health insurance equivalent to Australian public health cover
- PSWPS workers will be guaranteed at least six months employment at an average of at least 30 hours per week
- visas are for up to seven months (continuous) in any given 12 month period
- Local Advisory Bodies (LABs) have been established in key Pilot locations to advise on the suitability of growers applying to participate in the Pilot and to oversee pastoral care of PSWPS workers (Reed et al., 2010).

The scheme allows for 2,500 visas to be granted, but there was a lack of demand in the first year. In 2008-2009 there were 56 workers; in 2009-2010 there were 67 workers; in 2010-2011 there were 423 workers; and in 2011-2012, as at 31 December there were 326 workers (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011). Up until March 2012 Hay and Howes, (2012) reported that there had been just under 1,100 workers on the scheme. They found that

there had been a low uptake by growers because, growers were happy with their current workforce; the scheme was not well known; and there was a perception amongst growers that the scheme was high risk and high cost, and there was too much red tape.

In December 2011 changes to the scheme were announced. These changes include more choices for AEs to guarantee workers a minimum amount of work and changes to cost sharing arrangements between the AEs and the workers. This will reduce the cost to the employer. The changes take effect from July 2012 (DEEWR, 2012). The programme is being extended to include workers from Nauru, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu and East Timor for the horticulture industry. In addition there will be a small- scale, three-year trial in other industries, including cotton and cane growing, aquaculture and tourism (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011). The programme has also changed its name to the Seasonal Worker Program (SWP).

Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Workers Program

The CSAWP has been operating since 1966. In 2010 there were 27,359 workers from Mexico and the Caribbean requested under the scheme (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, 2011 cited in Preibisch, 2011). Workers are employed for up to eight months. The program aims to:

- meet qualifying fruit, vegetable and horticulture (FVH) growers' seasonal demand for low-skilled agricultural workers during the peak planting and harvesting season when there is a relative shortage of similarly skilled Canadian workers;
- help maintain Canada's economic prosperity and global agricultural trade competitiveness through timely planting, harvesting, processing and marketing of fruits, vegetables and horticulture crops, and expand job prospects for Canadian citizens dependent on agriculture and agriculture-related employment opportunities;
- enhance and maintain the Canadian economy's efficiency through better allocation of local labor resources;
- improve the economic welfare of the migrant workers by providing them with temporary fulltime employment in the labor-intensive commodity sectors of the FVH industry at relatively higher wages than they could obtain from similar or alternative activities in their home countries;
- facilitate the return of the workers to their home countries at the end of their temporary employment in Canada (Verma, 2003, p. v).

Philippines temporary migration

Around 800,000 temporary migrants leave the Philippines annually. The process for migration is managed by the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) that oversees recruitment and placement of workers overseas. "The POEA publishes an updated list of overseas job openings, recruitment agencies' contact information, and the number of vacancies available through their website. The POEA also provides a quality control service by rating the status of the private recruitment agencies. Through Philippine Overseas Labor Offices and a dedicated labor attaché in embassies and consulates, the POEA monitors the treatment of Overseas Filipino Workers (OFWs), verifies labor documents, and assists OFWs in employment

and labor-related disputes” (Ruiz, 2008, p. 1). The POEA places workers in over a hundred countries and all migrants must have their contracts approved by the POEA (Abella, 2006).

Section One: Pre-departure services

Key Point Summary

- In the Pacific the selection of workers for the work ready pools is done by their communities who want workers who will represent their communities well
- Employers identify individual workers whom they want to return in following seasons
- One day’s pre-departure training is insufficient for the workers given the amount of information they are required to retain, e.g. life and culture in the host country, budgeting and managing money and the skills required for the job as employers expect workers to arrive knowing about the work
- Overall, aspects of the pre-departure services seem to be working reasonably well and pre-departure training continues to evolve. Lessons learned from previous experience is taken on board e.g. the RSE scheme has training DVDs in the workers’ first language, a greater emphasis is placed on employment contracts, and there is information about budgeting and financial management. Workers from previous seasons also relate their experiences.

Introduction

This section covers the pre-departure services offered by home and host countries and the impact of these on the employment, knowledge and skills of workers. It also looks for examples of best practice in these services.

Recruitment

Pacific Region

Recruitment is part of the pre-departure services in the home country. For the New Zealand RSE scheme the governments of the kick-start states maintain a register (‘work-ready pool’) of worker candidates. Most employers used these work-ready pools to recruit in the first season in 2007. However, in the second season employers tended to by-pass work-ready pools and recruit directly. Their rationale was a belief that workers from the same communities work better together and have recognised leaders who can support and monitor the group (Evalua Research, 2010).

In Vanuatu, communities themselves selected the workers for the RSE scheme and required a contribution of NZ\$200-250 from each worker to go into a community fund for local projects (such as a water tank). This meant that the community benefitted as well as the individuals and their households (Hayes, 2010; McKenzie and Gibson, 2010). However a case study, (Williams, 2010) revealed that while employers in the Te Puke region thought this system had worked well in Vanuatu in 2008 and 2009, it was not the case in 2010 because employers wanted to take more control of the recruitment process and select the workers they wanted.

In Tuvalu employers recruited workers from a work-ready pool that was established by Island Councils. However in a case-study on Tuvalu, Bedford, Bedford and Ho (2010) believe that it is the New Zealand employer who has the final say over who is recruited. In Tonga workers are also selected from a work-ready pool selected by the community. The workers were shown to be mainly rural agricultural workers.

From the literature it appears that the types of workers chosen were those who were seen to be hard working, reliable, did not drink too much alcohol/kava – and in short they were ambassadors for their countries. A recruiting employer quoted in Bedford et al. (2010, p. 431) emphasises this point, “If one of you does something silly, your name and Tuvalu’s name will come up in the newspapers. And this will put the kibosh on you guys coming back in the future.”

The World Bank (2006) states that in terms of recruiting for the Australian scheme it would be important to target unskilled workers rather than skilled and professional workers. It also stressed the importance of partnerships with Pacific Island governments in the recruitment process and thought there was an opportunity to link the wider Australian Aid programme to the recruitment and operation of the seasonal agricultural programme. They also suggested:

- using already established community groups that have links to particular regions (e.g. the National Farmers Association in Tonga which has ties to the Tongan community in Robinvale in Victoria)
- the development of appropriate standards for recruitment and operation by government, workers and employers (e.g. the Temporary Labour Working Group in the UK which has developed a code of practice, which is voluntary, for labour providers to the agriculture and fresh produce trade).

The recruitment requirements for the PSWPS listed on the DEEWR (2011) website state that applicants must be of good character, healthy and fit, aged between 21 and 45, intend to return to their home country after the season is over and not have participated in the New Zealand RSE scheme. The interim evaluation² of the PSWPS stated that that consideration needs to be given to the overall skill mix of the workers and that they needed to have basic living skills so that they were able to maintain their independence, health and wellbeing (Reed, Southwell, Stafford, Healy and Barker, 2010).

Neither the RSE scheme nor the PSWPS require workers with experience in the industries for which they are being recruited. The extent to which this impacts on their productivity is not clear, but the fact that employers request the same workers in subsequent years suggests that the workers who have acquired skills and are work-ready, are preferred by employers.

Canada and the Philippines

Under the CSAWP Mexicans must have experience working in agriculture, have at least three and no more than 12 years of schooling. Men must be aged between 22 and 45 and women aged between 23 and 40, and men must be married while women must have dependent

² At the time of this review the final evaluation of the PSWPS had not been published.

children. Spouses and children remain in Mexico. A 2003 survey showed that 80 percent of the workers were requested by name by Canadian farmers (Verduzco and Lozano, 2004).

In the Philippines workers have to be medically and technically qualified to be eligible to work overseas. Filipino workers are recruited in three ways, through private recruitment and manning agencies; government-to-government arrangements; and direct naming by employers. Workers are only allowed to work for Filipino approved employers (Agunias, 2008).

Pre-departure services

Pacific Region

The World Bank (2006) noted the importance of pre-departure training in order to mitigate the negative social impacts of existing labour migration schemes. They suggested that pre-departure training could involve a range of participants, including representatives of the home and host countries, growers /employers, unions, and church leaders. In relation to the PSWPS, the World Bank noted that the information should include:

- wage rates and labour rights and conditions (hours, meal breaks, occupational health and safety)
- cultural issues (Australian social norms)
- visa requirements and consular support
- banking and remittance procedures
- mental and physical well-being (the challenges posed by loneliness and isolation from family, substance abuse, gambling, and the risk of HIV/AIDS) (World Bank, 2006, p. 129).

For the RSE scheme, inter-agency understandings (IAUs) between government agencies from participating Pacific countries and the New Zealand Department of Labour, set out the respective obligations of the parties. Though the detail differs between countries, in all IAUs, the governments of participating Pacific countries are responsible for pre-departure briefings to help workers prepare for New Zealand conditions and work. The briefings cover matters such as climate, clothing and footwear requirements, taxation, insurance, remitting and budget advice, and emergency contact information. Workers are also made aware of the penalties if they overstay their work permits (Evalue Research, 2010).

The pre-departure briefings are managed differently across the Pacific countries. In 2010, the following processes were in place for Samoa, Tonga and Vanuatu:

- Samoa: all workers (first time and return workers) had to attend a government pre-departure briefing. All workers were given pre-departure packs written in Samoan. Returning workers were also invited to speak to first time workers about their experiences.
- Tonga: The pre-departure briefing was compulsory for workers and involved two steps. Employers who travelled to Tonga provided an initial briefing in the local community where they were recruiting. As well as briefing workers, the aim was to inform other family and community members about the RSE scheme and advise what workers would

be doing in New Zealand. A second, formal pre-departure briefing was run by the government in Nuku-alofa.

- Vanuatu: Pre-departure briefings were organised on an employer-specific basis for each group of workers. If an RSE employer travelled to Vanuatu, they were invited to be a part of the briefing (Evalue Research, 2010).

The evaluation of the RSE scheme showed the pre-departure training in the first season was not as successful as anticipated, as workers did not have the required information about New Zealand life and work. Officials in each home country had received some information and training from the New Zealand Department of Labour, but few of the trainers were equipped to talk about life in New Zealand because they had never visited or experienced the horticulture and viticulture industries in New Zealand (Evalue Research 2009).

This finding is reinforced by Bailey's case study of ni-Vanuatu workers in Central Otago, which found that the workers got very little out of the training apart from the fact that it informed them about how to live in New Zealand. Very little information was provided about the type of work they would do. As one worker commented, "They didn't tell us on the work, they tell me if you go to New Zealand you will work in apple. I came here, I see but we work in [a] vineyard," (2009, p. 63).

In the case of the ni-Vanuatu workers, what they were able to take out of the pre-departure training may be related to the way in which it was delivered. As a company representative stated:

"The government rules and regulations state that thou shall go to Vanuatu and deliver training to the boys. It's crap, it's an absolute waste of time ... These boys don't learn by being talked at, they learn by doing. How do you teach someone sitting in a room about a concept called an ATM and pin number, something they've never experienced, but especially when they don't speak the language ..." (Bailey, 2009, p. 64).

Pacific countries enhanced their pre-departure briefings for the second season. Workers who had been in New Zealand in the first season also shared their experiences with prospective workers. The New Zealand Department of Labour provided a DVD in each kick-start state's main language. The pre-departure briefings also adapted to meet workers' needs. In the second season, more emphasis was placed on educating workers about budgeting and making sound financial decisions (Evalue Research, 2010). Overall, workers were better briefed in the second year of RSE.

Under the Australian PSWPS, Tongan workers pre-departure services included completing tax and superannuation forms, a session with the Westpac Bank, and a pre-departure briefing by AusAID/DEEWR. Workers were also briefed when they arrived in Australia. Information about work culture, Australian law, climate and culture, amongst other things were discussed. Reed et al. (2010) found that the workers were positive about the amount and type of information they received in the pre-departure briefings, with only minor areas suggested for improvement. These areas were not expanded on in their report. However they did recommend that the use of private companies (such as banks and employers) to deliver information to workers needed

to be monitored by the Australian government and delivered against agreed curriculum standards.

Canada and the Philippines

Since May 2002, the Mexican government has provided most first-time workers with 3,000 pesos (\$280) to travel to Mexico City, where they learn about the work they will do in Canada and their rights and obligations. Workers are required to make between five to eight trips as a result of the different organisations that are involved, including the need to get passports from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, temporary departure forms from the Ministry of the Interior, medical exams at a Canadian-approved health centers in Mexico City.

The World Bank identified issues with the Canadian scheme's pre-departure training, citing (Russell, 2004) who found that no distinction was made between first-time workers from the Caribbean and those who were returning workers. First time workers did not get enough information about issues such as "workplace health and safety, the use of protective equipment, and the different hazards that could be found on the farm," (Russell, 2004, cited in World Bank, 2006, p. 129). Nor did they get enough information about the types of farm work available and their rights under Canadian law (Brem 2006). Returning workers did not get enough information on issues such as pension rights and how to claim them (Russell, 2004, cited in World Bank, 2006). Verduzco and Lozano (2004, cited in World Bank, 2006, p. 129) found that Mexican workers were not well enough informed about their "work situation; workers' rights; fringe benefits ...; legal deductions to wages; and the mechanisms for claiming these benefits".

In spite of pre-departure briefings being as inclusive as possible, the literature shows that there are likely to be aspects of practices in host countries that are not understood by workers. For example Verduzco and Lozano (n.d.) found that in their first season Mexican workers did not know enough about, or could not remember, their labour rights in Canada. In the case of the RSE workers they did not know enough about their employment contracts (Evaluate Research, 2010; Bailey, 2009).

In the Philippines all temporary migrant workers have to undergo a one-day pre-departure seminar. The purpose of the training is to give workers as much information as possible about the destination country (i.e. customs and laws) and the resources that are available to them. Information about financial management is also provided, including the ways in which money can be transferred back to the Philippines.

Impact of pre-departure services on the employment / knowledge / skills of workers

Since the second season of the RSE scheme, workers have reported being more prepared for life and work in New Zealand. This is a result of improved pre-departure briefings and returning workers knowing more about what to expect (Evaluate Research, 2010). However, because of the short time of the briefings there is not enough time for "practical" work experience so workers only gain limited knowledge of the type of work they are to do.

There have been few instances of workers absconding in New Zealand. Around 35 workers absconded in the 2007/08 season (around one percent of the total of the RSE workers who arrived during the first season) and 65 in the 2008/09 season (less than one percent). This

outcome was attributed, in part, to the effective pre-departure orientation that outlined what workers were signing up to (i.e., the nature of the work, work conditions and living arrangements) (Evaluate Research, 2010). Although not stated in the literature, this could also be attributed to the recruitment and selection processes used in the host countries and by the employers.

Examples of good practice relating to the provision of pre-departure services

The literature shows that there are similarities in relation to the pre-departure services provided for temporary workers across the countries in this review. One of the limitations is that the training in most of the countries takes place over one day, although PSWPS workers also have briefings once they arrive in Australia. In relation to the RSE scheme and the CSAWP scheme the following good practices have been identified: (Brem, 2006; Evaluate Research, 2010):

- Returning workers are invited to share their experiences and provide advice to new workers
- Separate workshops are delivered for new and returning workers
- Government officials involved in the pre-departure briefings have visited employers and their workplaces, so are able to provide a detailed explanation of exactly what type of work people will be doing and the demands of seasonal work
- Photographs of orchards and vineyards are incorporated into the sessions to illustrate the New Zealand working environment
- Due to a significant number of complaints during the first season of the RSE scheme from workers who had not properly understood the conditions of their employment, greater emphasis was placed, in subsequent briefings, on reviewing employment contracts and ensuring they are clearly explained to workers.
- Information about budgeting and financial management is provided.

Overall, aspects of pre-departure services are working reasonably well. As can be seen from the literature the practices continue to evolve based on feedback from the workers and others involved in the process. No mention is made in the literature about whether any information is provided about reintegration in the pre-departure training. However aspects of this could be covered off in information related to budgeting and financial management and is probably more suited to returning workers than those going for their first season.

Section Two: Knowledge and skills

Key Point Summary

- Seasonal workers develop work-related skills specific to the jobs they have in their host countries and these skills may not be applicable or transferable in their home countries
- Work-related skills are learnt on-job rather than in training programmes
- There are no overarching work-related skills development programmes in the host countries under the RSE scheme and PSWPS or skills recognition in migrants' home countries. Skills development is left up to individual employers
- Workers acquire generic skills such as English language, time management, financial management
- The RSE scheme offers a small training programme on literacy, numeracy and financial management to workers, who to date, have valued it
- The New Zealand Horticulture Industry Training Organisation has developed a new qualification specifically for Pasifika horticulture workers.

Introduction

This section focuses on the skills that seasonal migrants under the RSE scheme, the PSWPS and the CSAWP return with to their home countries. It looks at both the practical, vocational skills that the workers acquire while working in their host countries and the other more generic skills such as language and financial management. Both sets of skills are important in workplaces and for economic development.

Seasonal migrants from the Pacific who work in New Zealand and Australia and those from Mexico and the Caribbean who work in Canada do so primarily in the horticulture, viticulture and agriculture sectors. They leave their countries with limited vocational skills in relation to these sectors and return with job-specific skills. The literature presents contradictory evidence about skills and the transferability, relevance and applicability of these skills in workers' home countries.

Job-specific Skills

New Zealand and Australia

Under New Zealand's RSE scheme, skill development is identified as a positive outcome for workers. Some of the workers reported that the skills they had learnt in their work in vineyards or orchards could be transferred and used in business ventures they were considering back home. Some expressed interest in finding out about ways to use these new skills when they got home. Some reported that they had learnt about weed control, how to stack pallets, how to use farm equipment and driving skills (Evaluate Research, 2010). In his case study, Cameron (2011, p. 91) found that ni-Vanuatu workers developed vineyard specific skills such as "bud rubbing, shoot thinning, leaf plucking, wire lifting, harvesting, pruning, wrapping and nailing".

Under the Australian PSWPS workers reported learning specific farming skills such as how to prune and pick in their first year and budgeting skills in their second year (Gibson and McKenzie, 2011).

The RSE scheme does not have an overall work-specific training plan for workers while they are in New Zealand. Such training is reliant on individual employers who are mainly interested in training that meets the immediate needs of the workplace. Maclellan (2008) provides such an example of training for workers from Vanuatu in the pilot scheme in Central Otago where courses were provided on small motor mechanics, budgeting and computers.

Bedford, Bedford and Ho (2009) found that the job-specific skills learned in orchards and vineyards may not be easily transferable back to the workers' home countries, but that generic skills such as time management, financial planning, and language skills were more transferable. Connell (2010) found that while the ni-Vanuatu workers acquired some new skills while working in New Zealand, they were limited to the agricultural sector and as a result had limited transferability to Vanuatu. This finding is reinforced by Millbank's (2006) research found that the skills of guest workers in Europe in the 1960s and 1970s were more likely to suit the host than home country.

Canada

Literature from CSAWP shows that there are opportunities for workers to develop their skills as harvesters on tobacco, fruit and vegetable farms. However while they perform harvesting tasks in these sectors Russell (n.d.) found there was little evidence of technology transfer back to their home countries.

The literature also shows there was little evidence of training, especially in relation to the use of agricultural sprays and the use of machinery (Russell, n.d.; Valarezo, 2010). Such training would have improved the likelihood of skills being used back home on farms in Jamaica. Russell (n.d.) felt there was an opportunity for the Ministry of Agriculture to support workers when they returned home so that skills are nurtured and further developed in the workers' communities. Another option suggested by the workers themselves was to make use of the skills related to the use of farm machinery by importing tractor and farm machinery to their home countries and adapting them to local conditions. It was felt that such a scheme, while it would need careful monitoring, had the potential to increase production and productivity considerably.

Lack of training was also a theme emerging for Mexican workers in the Canadian programme. Verduzco and Lozano (n.d.) found that of the 45% of workers who said they had training received it on-job, rather than in dedicated training programmes. A review by The North-South Institute found in a survey of workers that less than half had received training in the use of machinery or in the use of chemicals. Verma (n.d.) found that in spite of agricultural work being one of the most dangerous occupations in Canada, and CSAWP workers being exposed to a range of workplace hazards such as pesticides and operating machinery, that safety training was

inconsistent and up to the discretion of individual employers³.

Generic skills

New Zealand

In addition to job-specific skills there is the opportunity for workers to develop generic skills that will support them to improve their lives and work in their host and home countries. Such skills include time management, supervisory skills, and literacy, numeracy and financial literacy skills.

The evaluation of the RSE scheme showed workers (particularly those from Vanuatu, Tonga and Samoa) returned home with time management and English language skills, as well as an improved work ethic. Returned workers said they were better (in their second year) at managing and saving money (Evalue Research, 2010).

The RSE scheme provides the opportunity for workers to acquire English language and financial literacy skills. A 10 hour training scheme (“Vakameasina – Learning for Pacific Growth”) funded by NZAID, was offered to just over 300 workers in the Hawke’s Bay and the Bay of Plenty regions between November 2009 and September 2010.

“The content of the training programme was designed and delivered by an organisation specialising in adult foundational education in partnership with a training organisation from the horticultural industry. The 10 week, 2 hour per week, training programme imparted the foundational skills (literacy, numeracy and financial literacy) through five modules: financial and personal goal setting; budgeting; payslips, deductions and your rights and responsibilities; remittances; and health and safety. These modules focused on key issues and situations workers encountered to help ensure the learning would be relevant (and facilitate ‘learning transfer’). Some modules utilise computers – for example, introducing the www.sendmoneypacific.org website to examine the cost of remitting money home,” (OECD, 2011, pp. 2-3).

Workers attended classes outside of working hours, which proved problematic for some workers, in that after a long day of physical labour, many were too tired to give their full attention to class. Forty-three percent of the attendees were women⁴. A review of the programme (Roorda, 2011) showed that the programme was valued by the workers who wanted to improve their English language skills, computer skills, and learn how to budget their money. Their reasons for doing the programme included “wanting to communicate more effectively in the workplace, improve job prospects in their home countries, support community and business projects in their home countries, and for personal growth,” (Roorda, 2011, p. 9). The review identified the following outcomes for workers:

³ In June 2005 the Ontario government extended the Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHSA) to farming operations with paid workers, the new regulation came into effect on June 30, 2006. This meant that farm employers had to, amongst other things, develop health and safety policies and programs and provide proper training (The North-South Institute, 2006).

⁴ This percentage is interesting given the overall proportion of males to females in the RSE scheme. However it is in keeping with literature on community literacy and numeracy training programmes which have more female than male enrolments (Benseman and Sutton, 2007).

- *Increased confidence*: Three-quarters of the employers interviewed as part of the evaluation said that workers were now more confident to speak directly to supervisors or other staff. This was also identified by workers who participated in the training.
- *Improved English language skills*: There was evidence that, for some workers at least, there was an increase in English language comprehension.
- *Computer skills*: Workers identified learning computer skills as a key attraction and were able to use them to connect with family at home via email. These new skills also had a potential benefit in the workplace (e.g., undertaking ‘reject analysis’ of produce) (Roorda, 2011).

Up until February 2012, 580 workers had accessed the programme and it has been extended so that a further 500 workers in the Bay of Plenty, Hawke’s Bay, Nelson, Marlborough and Otago can access the programme. This new programme will run for 20 hours per RSE worker and aims “to increase their confidence speaking English, and receive guidance in financial and personal goal setting, budgeting, workers’ rights and responsibilities, leadership, computer skills, general health and sexual health issues” (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2012).

In his case study, Cameron (2011) found that ni-Vanuatu workers returning to Tanna Island had developed skills related to time management and money. While Cameron found that these skills were not always directly transferable to Vanuatu they enabled them to be more successful workers in New Zealand.

In relation to the Canadian scheme, it seems there is little evidence of a systematic approach to developing the English language skills of the workers. Such development is reliant on the work of churches or volunteers (Basok, 2003) or the union, United Food and Commercial Workers, who run a range of workshops including English language classes (Valarezo, 2010).

Opportunities

Hess (2006) points out that in the Pacific there is not enough vocational and technically based training to meet the needs of the Pacific regional labour market and that governments and businesses should be working together to align training standards with the needs of the labour markets. Doing this would enhance opportunities for employment and increase earnings.

Skills development occurs over time. As McKenzie and Gibson (2010) found, it wasn’t until the second year that village leaders in Tonga started to mention improved skills as a benefit of the RSE scheme. However, the development and utilisation of newly acquired skills is something that Pacific states are starting to think about as a contribution that returning workers can make to economic development⁵. For example many of the workers have small plots of land that could be developed through the planting of new crops or increased planting of existing crops – e.g. pawpaw, limes, pineapples, mandarins, oranges (Evaluate Research, 2010). Maclellan (2008) believes this is an area that could be explored further as customary land still plays an important role in sustainable livelihoods in the Pacific.

⁵ See the Strategic Development Plans for each of the states.

Given that workers value their new skills, there is an opportunity to build from this with further training in host and home countries. Currently the pre-departure training for workers in the RSE scheme is minimal in relation to skills for the job⁶. Yet such training would improve their productivity at the outset of their contracts, and has the potential to impact positively on their earnings (Bedford, Bedford and Ho, 2009). In addition to this employers appreciate getting skilled workers as attested to by their requests for return workers.

Evalue Research (2010, p.47) suggests there is an opportunity to build on the skills that have been developed while in New Zealand. "Training could be made available in the source countries for workers to pick up on their return home. Such training could link into existing small business start-up training that is supported by the New Zealand Agency for International Development (NZAID) in some of the kick-start states. Given the equipment (for example, motors and weed eaters) workers are taking home, training in small engine maintenance or mechanical skills would be useful".

The provision of training in New Zealand was also put forward by some of those interviewed about the RSE scheme. For example, teaching workers to grow the types of vegetables that are grown in Samoa would increase their skills and improve their diets while they live in New Zealand (Evalue Research, 2010). In addition, work-specific training in host countries that builds on the skills the workers have would enable them to be more productive and move to higher paying jobs in their host countries e.g., as supervisors or forklift drivers (Evalue Research, 2010).

Recent research in New Zealand by the Horticulture Industry Training Organisation (Newland, Madell, To'o, and Endemann, 2010) has led to the development of a foundation horticulture qualification especially designed for Pasifika learners. It is based around practical teaching which suits both the nature of Pasifika learners and the practical skills required in the industry such as planting crops, applying basic horticulture techniques and using tools. While it was designed with New Zealand-based Pasifika students in mind, the researchers believe that it is a course that could be delivered to seasonal workers either while they are working in New Zealand or in their home country. However given the time requirements of the course, delivering it to workers while they are working is likely to be problematic.

There is the opportunity to consider training such as this within the existing training structures in the Pacific. Currently the Australia-Pacific Technical College operates a network of campuses across the Pacific, including Samoa and Vanuatu. It offers a range of Australian vocational qualifications at Certificate levels III and IV⁷. However, as at April 2012 it was not offering courses in agriculture or horticulture. Vanuatu has 50 Rural Training Centres operating throughout the country. These centres offer skill development in areas such as small business management, legal rights, agriculture, mechanics and carpentry (Oxfam, 2012). Pre-departure and post-return training could be offered in these places.

⁶ This is at odds with employers' expectations whereby they expect that workers will know something about the work they are coming to New Zealand to do. However pre-departure training is not delivered by employers' agents, but by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Labour (Bedford, Bedford and Ho, 2010).

⁷ These Certificates would be at a considerably higher level than the foundation horticulture qualification that has been developed in New Zealand, which consists of a National Certificate in Employment Skills (Level 1) and National Certificate in Horticulture (Level 2).

While, Bedford et al. (2009) believe there is the potential for individuals to bring benefits back to their communities as a result of the new skills and ideas that are developed during temporary migration, they also think that more needs to be known about the role that additional training for workers might play in contributing towards economic development.

Overall there is a role for all parties in the temporary migration schemes to play in the knowledge and skills development of seasonal workers, before they leave their home countries, in their host countries, and on return to their home countries. Development and use of knowledge and skills has an important role to play in contributing to the economic well-being of individuals and the economic development of their communities.

Section Three: Reintegration Services, Remittances and Savings

Key point summary

- There is a history and tradition of remittance use in each of the countries in this review that focuses on meeting the needs of individuals and their families
- There is evidence that remittances and savings from temporary migration schemes contribute to community development
- Currently, reintegration services have a stronger focus on community development than on improving the economic outcomes of individuals
- When it is left to the individual alone, there is no guarantee that remittances and savings will be used to generate income and/or improve employment prospects
- There is a very limited range of formal reintegration services that focus on contributing to the economic livelihood, income generation and employment prospects for individuals
- Development activities that generate employment and incomes for individuals occur as a result of the combined efforts of remittances from individuals and contributions from home governments, NGOs, host employers, and overseas aid agencies
- Further research and policy work is required in order to establish or further develop reintegration services that focus on improving economic outcomes for individuals and subsequently economic development in their countries.

Introduction

This section reviews the reintegration services⁸ that are offered to temporary migrants under New Zealand's RSE scheme, Australia's PSWPS, and any lessons learned from Canada's SAWP and the Philippines' scheme. It looks at the development impact of the services, i.e. supporting economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment for seasonal workers in their home countries. It also identifies some gaps and opportunities that could be explored to improve on the current reintegration services in the Pacific and considers how savings and remittances could support the reintegration process.

Temporary migration schemes are seen as a way of addressing the economic needs of host countries, the migrants themselves and their home countries: the elusive triple win (Ramasamy et al., 2008). However, Hayes (2010) points out that the research to date shows that there is no guarantee that temporary migration promotes economic development in host countries. This is despite the fact that opportunities exist for leveraging off both the financial and human capital of returning workers.

To date, the focus of the literature on temporary migration has been on the set-up of schemes, pre-departure processes, conditions and work in host countries, earnings of individual workers and what they expect to do with these earnings. This review found limited examples of how

⁸ The reintegration services discussed in this section refer to opportunities for improving economic outcomes for individuals and their communities.

remittances and savings support the reintegration of temporary workers into their communities with a view to improving the economic outcomes for the individuals and their communities.

History of remittance use in the Pacific

Pacific Island states have a long history of remittances, which are increasing at a faster rate than development aid or direct foreign investment (Hayes 2010). In general remittances have provided a steady source of income that has helped to alleviate poverty, improved the levels of education, and there are small signs that they have stimulated business activity (World Bank, 2006). In summary Connell and Brown (2005, pp. 32-37) report that these remittances have been used for:

- Food: especially in Kiribati and Tuvalu because of the poverty on the outer islands and the limited alternatives for spending the money
- Goods: in the early 2000s there was a move away from purchases to meet basic needs to goods such as sound systems, telephones, and televisions
- Housing: while this can be seen as a form of consumption it also needs to be seen as an investment as it contributes to the economic growth of Pacific states
- Savings: there is little evidence that remittances contribute to savings or other financial investments
- Airfares: for family members
- Education: this is seen as an investment in the future
- Investment: after consumption goals have been satisfied, there is sometimes investment in agriculture, fishing, but more frequently in shops and the transport business
- Community use: usually as support for churches – construction and maintenance, pastors' incomes and related activities; also to local sporting associations, women's groups, specific local development projects, scholarships
- Social Use: to meet the high costs of weddings funerals and other ceremonies.

Overall Connell and Brown (2005) concluded that the contribution of remittances has been positive at the household level, but has made a lesser contribution to development at the national level.

Impact of savings and remittances

Under New Zealand's Recognised Seasonal Employer scheme

The earnings of seasonal workers in the RSE scheme were considerably more than what they could earn at home. Merwood (2012) found that the earnings of RSE workers from the six countries with IAUs were \$10,386 in 2007/2008; \$11,410 in 2008/2009; and \$12,036 in 2009/2010. After deducting costs for airfares, accommodation and food, on average workers earned NZ\$5,764.00 (Maclellan, 2009 cited in Hayes, 2010)⁹. The first priority for spending

⁹Other literature reviewed quotes earnings/savings figures in different ways. For example, Gibson (2010) states that Samoan workers remit on average NZ\$5000 per season while Hayes (2010) reported that some Samoan workers save NZ\$15,000 over a seven month period. In Tonga and Vanuatu the average was NZ\$5,500. In Tuvalu it appears to have

saved earnings by RSE participants was the repayment of loans taken out to cover the initial expenses of participating in scheme (i.e., obtaining a passport, police clearance, medical certificate, visa, and airfare). Improving or building houses and paying school fees for children were also important uses of money saved from temporary labour migration (Hayes, 2010). For some of the workers their earnings were not as high as they had been led to expect, and as Connell (2010) found in relation to Vanuatu, earnings had little long-term impact and were spent within a few months. This contrasts with Hammond and Connell's (2008) earlier view (cited in Ramasamy et al., 2008) that there were income gains for ni-Vanuatu workers. While it wasn't possible at that time to say what they had been used for, it appeared that they were being used for development purposes.

In theory, once initial needs have been met by the individuals, attention could/should be given to the use of savings and remittances for improving economic livelihoods. However, temporary migrants and their families may need greater support to do this as there is a limited history of remittances being used in this way. As the literature shows remittances are more likely to be used for personal or altruistic (church and community) reasons, rather than economic ones. But at the individual level there are signs of change, "First you pay the school fees, then you build a house, then you can do some business" (Cameron, 2011, p. 93).

Connell and Brown (cited in Hayes, 2010, p. 51) noted a tendency for remittances to "find their way into investment in small business such as retail shops, taxis, fishing boats and gear, or invested in houses that will bring in rental revenue". This finding is supported by anecdotal evidence from some workers in the RSE scheme who have said that they use their savings for businesses such as taxis or fishing boats (Bailey, 2009; Evalue Research 2010; Roorda, 2011). What these trends indicate is that use of funds to improve economic livelihoods may occur over different timeframes, after personal needs have been met, and at an individual level (Bedford et al., 2009).

Numbers in the PSWPS have been too small to date to determine the impact on economic livelihoods of the workers and their families. However Gibson and McKenzie's study (2011) found that the aggregate development impact would have been A\$2600 per household.

Under Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Workers Program and the Philippines

Mexico and the Philippines are ranked third and fourth respectively in terms of remittance-receiving countries (Castles, 2010; Basa, Harcourt and Zarro, 2011). However, the literature shows that the use of remittances and savings to support economic growth is only likely to occur when countries have the appropriate policies in place (Fox and Gois, 2010; Basa et al., (2011).

been less than this (Bedford, Bedford and Ho, 2010). In Tonga about half was in the form of remittances and half as repatriated savings, whereas in Vanuatu only 10 percent was in the form of remittances and 90 percent as repatriated savings (McKenzie and Gibson, 2010).

In relation to CSAWP Verduzco and Lozano, (n.d.) and Basok (2000) found that the impact of the money earned by Mexican workers in the scheme was felt most at the individual and family level and it took several seasons of work for this to happen. The workers felt that their families had better food, clothing, health care and education, and the longer they were in the program the better their houses were. However these researchers also found that the money earned by the workers was not enough for substantial purchases and there was limited investment in businesses, either agricultural or non-agricultural. The researchers concluded that this was due to both a lack of money and the characteristics of the workers' communities. Verduzco and Lozano (n.d.) considered that over all the CSAWP scheme helped to alleviate rural poverty and had an indirect economic impact on the communities through an increase in goods purchased and housing construction.

An article in the Rural Migrant News (2004) stated that the lack of investment by Mexican workers in their villages happens because of a lack of investment opportunities and a lack of funds. The article cited a survey of 360 workers by Tlaxcala, and Morelos (2003) who found that while two-thirds of the workers said they had learned new skills in Canada they did not have the opportunity to put them into practice at home as they lacked access to land. In addition there had been no government efforts to match the workers' remittances or to provide the opportunities for workers to use their new skills.

Brem (2006) found that the situation for the Jamaican workers¹⁰ participating in the CSAWP was similar to that of the Mexican workers. However the point of difference was that some of the Jamaican workers said that they had tried to make agricultural improvements based on what they had learned in Canada. They had applied their new knowledge and skills on their own farms and also taught other farmers. Brem's (2006, p.15) view is that if additional economic benefits are to accrue from the CSAWP then consideration needs to be given to the way in which this might happen. The following suggestions were offered:

- The workers could be taught specific farming skills in Canada that could then be put to use if local authorities in the Caribbean were to organise agricultural projects, perhaps in conjunction with improvements to local infrastructure and the provision of low-interest loans for equipment and farm inputs
- Some workers could be given additional training and deployed as farm extension workers
- Some Caribbean workers said they would like to learn about crop sciences, animal husbandry, irrigation, plant disease control and other farming practices that could be taught in Canada if a capacity-building element were added to the CSAWP

¹⁰ Jamaican workers have a compulsory savings scheme, while the Mexican workers do not. Twenty-five percent of Jamaicans' wages are withheld and remitted to their governments. Caribbean governments retain from five to eight per cent of the funds, depending on the country, as administrative expenses, and the rest is placed in the workers' accounts at the end of the season (Brem, 2006, p. 9). The majority of workers think the scheme is excellent (Friedman and Ahmed, 2008).

- The possibility of creating a fund from some portion of the workers' remittances to support the development of small businesses by workers and their families. If managed well, the fund might attract additional assets from local financial institutions or donors.

In the Philippines, Asis and Baggio (2008) have identified that further work needs to be done on reintegration. As there is a lack of economic opportunities in the Philippines, migrants extend their employment in host countries for as long as they can. The economic impact of remittances is seen at the family level where money is used to buy land, build houses, start small businesses, buy goods, and save. In the study by Basa et al. Filipino women said that their remittances, "are spent largely on the education and care of children, building of houses, home appliances, health care, and some investments into small-scale businesses" (2011, p. 14). Overall the remittances contribute to improved material well-being for migrants' families and make some contribution to local development.

Reintegration services

Pacific

As the literature shows, to date there has been very little in the way of reintegration services offered to returning workers in the Pacific. However some consideration has been given to the types of activity or services that would be needed to support workers on their return. The World Bank (2006, p. 135) cites examples from the Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (2005) of the sorts of steps that could be taken to enhance the use of savings and remittances, including improving the financial literacy and advisory training schemes to encourage returning workers to invest their earnings.

Vanuatu appears to have taken the most initiative in respect to reintegration services. In Vanuatu the Lolihor Development Council takes an organised approach to ensuring remittances are used for community projects. Workers from an association of 12 villages, who were selected by the Council to participate in the RSE scheme were required to give a proportion of their earnings (NZ\$200 - \$250) to the Council¹¹. The money was used for a range of projects. In North Ambrym, the funds supported projects run by women and included small businesses and crop production, along with a separate scholarship fund for education and training. On Tanna, the workers contribution was matched by "World Vision New Zealand in joint venture with the Paramount Chief of Tanna which decides how the funds will be used," (Bedford et al., 2009). In August 2011 an aid post in Malo, funded by six RSE workers, was opened to provide health and community services. It is anticipated that this will continue to be funded by future RSE workers (Pacific Islands Trade & Invest, 2011).

Individual workers also attest to what is happening in their communities in Vanuatu,

"I have some plans that I think if it work something a little bit that I won't come back again, I will be fine....I can tell you what we have achieved so far. We have a water supply

¹¹ In the case of ni-Vanuatu workers in Central Otago they contributed an additional NZ\$10,000 that they earned busking. The men's wages were also controlled by the recruiting company who split money into two bank accounts for each worker, one for weekly spending and one for saving (Bailey, 2009).

system, we have a health care centre which was the money that came from overseas. Now the government was very interested, so now he is paying the ladies full-time working in the health centre because unlike you the mothers have to travel a long way for delivery and now it's right there in the community. And then all of the land of our community has been surveyed, put in the computer, other places in Vanuatu have never done this because it costs a lot of money. And the water for two villages that the supply wouldn't reach two villages that are on a hill, it was a bit hard but they built big tanks there just to get their water supply....And another thing we have fishing boats for each community. They go out fishing and get some fish for the community. So ah four boats was organised by the council then." (Bailey, 2009, p. 60).

Workers funds are also drawn on for a micro-credit scheme that is run by women, the Vanuatu Women's Development Scheme (VANWODS). (See Section Four, p. 38 for more detail.)

However, although there is an organised approach to the use of remittances in Vanuatu, this does not guarantee success as there are reports of failed business ventures and workers needing to return to New Zealand in the following season (Bailey, 2009).

In Tonga the Lapaha Town Council has in place a structure to oversee a number of projects, including improving the water supply. Lapaha was the first village to nominate workers for the RSE scheme in New Zealand in 2007, but after the first season it was unclear how the remittances of these workers were contributing to the work of the Council (Maclellan, 2008). In 2011 Tongan workers returning from work under the PSWPS scheme donated funds to the Alonga Centre for the handicapped at Pea in Tongatapu (Matangi Tonga, 2011).

Within the RSE scheme, the "Vakameasina – Learning for Pacific Growth" programme, discussed earlier in this review, is a reintegration-related programme funded by NZAID. The evaluation of the programme run in two regions in 2010 identified enormous interest from RSE workers to participate in training while they are in New Zealand. This was evidenced by the high number of workers who enrolled in the first intake (Roorda, 2011).

The fact that the course was held in New Zealand meant many workers had immediate opportunities to put their learning into practice. In the workplace there were examples of workers using their newly acquired language skills to engage with supervisors and employers. One employer had identified an opportunity for workers to use computers in the workplace. The evaluation identified some workers had set up businesses in their home countries (either prior to, or as a result of their involvement in RSE). These workers particularly valued learning business-related budgeting and financial skills (Roorda, 2011).

Little is known about the impact of the training course on women workers who participated. Interviews with tutors suggests that some of the women from Kiribati have less opportunity to use the learning from the course as they have limited or no control over the money they earn as it is sent home to other family members (Roorda, 2011).

In terms of the impact of the "Vakameasina – Learning for Pacific Growth" programme on the workers' economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects in their

home countries, the evaluation noted that it was also too early to comment on any impact from the training in workers' home communities (Roorda, 2011).

Mexico and the Philippines

In Mexico, the Three-for-One program¹², federal, state and local governments each match investment flows on a dollar for dollar basis (Taparia, 2005, cited in the World Bank, 2006). The Three-for-One program is a community driven program where communities, mainly in small towns and villages, propose projects that are to be funded by collective remittances. Federal, state and local governments then vet the proposals and contribute matching funds. Over time, even though there have been calls for focus to be given to productive projects (Zamora, 2008), the Three-for-One projects have been shown a preference for public good, such as roads, drinking water, welfare services, paving and electricity as opposed to job creating investments (Fox and Bada, 2008). However, very little of the funds go into creating sustainable jobs. A probable reason for this is the lack of "investment opportunities in so many of the sending communities, as well as the critical need for on-the-ground entrepreneurial and technical capacity" (Fox and Gois, 2010, p. 13). Added to this is the notion that the public good projects benefit whole communities as opposed to small-scale investment opportunities that at the outset might only benefit small numbers (ibid, 2010).

The Philippines has a National Reintegration Center for overseas Filipino workers, established in 2007. The center offers a range of programmes and services related to employment and financial literacy and investments.

The Philippines¹³ also has schemes that support returning migrants, both temporary migrants and those who have been overseas for longer. Two of these are outlined below.

Unlad Kabayan Migrant Services Foundation Inc¹⁴ is a non-government organization (NGO) based in the Philippines. It focuses on migrant workers and social entrepreneurship in the Philippines. Unlad Kabayan provides migrants with the business knowledge, skills, and support they need to successfully reintegrate when they return to the Philippines. For example:

- *Micro-credit*: Micro, small and medium enterprises can borrow money through the Credit Assistance Program (CAP)¹⁵. Loans are used to pay for improvements to migrants' businesses, and to help them upscale their operations.
- *Business enterprise development*: Unlad Kabayan helps develop micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) in communities, to help the local population. They range from small sari-sari stores (corner stores) to large-scale agricultural operations.

¹² Contributions to this program are also made by migrant Mexican workers other than those in Canada.

¹³ The Philippines has more than eight million migrants working in 203 countries. Just under four million are temporary workers. The Unlad Kabayan programme is for all Filipino migrants, not just the temporary migrants.

¹⁴ <http://www.unladkabayan.org/http://www.unladkabayan.org/> Information is taken directly from their website.

¹⁵ The funds used by CAP come from investments from overseas Filipino workers, and a P10 million credit line from the Development Bank of the Philippines (DBP).

- *Education and Training:* Some of the training modules for migrants include Migrant Savings and Alternative Investment (MSAI) orientation, managing your money, enterprise development, and agricultural and environmental practices.
- *Migrant Workers' Programmes:* Unlad Kabayan travel to destination countries in Asia and Europe to meet with groups of migrants, to promote the benefits of saving and investing. Workers pool a proportion of their savings, and then choose to save their money through a bank, invest in successful enterprises that the Unlad Kabayan has helped set up in the Philippines, or start their own enterprises. Migrants also attend free seminars on topics including business skills and the advantages of saving and investment.

Atikha¹⁶ is another NGO that provides economic and social services to overseas Filipinos and their families in the Philippines. In relation to reintegration services Atikha assists in:

- organising the community and in the development of community-based enterprises
- helping identify viable enterprises through feasibility and market studies
- providing technology transfer and training, and support for the start-up operation of the enterprise¹⁷.

Gaps and Opportunities

Hess (2006) states that there are three areas of economic activity that need distinguishing. Firstly the formal employment sector where employees receive wages, secondly the more informal sector which includes self-employment or family employment, e.g. people setting up small businesses, and thirdly subsistence activity.

In relation to establishing small businesses, the challenges are:

- insufficient training in this area
- in some cases government regulations that mitigate against it e.g., street vending
- high government fees and charges for setting up businesses in the region and this may discourage some people
- the cost or non-availability of finance (Hess, 2006).

Hess (2006) believes that in the Pacific there is potential for improved economic outcomes for individuals in the area of subsistence activity given the strong traditional ties people have to the sea and land. The Pacific Island Forum in 2006 also identified rural agriculture as an area most likely to benefit from workers' participation in temporary migration schemes.

¹⁶ <http://www.atikha.org/about.php>. Information is taken directly from their website.

¹⁷ An example of this is COCO NATUR which is a social enterprise engaged in the processing of Virgin Coconut Oil (VCO) products such as: VCO Soap, Aroma Therapy Essence Oil, Hair Oil and moisturizer. Another upcoming project of Atikha and Coco Natur is the establishment of COCO VILLAGE in San Pablo City to showcase the coconut-based products and to promote ecotourism.

In relation to the Philippines, Baggio (2008) found there was little connection between migration policies and development policies and that after 40 years of migration there was little evidence to show that migration has contributed to development. To increase the likelihood of this happening, he suggests that “overseas workers and their families should be properly informed through financial literacy programs and ad hoc capacity building seminars. They should be introduced to more productive uses of remittances, strategies of savings and sound possibilities of investment” (2008, p. 115).

As the literature has shown, there is no guarantee that economic investment will happen as result of the savings and remittances of temporary migrants. Hayes (2010) believes there is a need for further research and evaluation of schemes such as the RSE scheme and the PSWPS in order to provide further information about what is happening. Bedford et al. (2009) believe that further research is required into the ways in which temporary migrants are reintegrated back into their home communities so that more can be learnt about how to build development potential. Duncan and Voigt-Graf (2010) point out that there is a need to understand more about political, cultural and economic constraints. For example they state that it could be argued that people cannot get credit as it requires collateral and they do not have individually identified assets, namely land that allows them to do this. Legislative change is underway in some countries in the Pacific, including, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu that will allow for changes to the ways in which land can be used.

There is also the opportunity for further policy work. The Pacific Cooperation Foundation (PCF), funded through by New Zealand Government and the World Bank has made a start. The PCF aims to strengthen the capacity of the countries participating in the RSE scheme. While its current focus is on administration, further work could be done beyond the project on social and economic planning (Hayes, 2010).

The evaluation of the RSE scheme identified the need for Pacific countries to develop services that:

- encourage ‘wise’ spending by workers while in New Zealand
- engender a savings culture and the building of capital
- encourage the use of RSE earnings for seeding business ventures
- utilise workers’ horticulture skills to improve productivity in domestic crop production at home
- explore how the new horticulture workforce could be employed at home for new export crops
- transform RSE income flows into job creation and local investment (Evaluate Research, 2010).

This review identified no literature that suggested individual Pacific countries have developed formal reintegration programmes for returned RSE workers that support building economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects. McKenzie and Gibson (2010) found no evidence that the RSE scheme had fostered the development of non-agricultural businesses among the households in Tonga. In Vanuatu the authors found only five households

who reported that the most important use of the money earned through the RSE scheme was starting a business or supporting an existing business.

However, improving economic outcomes for individuals is clearly important for the different Pacific countries involved. In Vanuatu, for example, the RSE scheme is seen as a way to build the knowledge and expertise of ni-Vanuatu workers so they can pursue other opportunities for overseas contract labour as offshore work is regarded as crucial to enhance Vanuatu's economic independence and to reducing the country's reliance on aid (Evaluate Research, 2010). The evaluation of the RSE scheme also notes that the Vanuatu Department of Labour requested funding from the New Zealand Agency for International Development, World Bank, and International Labour Organisation to assist with various community-level training and reintegration programmes (Evaluate Research, 2010).

In Tonga, workers have expressed interest in using the horticulture skills they have gained as part of their RSE work to plant new crops or increase planting of existing crops that could help to reduce reliance on imported goods (Evaluate Research, 2010).

The schemes that are operating in Vanuatu, Mexico and the Philippines show that it takes more than just an individual worker returning with funds, but requires input from government and non-government agencies. Strong development policy is required in home countries in order to maximize the benefits of workers' earnings (Agunais, 2008). As Bedford et al. (2009, p. 57) state, "NGOs working on rural and municipal development and governance have an important role to play, particularly through the provision of technical and financial assistance. NGOs can be effective in ... making migrants aware of potential investment options at home". Consideration also needs to be given to encouraging employers in host countries to explore investment opportunities in the Pacific perhaps as joint ventures with workers (Evaluate Research, 2010).

In summary there are opportunities for improved economic outcomes for individuals once temporary migrants return, but this is reliant on a range of factors: the political, social and economic conditions of the countries; the finances of the individuals, their respective governments and NGOs; support in the form of aid from host countries; training and skill development; and the characteristics of the migrants themselves.

Section Four: Recruitment and Employment of Women

Key Points Summary

- With the exception of the Philippines, there are considerably fewer women than men in temporary work programmes
- A range of factors contribute to fewer women participating in temporary migration schemes, including the culture and traditions of home countries, the nature of work in host countries and the gendered way in which employers recruit for work in the horticulture, viticulture and agriculture industries
- There are both positive and negative ramifications for women who migrate and those who stay home
- Women workers save more than men and are more likely to use the money on their families
- Opportunities exist in home and host countries to develop the financial management skills of women.

Introduction

This section discusses how the recruitment practices in home countries impact on the lives of women (either as migrants or partners of migrants) and the extent to which this might impact on the development potential of the RSE scheme and the PSWPS. It also makes limited comment on how the employment practices in host countries impact on the lives of women (either as migrants or partners of migrants).

The literature reviewed for this report highlights that very little research has been conducted in relation to temporary migration and women (Rohura, Gibson, McKenzie and Martinez, 2009; Bedford, Bedford and Ho, 2009; Quintana, 2011). This is despite considerable growth in the numbers of women migrating, either as partners of workers or as individuals looking for work over the last 50 years. Much of the literature in relation to migration and gender relates to longer-term migration, or in the case of temporary migration in the Philippines to women who migrate for longer than a season. Although some literature is starting to emerge in relation to the CSAWP.

Hayes (2010, p.58) notes that more research needs to be done in this area in order to fully understand “whether the consequences of men’s and women’s migration behavior are different, whether migration can contribute to equality and the empowerment of women or reinforce existing patterns of inequality and whether women are more active than men in maintaining transnational ties, including the sending of remittances”.

Seasonal migration in the Pacific, the United States and Canada is dominated by men and demarcated by gender (Evaluate Research 2010; Hayes, 2010; Jayaraman, Choong, and Kumar, 2009; Williams, 2009) with the nature of the physically demanding work appearing to have

driven this (McKenzie and Gibson, 2010; Encalada Grez, 2011)¹⁸. However, as Preibisch (2010) found in relation to Mexico the situation was also likely to be shaped by history and culture that saw men as breadwinners and women at home. She found however that employers caused the situation due to their determined preference for male farmhands.

There are differing views in the different Pacific countries. For example research conducted by Gibson and McKenzie (2011) found that while 95% of the Tongan respondents believed that seasonal work in the PSWPS was more appropriate for men, those from Kiribati, who were only a small number, thought that the work was equally suitable for men or women.

Recruitment Practices

Hess (2006) states that some countries in the Pacific have fewer cultural barriers than others to gendered employment. Duncan and Voigt- Graf (2010) point out that less than a third of women in the Pacific are formally employed and they often have a considerable role to play in providing subsistence livelihoods. In addition to this, some women, such as those in Vanuatu, have less familiarity with the outside world and are more likely to be conservative.

While there was some participation by women in the RSE scheme from 2007 to 2009, it was limited (Prochazkova, 2010). However, in Vanuatu, for example, by the second year of the scheme, although there was a clear preference for males, 22% of workers were female. This may have resulted from employers seeking equal female participation (e.g. some employers looked to recruit husband and wives from the island of Epi). This contrasts with Williams' (2010) case study finding that employers in the Te Puke region in New Zealand were looking to employ fewer women from Vanuatu because of the difficulties they had had with them in previous seasons.

Overall female applicants in the RSE scheme were less likely to be married than the males (McKenzie, Martinez and Winters, 2008). The selection of women was done on the basis that employers believed that their skills were better suited for activities such as grading (Connell, 2010).

Samoa identified the need to increase the numbers of female workers (Bedford, Bedford and Ho, 2009; Hayes, 2009). These authors also thought there was the opportunity for an increase in temporary migration for women as seafarers from Kiribati and Tuvalu, as their training schools now accept women to train as cooks or stewards.

In the case of Tonga, "only 73 of the 816 Tongan RSE workers (9 percent) recruited by May 22, 2008 were female. Only three out of the 305 Tongan RSE workers arriving in New Zealand in 2007 were women, with more recruited in 2008. One reason for the increase in female participation in early 2008 appears to be the changing nature of seasonal work available, with more women being employed to do work packing fruit towards the end of the season," (Gibson, McKenzie and Rohorua, 2008, p. 7).

¹⁸ There also appears to be wider equity issues at play in terms of ensuring that opportunities are provided to, for example, the relatively poor and rural households in Vanuatu and those from as many islands as possible in Kiribati and Tuvalu (Bedford et al., 2009).

A similar situation exists in the CSAWP. While there has been an increase in the numbers of women from Mexico since the program's inception, the rate of Mexican women's participation sits at only three percent of the seasonal workforce (Verduzco and Lozano, n.d.). The combined participation rate of women from Mexico and the Caribbean in 2010 was only 2.49 percent (Grez, 2011). Overall, Grez (2011) believes that this is as a result of employers' bias. The increase in the number of women workers has happened as result of employers' requests for those who have participated to return. These employers prefer women for fruit and vegetable harvesting and packing.

In relation to workers from the Pacific and Mexico, the men are mostly married, while the women are predominantly single. However these women may well be single mothers with children they are still raising.

In contrast to the small numbers of female workers in the New Zealand, Australian and Canadian temporary migration schemes, 49 percent of migrants from the Philippines are women (World Bank, 2008, cited in Basa et al., 2011). They primarily work in the care industry as domestic helpers, teachers, nurses and hostesses.

It is not overtly stated in the literature whether or not these low numbers of female workers are caused by recruitment policies in home or host countries or by a combination of cultural and skill related factors, and gendered perceptions and practices. However, considering the roles that employers recruit for it appears that there is gender bias in their employment practices in that they deem men suitable for some roles and women for others.

Women left behind

This review also briefly considered the impact of temporary migration schemes on women left behind. There are both positive and negative effects for these women. While much has been written about the negative impact, little has been written about the positive impacts that include:

- A change in role and status of women as they gain additional responsibilities and autonomy, and effectively become heads of households
- A leading role as receivers and managers of remittances (Franck and Spehar, 2010; Cameron, 2011). The cash that comes in the form of savings and remittances from family members working overseas can help to reduce poverty and increase the health and education levels of children who stay at school longer than the children of those who do not migrate for work¹⁹
- The opportunity to establish small business ventures, e.g. handcrafts, trading (Bedford et al., 2009; IFAD, 2010).

Cameron's case study, (2011) found that when men were away working in New Zealand that extended family systems worked to support the women at home in Vanuatu. Cameron noted

¹⁹ There was a positive correlation between the number of years workers had been involved with CSAWP and their children's school leaving age (MacLellan and Mares, 2006; Friedman and Ahmed, 2008).

that while the women had taken on extra activities with livestock and gardening they thought it was worth it, “It’s hard, but I’m happy he’s coming home with the money!” (p. 93, 2011).

While this review has, overall, revealed a negative picture of the situation of women left behind, it has not considered women’s position had temporary migration not occurred. Therefore the findings need to be balanced in the light of the contribution that is made to the lives of women and children as a result of savings and remittances that occur as a result of seasonal employment by male family members.

A summary of the literature covered in this review states that the negative impact on women left behind in the Pacific, Mexico, and Philippines includes:

- Loneliness and depression as a result of irregular contact with partners / spouses overseas
- Extra responsibilities, especially in relation to remittances
- A reduction in household productivity (varying, dependent on the background and skill of the seasonal worker)²⁰
- Difficulties with child rearing and a youth crisis
- Family breakups
- Being a burden for older women who become responsible for childcare as their daughters enter the workforce.

Women as temporary migrants

Given the issues outlined above is it any better for women who are themselves temporary migrants? The literature shows that the impact is mixed in women’s home and host countries. It also shows there are gendered differences in the ways in which women are treated, the work that they do, and the amount of earnings they send home.

From a positive perspective women who are temporary migrants:

- Can feel a sense of freedom as they take on more decision making responsibilities for their families or have the opportunity to operate in roles outside of their traditional ones (Bedford et al., 2009; Willoughby and Henderson, 2009; IFAD, 2010; Evalue Research, 2010)
- Can feel empowered as a result of increased earnings and skills (IFAD, 2010; Basa et al. 2011)
- Achieve a higher degree of equality with their male counterparts from their home countries as they are given equal status by the employer (Williams, 2010)
- Value the opportunity as they are able to earn more than they could have in their home countries because of the limited employment opportunities available to them in their poor rural communities (Preibisch and Encalada Grez, 2008; Encalada Grez, 2011)

²⁰ And also varied between countries, for example lost labour time was higher in Vanuatu than in Tonga, partly due to the smaller size of households in Vanuatu (Hayes, 2010).

- Have improved marital relationships when they migrate and work with partners as there is more shared decision making (Curran and Saguy, n.d.). Note this idea is also being promoted in New Zealand's RSE scheme.

Franck and Spehar (2010) cited a United Nations Population Fund Review²¹ that women were more likely to invest money in their daily needs and their children. However, in traditional societies they did not have control over financial decisions, assets or property.

The negative impacts for women include:

- Marital conflict when left behind men struggle to take on household and child rearing duties that they are not used to (Bedford et al. 2009); impact on marriages and parent-child relationships (Asis, 2006)
- Sexual harassment and bullying of female agricultural workers in places where there weren't regulations and support in place to prevent this (MacLellan and Mares, 2006; Encalada Grez 2011)
- Harassment by male workers from their home countries where gendered inequalities exist within their own culture (Williams, 2010)
- Gender and racial discrimination as well as sexual harassment (Encalada Grez, 2011)
- Limited working opportunities can lead women to try and outperform men or acquiesce to employer demands to ensure further work (Preibisch and Encalada Grez, 2008; Encalada Grez, 2011)
- Increasing demands by extended families for remittances to cover wider family costs Basa et al. 2011)
- Childcare arrangements – in the case of Mexican women, who are often single parents, arrangements need to be made for wider family members to take care of children (Quintana, 2011; IFAD, 2010; Encalada Grez 2011). This can lead to depression and anxiety for the women (Preibisch and Encalada, 2008)

Studies in the Philippines showed that when men leave as temporary migrants their families adjust as women assume responsibility. However when women leave this is not the case and families have to go through further adjustments. Men do not assume the traditional child-raising roles and children are often passed on to female relatives to look after. Basa et al. (2011) report that there are high social costs to Filipino women's migration in that it drains sending communities of women and care workers and has a subsequent impact on community life. Their study also found anecdotal evidence that the children of these women often didn't do well at school, risked drug abuse and early pregnancy. However other studies show that in the Philippines the children of temporary migrants fare better than those of non-migrants in terms of health and education. While on the whole the research shows families do adjust, there are emotional costs for children and families that should not be ignored (Asis, 2006).

²¹ United Nations Population Fund [UNFPA]. (2006). *State of the World Population: A Passage to Hope. Women and International Migration*, retrieved from: <http://www.unfpa.org/public/publications/pid/379>, 2010-04-02.

The literature also identifies some negative employment practices for women, particularly affecting Filipino domestic and entertainment workers including sexual harassment and refusal to pay wages. In relation to the agricultural/horticultural seasonal work schemes there are references to some sexual harassment and bullying. With the latter, host countries are supposed to have, and most do have, in place workplace regulations that go some way towards preventing such treatment. However, as with the men, it may be that women are unlikely to complain for fear of not keeping their jobs, or not being asked to return for a following season.

Impact and Implications

As the brief account of the literature shows regardless of whether women participate in temporary work schemes or are left behind, there are positive and negative ramifications for them. The recruitment practices in the RSE scheme and the PSWPS appear to favour males and this is likely to be caused by a range of factors associated with skills, culture, and gender of the workers in the home countries. It is also impacted on by the gendered way in which employers recruit for the work that is to be undertaken in the host countries (i.e. men for the tasks of picking and harvesting and women for sorting, grading and packing).

As Hess (2006) points out, there are barriers to the formal employment of women in the Pacific because of the gendered roles that have traditionally been reserved for women. He goes on to point out that there is a need for policies and practices that provide women with the opportunity to participate more fully in the labour market. One such example comes from Vanuatu where micro finance services enable women to draw on the earnings of workers while they are overseas. “The VANWODS programme ... allows women to borrow money to fund the migration expenses of men in their families and charge a higher rate of interest than the rate at which they attained the loan, thus enabling them to gain additional income that can be used for other ventures that contribute to their well-being and the development of their communities,” (Bedford et al., 2009, p. 54).

Given the role that women play as senders and receivers of remittances and savings, there is the opportunity to develop financial literacy programmes for women in their home countries. The “Vakameasina – Learning for Pacific Growth” that was run as part of the RSE programme was well attended by women and there is the potential to build from this.

Overall the literature identified that there are different implications for women than men in relation to their experience of temporary migration. More needs to be known about this area in relation to seasonal employment schemes in New Zealand and Australia and consideration of gender specific research and policy.

Disabled People

This review found very little information about recruitment practices relating to people with disabilities. A paper by AusAID (2010) highlights that disabled people have limited access in the Pacific to education and therefore to employment, with greater challenges being faced by women than men. The paper assumes there is likely to be a correlation between poverty and households that have disabled members, but this cannot be verified as there are no questions on disability in the household surveys.

In a background paper to the ILO's meeting, "Decent Work for Sustainable Development in the Pacific" Duncan and Voigt-Graf (2010) discuss the need for people with disabilities to have access to a range of services including vocational training and self-employment services. The latter should include information about business development, credit and provide marketing assistance.

The limited evidence found for this review makes it difficult to draw any conclusions and further research is needed in this area.

Section Five: Discussion

The literature used in this review presents a complex situation in relation to the use of skills and earnings from temporary migration to improve economic livelihoods. This complexity is caused by a number of factors including the historical and cultural uses of remittances, unskilled workers, under developed countries, and home and host country policy settings.

This review found literature in relation to pre-departure services and work in host countries in relation to temporary work schemes in the Pacific, Canada and the Philippines, but very little literature about reintegration services. There are examples of community development projects in Vanuatu and Tonga, but the services that exist to support economic outcomes for individuals are small and limited, e.g. the VANWODS programme and the “Vakameasina – Learning for Pacific Growth”. Consideration could however, be given to learning from these schemes and/or expanding them.

The reintegration schemes that operate in Mexico and the Philippines have been driven by a combination of government and non-government agencies and show that returning workers need support if they are to use their earnings to improve their economic livelihoods.

Overall the financial benefits of temporary migration schemes accrue to the individuals and their families who have improved living and educational standards as a result of the remittances and savings. While this is a very important aspect of the schemes, it appears that there is no co-ordinated support that would help them to use these funds more productively for entrepreneurial or investment activities. Overall there appears to be a lack of connection between migration policy and other policies, e.g. development and aid policies in home and host countries, that could do more to support and develop returning workers.

The literature suggests that in order to realise the development potential of temporary migration schemes from an economic perspective, co-ordinated and coherent approaches are required. Such approaches involve government and non-government organisations working with individuals and communities in a variety of ways to provide financial support, training, and business development advice. Additional support could also come from employers in host countries who could be encouraged to establish joint ventures in the workers’ home countries.

Temporary migrants from the Pacific return home with a range of skills including job-specific skills related to the horticulture and viticulture industries, some of which may be transferable in their home states e.g. the use of small machinery. Further training would increase the likelihood of these skills being developed and used. Workers have also developed time management skills, an improved work ethic and improved financial management skills. There is the opportunity to build on these in relation to business and economic development.

Men and women have different experiences in relation to temporary migration and there are both positive and negative ramifications for women who are left behind and women as workers. The literature shows that in relation to the Pacific, women do not have as many opportunities as men to participate as workers in the schemes. There are some traditional and cultural patterns

in the Pacific states that mean there are fewer women than men in employment overall. Employers in host countries however, have preconceptions about the types of work that women are capable of performing and do not provide the same work opportunities to women as men. Hence women have less direct access to the financial benefits of schemes.

There is very limited information on experiences of people with disabilities. This suggests that more policy work and research needs to be done in relation to these people.

Overall the RSE scheme and the PSWPS have the potential to make a significant contribution to the lives of Pacific people. At this stage the full benefits of the schemes have not emerged as the focus has been on pre-departure and work in the host countries. If their full potential is to be realised and economic gains enjoyed in all three domains: host countries, the migrants themselves and their home countries, policy and development work in relation to improve reintegration services from an economic perspective needs to be undertaken.

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