



# Return[ed] To Paradise

The Deportation Experience in Samoa & Tonga

Natalia Pereira



Management  
of Social  
Transformations



*Policy Papers / 21*

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**MOST-2 Policy Papers series** uses a novel methodology aimed at enhanced dissemination and usability of research results for policy-making. Designed according to scientific policy analysis principles, this methodology is based on a generic structure for producing documents.

The generic structure first enables different types of documents to be produced from the same original content. For instance, collections of the summaries of the various sections from the Papers produce Policy Briefs (5 pages condensed versions). Both Papers and Briefs are available in print and in electronic versions.

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MOST-2 methodology helps respond more efficiently to different types of information needs and facilitates knowledge feedback and analysis, thus improving the use of research results for policy-making.

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# List of Acronyms

DUI	Driving under the Influence
AEDPA	Anti-Terrorism and Effective Death Penalty Act
IIRRA	Illegal Immigration Reform and Responsibility Act
IOM	International Organization for Migration
LDS	Latter Day Saints
PIFS	Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat
SIDS	Small Islands Development States
SPC	Secretariat of the Pacific Community
TNYC	Tongan National Youth Congress
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USA	United States of America



# Foreword

UNESCO has long recognized the importance of contributing to peace and security by promoting collaboration amongst nations through education, science and culture. Through these media we foster universal respect for justice, the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms for the peoples of the world.

The issue of forced repatriation has been the focus of many debates amongst international organizations, governments and those in the academic and intellectual fields. An effective response will require the cooperation of all social actors, without exception, to provide a long-term perspective on the resettlement of those who are returned to their country of origin. It is for this reason that decision-making procedures include the affected populations and policies are specially designed to ensure co-ordination and effectiveness for those being repatriated.

This report is the product of a two year project of UNESCO's Social and Human Sciences sector whose mission is to advance knowledge, standards and intellectual cooperation in order to facilitate social transformations conducive to the universal values of justice, freedom and human dignity.

As Director of the UNESCO Apia Office – the representative office of UNESCO to the Pacific island states – I am pleased that UNESCO has been able to promote this work within the communities of Samoa and Tonga. It is my hope that this preliminary study can guide future research in this area, contribute to both the Pacific and the global debate on forced repatriation and provide assistance towards guiding the work of Pacific and global organizations with an interest in this area. Ultimately we would like to see positive actions to improve the quality of live for these populations and the Pacific communities in which they live.

VISESIO PONGI  
*DIRECTOR, UNESCO APIA OFFICE  
APIA, SAMOA MARCH 2010*

# MOST Foreword

The Management of Social Transformations (MOST) Programme, which is located in the Social and Human Sciences Sector of UNESCO, focuses on building effective bridges between social science knowledge, public policies and action. In the Apia MOST programme the approach has particularly focused on reaching those that are often outside the mainstream of social policies and programmes: the marginal, the vulnerable, and those that are not part of the key social and political mechanisms operating in the region. These are the voices and needs that are often not known, and are therefore not addressed by policy makers and service providers.

Significant progress has been made in the Pacific in linking research and policy, yet there are still gaps. These gaps are in areas where limited research has been undertaken and often involve those marginal communities within society whose needs may be overlooked. This then leads to corresponding areas where policies fail to adequately address the issues. In some cases, topics may also be culturally, socially or politically sensitive which means that they cannot easily be brought into the realm of public consultation and policy-making.

A key part of the process of generating public debate and policy responses is all the types of information that we bring to the table. In this case, the experiences of the deportees themselves form a key part of the knowledge needed to understand the needs of this group and develop responses that can effectively address their issues. Coupling the statistics, academic research and direct experiences of the study group is essential to being well informed and developing focuses and good quality policy that achieves the kind of social transformations that are needed to improve lives and progress development.

This is very much in line with the realignment of the MOST Phase 2 which champions the inclusion of the social actors in both contributing to the understanding of the issue (knowledge) and the development of the responses (policy). Stronger policy stems from open questioning and exploration of issues through participatory processes. Such theoretical and methodological reflection on the linkages connecting research and policy is integral to the MOST Programme's rationale.





MOST Policy Paper N° 21 by Natalia Pereira demonstrates that there are areas of social policy that remain on the periphery of national responses, and that in many cases, these areas pertain to those who have limited or no voice; in fact policy makers may not even be aware of them. There is however a need to address these as unmet needs can lead to negative consequences. This paper is therefore a key contribution to our knowledge in the area of the experience of those that have been involuntarily repatriated to their country of birth in Samoa and Tonga. It also forms the basis of on-going consultations in Samoa and Tonga to develop programmes that respond to the needs of the forcefully repatriated persons, reduce concerns relating to security issues and provide avenues for all Samoans and Tongans to be productive and contributing members of their national communities.

SUE VIZE  
PROGRAM SPECIALIST  
UNESCO APIA

# Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the contribution of all the deportees who spent countless hours allowing me to listen to their stories, even when it hurt. To those deportees that supported and assisted with their knowledge and experience - without your help and guidance this preliminary study into your experience would not have reached completion. I am indebted.

I acknowledge the counsel and support of Dr. Sue Vize - Advisor for Social and Human Sciences at UNESCO. The countless numbers of UNESCO colleagues, especially Aurelie Acoca who assisted in formulating the data collection tools, Susan Faoagali and the many others who assisted in providing constructive criticism - thank you.

To the ever-giving non-government organizations and those that manage them Ms. Vanessa Lolohea from the Tongan National Youth Congress, Mr. Sione Koloamatangi from Iron Man Ministry and Revered Filli Lilo from the Foki ki 'Api Deportation Reconnection program – thank you.

My heartfelt gratitude to those that provided their professional advice and support - Professor Nestor Rodriguez from the Texas University (Austin), Dr. Karla Lopez, Ms. Cherise Daiyi, Mr. Dean Blakemore and my ever patient husband Mr. Isaac Paul.

To the Australian Youth Ambassador for Development (AYAD) and Volunteering for International Development from Australia (VIDA) programs that have supported and sustained my placement – thank you.

Lastly, and most importantly, I wish to acknowledge two young men whose story started this research, you know who you are. To them I dedicate this study.

*“For the good days that are coming and  
the... days left behind”*

# Executive Summary

UNESCO’s Social and Human Sciences Apia program has conducted research on the experiences of deportees in Samoa and Tonga over a two year period. The Social and Human Science sector’s mission is to advance knowledge, standards and intellectual cooperation in order to facilitate social transformations conducive to the universal values of justice, freedom and human dignity.

Deportation as described by the International Organization for Migration refers to “the act of a State in removing a non-citizen from its territory after refusal of admission or termination of permission to remain”. According to this definition the ‘act’ of deportation is referred to as ‘removal’ and as such it adheres to the view of the State rather than being concerned with the impact on those being deported.

Different methodologies were used to gather information from 56 participants, both male and female. Questionnaires, interviews and case studies were the three predominant methods. The data collected have been divided into three clusters; Section one, ‘*Leaving Paradise*’, basic demographic information on deportees, their migration abroad and the unlawful acts that lead to their deportation.

Section two; ‘*Deportation Process & Experiences*’ is an introductory section into the experiences faced by deportees. It is an investigation into the treatment of deportees by institution/officials and makes reference to issues of family separation and being forced “home”. It highlights one of the most significant issues as mentioned by participants in this study, which is that of *family separation*.

Finally, section three; ‘*Return[ed] to Paradise*’ looks at reintegration and resettlement in-country. The issues discussed are the four most mentioned concerns during the interviews, questionnaires and/or during the case studies. The first and most fundamental is that of stigmatization/marginalization due to being deported with a specific focus on those that have been deported with psychiatric/physical disabilities. Employment and educational opportunities is also highlighted as a major concern, followed

by a preliminary look at the consumption of drugs and alcohol as a coping mechanism.

The findings from this report show that deportation experiences are often traumatic; for both the deportee and those family members left behind. The issue of resettlement support in-country has not been resolved as there is no clear responsibility in regard to this concern. In many cases deportees have simply been left in a strange country to make their own way often with limited employment and educational facilities and organizations that require technical advice, capacity building, resources and professionalization of staff to adequately resettle deportees.

A series of recommendations have been provided for further consideration by national authorities and community organizations. These include the establishment of a cooperation agreement to facilitate information sharing amongst countries; development of a plan to provide support programs servicing deportees needs; establishment of a support organization in Samoa; provision of technical advice/support for organizations that assist deportees in Tonga; and a program of activities addressing employment and educational needs of deportees.

The research concludes that the decision to deport non-citizens from the USA, New Zealand and Australia has far reaching implications that not only affect the individual but entire families/communities. The deportation experience makes an impact at the local, national and the international level demonstrating that deportation is not the end of a 'problem', but the start of a new and on-going dilemma for individuals, families and the wider community.





# I. Introduction

*Come, my love, with me  
across the sea.  
Return to paradise.*

*All in life worthwhile  
is on that isle.  
Return to paradise.*

*Velvet moon above  
evil turns to love,  
Love evermore.*

*Come with me and find  
your peace of mind.  
Return to paradise.*

(Lyrics to 'Return to Paradise' from the 1953 Motion Picture 'Return to Paradise')

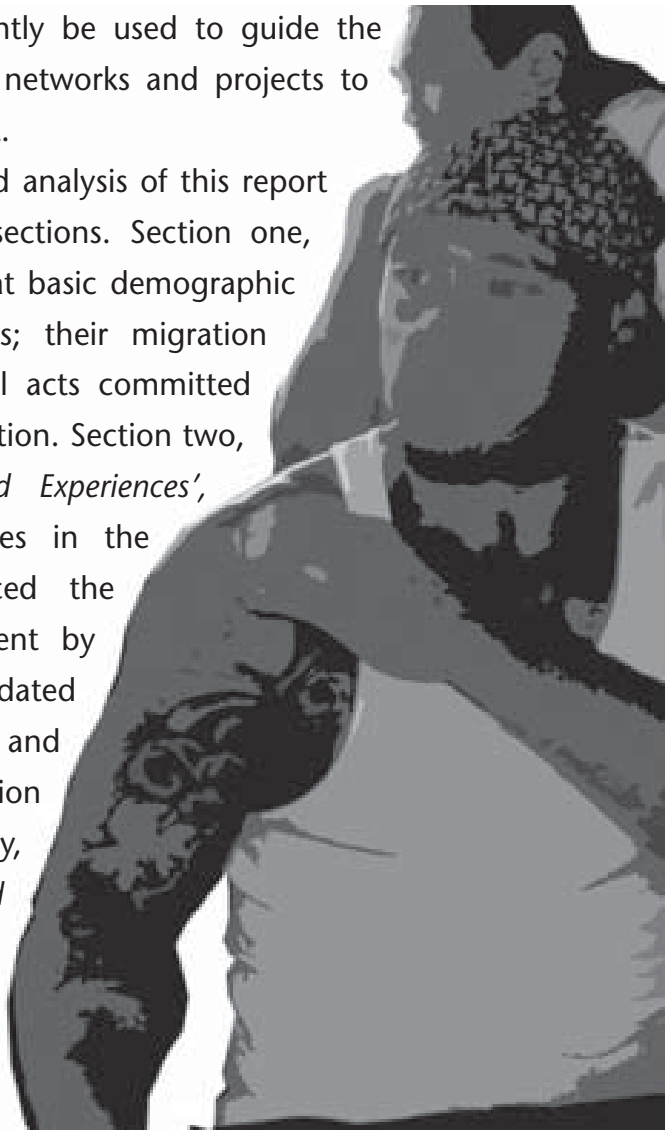
1 In 1953, the motion picture 'Return to Paradise' was released. The story begins when Mr. Morgan a drifter arrives on the tiny island of Samoa and the social order set out by Pastor Corbett is disrupted. This story although fictional brings to light many aspects of arrival into a small island community and the challenges that might arise. In 2010, this story is comparable to men and women arriving into Samoa and Tonga who have been sent "home" due to criminal offences under deportation/removal schemes; hence the title Return[ed] to Paradise.

In November 2007 a UNESCO mission to Tonga was conducted by the Pacific Youth Program Coordinator. In the context of consultations

with young people pertaining to youth development matters the issue of “deportees” first came to light. Since then UNESCO Apia and other stakeholders have taken an interest in this area with the aim of creating and supporting sustainable programs that will benefit those affected by deportation laws locally and abroad.

In 2009 a baseline study was commissioned by UNESCO Apia which involved consultations with deportees in order to gain tangible preliminary information to examine experiences and issues faced by deportees. These consultations provided a platform for deportees to share their experience in an anonymous way and therefore contribute to regional and local knowledge. This baseline study documents and provides a preliminary understanding of the experiences of some deportees, the issues affecting them and will subsequently be used to guide the development of support networks and projects to assist in their resettlement.

The key findings and analysis of this report are presented in three sections. Section one, *‘Leaving Paradise’*, looks at basic demographic information of deportees; their migration abroad and the unlawful acts committed that lead to their deportation. Section two, *‘Deportation Process and Experiences’*, will highlight experiences in the country that commenced the deportation, the treatment by institutions/officials mandated to remove non-citizens and issues of family separation and resettlement. Finally, section three *‘Forced Home’*, looks at the deportees’ reintegration and resettlement in their country of origin.



## II. Background

2 The two countries covered in the present study are Samoa and Tonga. Samoa consists of two volcanic islands, Upolu and Savaii, and lies northwest of Tonga and Fiji in the south-eastern Pacific Ocean (Lal & Fortune, 2000). The land area totals 2935 sq. km. The population is primarily of Polynesian origin, who gained their independence in 1962. The current population stands at 188,359 (SPC, 2009).

Tonga is made up of 169 islands, 36 of which are inhabited, with a total land area of 699 sq. km. The islands lie east of Fiji. It is the only remaining monarchy in the Pacific (Lal & Fortune, 2000). The population, which is of Polynesian origin, currently stands at 101,991 (SPC, 2009).

The three main countries for Samoan and Tongan migration are the United States of America (USA), New Zealand and Australia (Va'a, 2005; Small & Dixon, 2004). These three countries are therefore the main source of criminal deportees to Samoa and Tonga, with the greatest number coming from the USA (See Appendix 1). It is for this reason that this report will mainly focus on deportation experiences from the USA

### 2.1 Definition of 'Deportation'

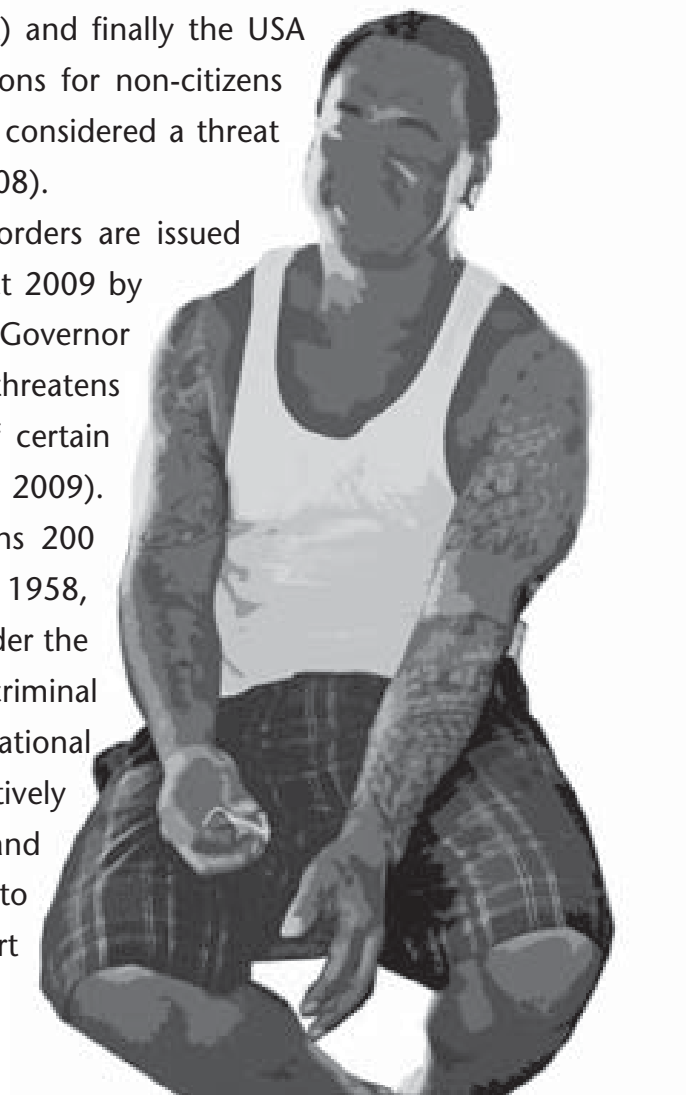
The term deportation as described by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) refers to "the act of a State in removing a non-citizen from its territory after refusal of admission or termination of permission to remain" (IOM, 2009). According to this definition the 'act' of deportation is referred to as 'removal' and as such it refers to the view of the State rather than the impact on those being deported. It is for this reason that the words 'deportation' and 'deportee' will be used throughout this report in preference to removal or removals. This is also in position with how participants in this study preferred to "define" themselves.



## 2.2 Legislation Governing Deportation

The legislation that governs deportation in the USA, New Zealand and Australia has common threads which stipulate the removal of non-citizens due to criminal convictions. In the USA, the Illegal Immigration Reform and Responsibility Act (IIRIRA), the Anti-Terrorism and Effective Death Penalty Act (AEDPA) and finally the USA PATRIOT Act (2001) have implications for non-citizens that are criminally convicted or are considered a threat to national security (Hagan *et al*, 2008).

In New Zealand deportation orders are issued under Part 6 of the Immigration Act 2009 by the Minister of Immigration or the Governor General when a non-citizen threatens national security or is convicted of certain criminal offences (Immigration Act, 2009). Similarly, in Australia under Sections 200 through to 203 of the Migration Act 1958, the Minister of Immigration may order the deportation of a non-citizen due to criminal convictions and/or threat to national security (Migration Act, 1958). Effectively these laws enable the US, New Zealand and Australian governments to arrest, detain, and ultimately deport non-citizens.



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## III. Methodology

3 A number of methods were used to gather information for this report with questionnaires, interviews and case studies being the predominant tools. Preliminary research to identify critical points about deportation was conducted through a broad literature review. This informed approaches to gather information about migration, criminal behavior and deportation experiences in Small Islands Development States (SIDS) and other countries. In undertaking the literature review a number of gaps were found, these included very limited academic research being conducted about the treatment, repatriation and settlement of deportees, particularly of women.

The current paper also required consultation and networking with academics and regional organizations, such as the Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (PIFS), Secretariat of the Pacific Community (SPC), welfare organizations working with deportees and donor agencies.

### 3.1 Participants

There were 56 participants in the study: 40 completed the questionnaires, 12 participated in the interviews and four participated in the case studies. Overall, six females participated in the study, and although the number of women being deported may be lower, the researcher attempted to gain an understanding of their experience. This was done by actively engaging a female deportee in Tonga to lead facilitations and asking all participants if they had any contact with women who had been deported.

The majority of participants in the study were deported from the USA (88% in the questionnaires and 92% in the interviews). The study attempted to increase the number of participants from New Zealand and Australia; however, it was difficult due to the low numbers of deportees

from these countries and fewer contacts (See Appendix 1). There were also additional difficulties in accessing the participants due to their transient nature and the fact that a strong sense of trust needs to be built before disclosure is made about their deportation experience. This validation and trust process was time consuming and in some instances it did not occur as the researcher was unable to remain in the country long enough (as in the case of Tonga).

## **3.2 Measures**

### **3.2.1 Questionnaires**

A questionnaire was used to collect quantitative information (see Appendix 2) about the experience of deportees in Samoa and Tonga. The questionnaire process in Samoa was led by a deportee who had knowledge and access to a number of potential respondents. Within a set timeframe he was able to collect a number of questionnaires detailing their situation and experiences in Samoa.

In Tonga, the questionnaire process was led by three different organizations with access and knowledge of deportees. These were the Foki ki 'Api – Deportation Reconnection program through the Tonga Lifeline Crisis Ministry of the Free Wesleyan Church, the Ironman Ministry Incorporated and the Tongan National Youth Congress (TNYC).

The questionnaire was divided into two sections 'Background Information' and 'Experience since Arrival'. The 'Background Information' was designed to collect basic demographic information about the respondents. It also had open-ended questions that allowed respondents to comment at length about their criminal convictions and their deportation experience. The "Experience since Arrival" section allowed the respondents to answer questions about their current situations (i.e. living arrangements, employment, etc.) as well as answer open-ended questions related to issues affecting them in their resettlement.

### **3.2.2 Interviews**

In depth interviews with 12 deportees were conducted between May through to August 2009. The methodology used to recruit participants was through the snowball sampling technique. These referrals were

provided by the researcher's personal contacts in Samoa and the Foki ki 'Api Program and TNYC in Nukualofa, Tonga.

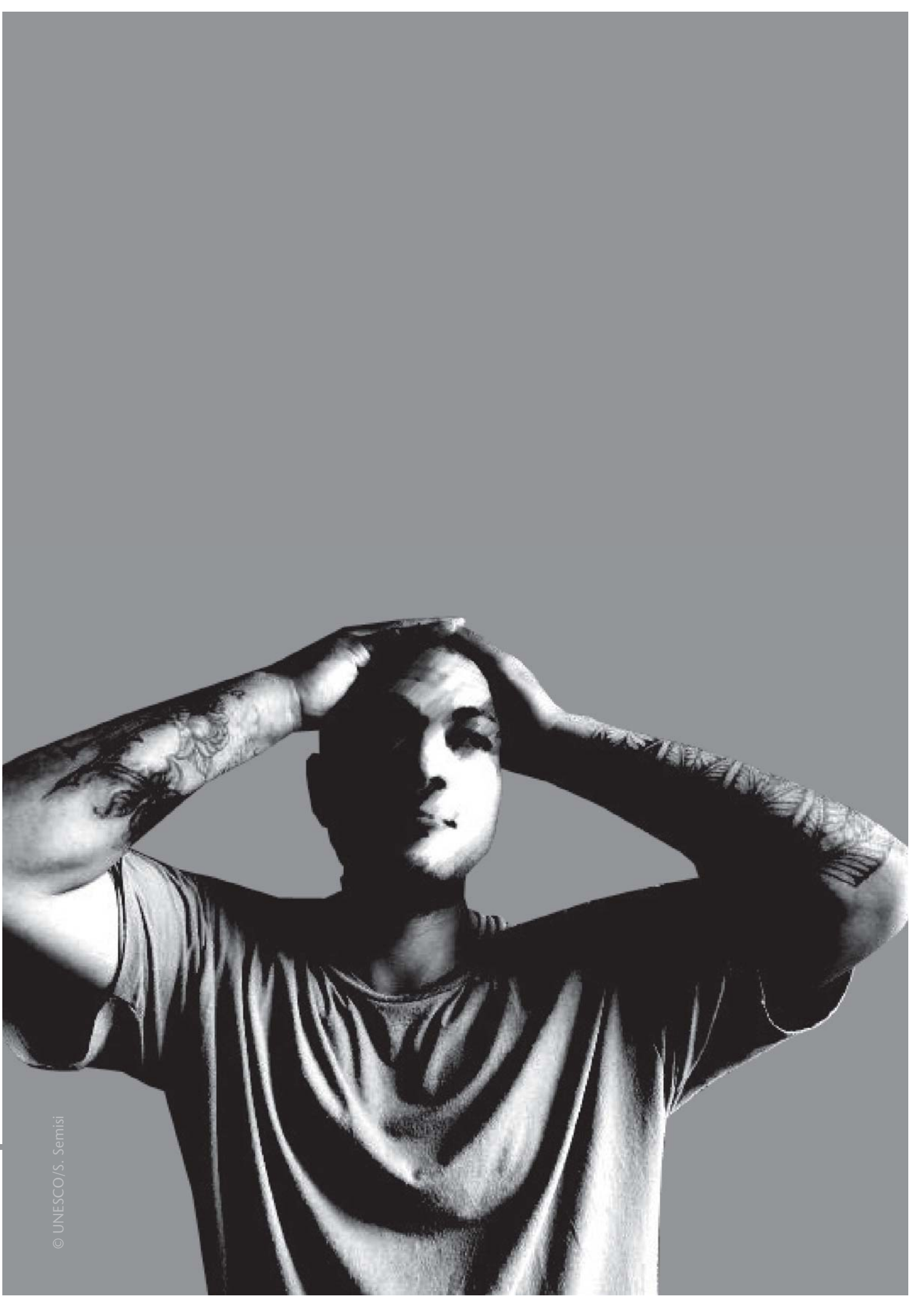
The interviews were conducted in various locations with great emphasis on private venues where confidentiality could be maintained. The interview was semi-structured with broad open-questions (Appendix 3) that allowed the deportee to tell his/her narrative taking into consideration their whole life and not only their deportation experience. The interviewer used the narrative therapy method of interviewing which sought to be respectful, non-blaming and a person-centered approach (Morgan, 2000). This meant that the interviewees had control over what aspects of their life they wanted to talk about without being pressured into revealing any information that would allow them to be implicated and/or identified. Finally, the interviewer allowed the use of pseudonyms and left it up to the individuals to give information regarding their age and year of deportation.

### 3.3 Case Studies

The case studies method was used as another research approach for those who did not wish to participate in the interviews and/or the questionnaires. This third method allowed those who wished to describe their deportation experience in-depth through their own writing the opportunity to do so. Participants were told about this option during the distribution of the questionnaires; however, only four participants opted for this method.



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## IV. Findings/Analysis

4 The findings and analysis section of this study aims to give the reader an initial outline of the observed issues relating to deportation. It highlights the experiences of a sample of deportees and the issues affecting them with the hope of providing some direction for future academic research to contribute to this area. Throughout this section comments from deportees taken from the interviews, questionnaires and/or case studies will be used to illustrate their views. Pseudonym are used and marked with an asterisk, to protect the identities of individuals who participated in the research.

The findings and analysis section of the report is presented in three sections; Section one, *'Leaving Paradise'*, looks at basic demographic information of deportees, their migration abroad and the unlawful acts that lead to their deportation. Section two; *'Deportation Process & Experiences'* is an introductory section into the experiences faced by deportees. It is groundwork undertaken into the treatment of deportees by institution/officials and makes reference to issues such as family separation and being forced "home". Finally, section three; *'Return[ed] to Paradise'* looks at the four most mentioned concerns that impedes on reintegration and resettlement in-country. These are the coping mechanisms that are employed by deportees, particularly those that have disabilities and/or experience marginalization/ stigmatization. It also introduces the difficulties around employment and educational opportunities, followed by a preliminary look at the consumption of drugs and alcohol as another coping mechanism. Finally, the issue of support structures that are accessed by deportees to assist with their resettlement is explored.

## 4.1 Leaving Paradise

The following three sections will provide; *basic demographic* information (age, sex and religious affiliation) with further demographic information (educational attainment, employment status, marital status, etc.) that will appear in later sections of this report. It will provide a description of the initial *migration experience* of deportees as children or adolescents, and finally it will outline some of the *unlawful acts* committed whilst residing abroad that lead to deportation.

### 4.1.1 Basic Demographics

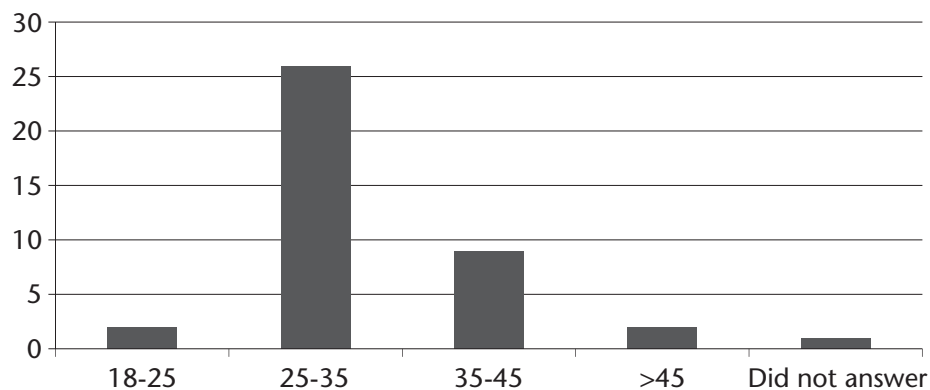
.....  
 “I’m told I’m not a human being – But I’m just frontin”  
 (Semisi\*)  
 .....

The basic demographic information of those deported back to Samoa and Tonga completing the questionnaire showed that the largest proportion (82.5%) of respondents were males in the age range of 25 – 35 years (see Figure 1 and Table 1). This is comparable to other deportation research which shows young males with the median age of 28 years were the bulk of those deported to their country of origin (Hagan *et al.*, 2008). This is due to the overwhelming presence of males in detectable locations such as public places, job sites and penal institutions (Hagan *et al.*, 2008).

Table 1: Sex of Respondents

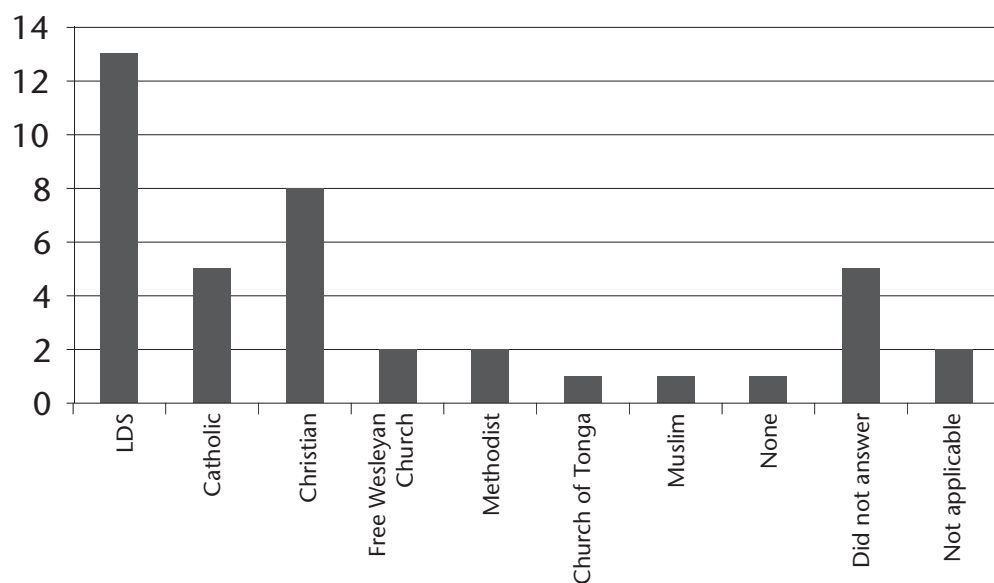
Sex	Number	%
Male	33	82.5
Female	4	10
Did not answer	3	7.5
Total	40	100

Figure 1: Age of Respondents



The significance of Christianity in the social systems of Samoans and Tongans is well documented (Muliaina, 2006 & Roxborough, 2009). The church is often seen as a supporting and nurturing place where communal assistance is provided. In both Samoa and Tonga substantial numbers of immigrants to the USA are members of the Church of Latter Day Saints (LDS or Mormons) which provided assistance with the establishment of the first Pacific Islander communities in Utah and Hawaii (Small & Dixon, 2004; Va'a, 2005). Religious affiliation was very high amongst the 40 deportees responding to the questionnaire (see Figure 2), with the greatest numbers belonging to the Church of LDS. In addition many respondents stated that accessing 'religious organization/s' brought them happiness and/or support (see section 4.3.4) throughout their resettlement: "when I came back my family in Tonga treated me badly – only the Church organizations gave me good treatment" (Isikeli\*).

Figure 2: Religious Affiliation



\* The term 'Christian' is how respondents identified themselves in the questionnaire



## 4.1.2 Migration & Settlement Outside of the Islands

.....  
“I left Samoa when I was approx. 2 months old...” (Pouleta\*)  
.....

For more than twenty five years there has been considerable migration from Samoa and Tonga to the USA, New Zealand and Australia (Va’a, 2005; Small and Dixon, 2004). The migration and settlement experience of deportees outside of the islands is similar to the experiences of other migrants; families usually travelling together notably married couples with their children (Drotbohm, 2009). However, there were those deportees that travelled with extended family members and those that travelled with their guardians, perhaps a grandparent. Of those interviewed, 58% stated that they had migrated with their immediate family members, whilst 33% stated that they had travelled with extended family members who were acting as their guardian.

In relation to the age of the individual when the migration took place, it was noted that 50% of those interviewed migrated before reaching the age of five, 33% travelled between the ages of five and ten, and the remainder travelled between the ages of ten and sixteen (see section 4.2.1). To highlight this point during the interview, Luka\* stated that he left Samoa at the age of three with his parents and eight siblings: “I had a big family, a poor family”.

Upon arrival in the USA, New Zealand or Australia many face the stresses of migration. This included socio-economic marginalization, language barriers, parentalization<sup>1</sup> of children, and the lack of “collective living, communalism, and social control through family and village ties” (Joe & Chesney-Lind, 1995; p.417). During the interviews 66% stated they had been raised in poor families and/or poor neighborhoods, often describing it by the lack of food and/or the use of food stamps and limited access to recreational, educational and/or health care facilities.

Literature on migration experiences shows that in general migrant communities living in poverty-stricken and marginalized areas are more likely to have added tension which usually manifests itself in violence in the home (Joe & Chesney-Lind, 1995). This was supported in the interviews with more than half of the deportees being exposed and/or victims of

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<sup>1</sup> Role reversal process whereby the child takes on the role/duties of the parent/s

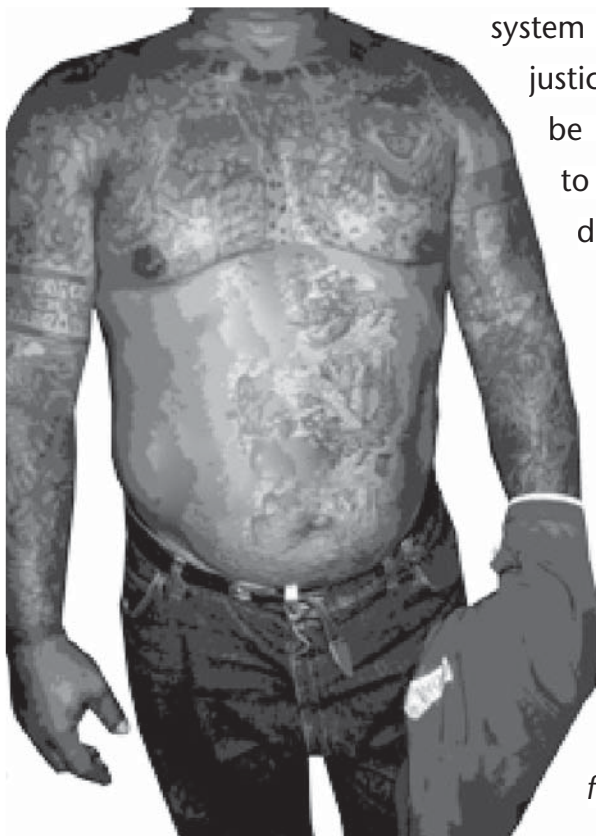
domestic violence, sexual abuse, and/or witnessing a traumatic event (e.g. murder). A female deportee during the interview explained witnessing and experiencing abuse as “the dark secrets of my childhood... I realized that I came from a broken home” (Toakase\*).

Overall, the migration experience for those interviewed was characterized by travel at a young age in large families who then settled in poor neighborhoods. In some cases this led to added tension in the home that may have manifested itself in exposure to or victimization through violence.

### 4.1.3 Unlawful Acts

.....  
“Started gang-bangin’ at 13. I was loyal to my set. Represented my hood to the fullest” (Poluta’u\*)  
.....

The common thread for those who participated in this research is that at some point in their life these individuals have committed criminal (unlawful) acts that have led to their deportation. For some this began as adolescents entering the juvenile justice system and progressing to the adult justice system. For others it would be one incident that would lead to the often painful experience of deportation:



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*“...I did in fact lose my sense of culture and adapted into the lifestyle/culture of gangs, drugs and violence. My downward spiral began, my arrest record accumulated and I began going to jail as a juvenile... I spent majority of my adolescent life away from my family and home” (Fua\*)*

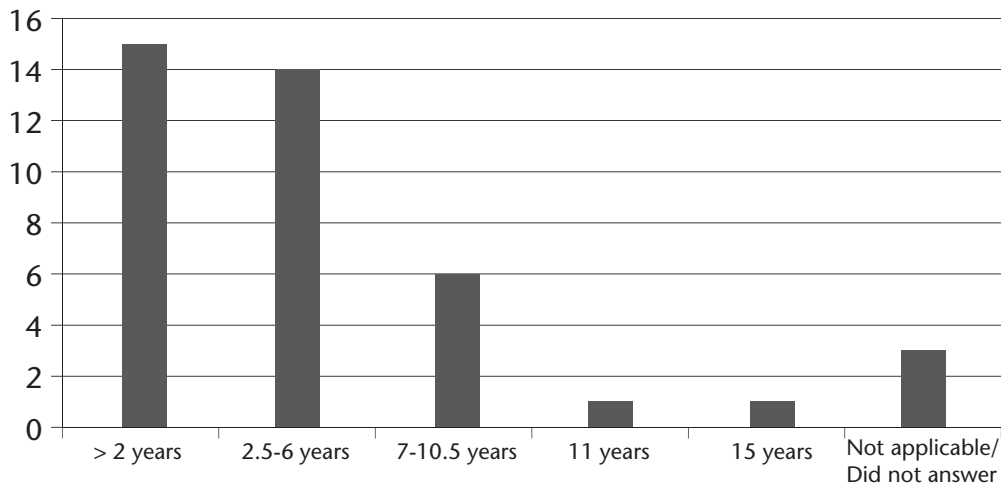
A significant body of research shows a strong correlation between exposure to poor socio-economic family life, exposure to domestic violence and/or witnessing traumatic events can increase the probability of violent behavior and engagement in unlawful acts (Drotbohm, 2009, Pitts, 2008; Chesney-Lind *et al.*, 2003; Laidler & Hunt, 1997; Joe & Chesney-Lind, 1995). In terms of those participating in this research, the data collected during the interviews showed that 83% of the interviewees came into contact with the juvenile justice system and were eventually incarcerated during their adolescence.

The participants contended that most of the unlawful acts committed during adolescence were due to exposure and eventual affiliation with street gangs that were often tied to their nationality, geographical locations or low socio-economic district. To highlight this point, when interviewee Moeaktola\* was asked about his gang involvement and his continuous affiliation he stated, “it’s part of my life – it’s part of my brain”. This interviewee stated that he was initiated into the gang at 13-14 years of age and began by selling drugs; “everyone my age was doing it”. His first juvenile charge was for possession of a firearm at the age of 14.

This early exposure to firearms and/or weapons was also a common undercurrent amongst those that were interviewed with 66% of them stating they had been exposed to firearms/weapons and/or been “shot at” by rival gang members. One of the interviewees, Taai\*, first owned a firearm at the age of 14: “I felt like I was superman with the gun”. However, other interviewees recall being shot and wounded due to other family members’ involvement in gangs. Toakase\* recalls being shot and wounded in her brother’s car when she was 14 years of age due to his involvement in a gang.

Incarceration for any length of time in the USA, New Zealand or Australia can lead to the deportation of non-citizens to their country-of citizenship (Drotbohm, 2009, Podgorny, 2009; Davenport, 2006; Zilberg, 2004; Morawetz, 2000; Bennett, 1999; Marley, 1998). It is for this reason that the questionnaire asked how many had been incarcerated prior to their deportation to which 37 out of 40 responded positively. The average length of time spent incarcerated was just over four years, with the majority (15) serving less than two years in prison (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Average Years in Prison



The most common offences amongst those who reported their unlawful act in the questionnaires were common/aggravated assaults; equal second were aggravated robbery/burglary and theft/robbery/burglary; and third were drug related charges (see Appendix 4). As stated in Podgorny (2009), Davenport (2006) and Brotherton (2003) these charges are within the reach of removable offences therefore deportation has occurred. However, it must be understood that if these convictions are viewed in isolation they only provide a limited and narrow snapshot of each person's life. It does not provide any reference to when the offence was committed, whether it was a first offence or part of an extended criminal record or even if post conviction rehabilitation and re-integration into their community/family life had taken place.

Finally, the questionnaire ventured into the area of recidivism or reoffending behavior in Samoa and Tonga. This was included because of the widely held belief that increased crime rates in Samoa and Tonga can be attributed to the presence of deportees, despite the lack of evidence that supports this assumption (Drotbohm, 2009; Bracken, 2009; PIFS, 2008, UNODC, 2007). The questionnaire asked *"have you been investigated/charged with any offence in Samoa/Tonga?"* To which 14 out of the 38 answered positively to this question with six of those having served time for that offence in Samoa and Tonga. To illustrate some of the possible causes for such reoffending behavior, one respondent in the case study writes *"My family in America had stopped sending money because they heard of my relapse... I went and tried looking for a job but no luck.*



I started to sell marijuana to make some money. I would get marijuana from the village kids and resell it..." (Malosi\*).

Although this case highlights some of the difficulties under which deportees live, i.e. dependence on remittances from abroad and difficulty attaining employment (see section 4.3.2), recidivism is an issue that needs to be researched and addressed with support mechanisms being made available to deportees in order to discourage further criminal activity.

## 4.2 Deportation Process & Experiences

.....  
"...I will be setting foot on a place where I will be a stranger to my own people..." (Anone\*)  
.....



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The following four sections will provide preliminary accounts of the *deportation process and experience* according to the participants of this study. It will highlight the country and year of deportation as well as the *treatment* by institutions/officials mandated to remove non-citizens. It will highlight one of the most significant issues as mentioned by participants in this study, which is that of *family separation*. Finally, it will discuss the experience of being *forced "home"* and the impact that this has on the life of deportees.

### 4.2.1 Deported To and From “Home”

“I was pulled over for a traffic violation – In jail ICE<sup>2</sup> put a hold on me – My crime was committed back in 1985 – I spent \$8000 dollars trying to fight being deported and got deported anyways... One night they woke me up and said I was going to Tonga. Didn’t say bye to my kids – I cried the entire flight to Tonga. My two boys mean the world to me and since being here it has been so tough adjusting. I can’t speak my Tongan language as such but it is getting better – slowly! [Deported in 2008] (Sione\*)”

The mandatory deportation of non-citizens that have criminal convictions has lasting effects on the lives of those who are forced to repatriate. Many have committed criminal offences without realizing that their status of ‘permanent resident’ is conditional and that their actions can lead to being deported to a country that they hardly know (Drotbohm, 2009). “I had no clue whatsoever of what was happening to me. I thought I was going home... But I guess America had different plans for me... they told me I was getting deported... ‘cause I committed crimes in the USA but I thought I just did my [time]...” (Mataio\*)

For many of the deportees who participated in this research “home” is where they have been deported from, rather than where they are being sent to. Eighty seven percent of the questionnaire respondents and 91% of the interviewees stated that they had been deported from the USA and described it as their “home”. The other countries identified were New Zealand and Australia, but to a much lesser extent. Furthermore, out of the 37 that answered “*for how many years did you live outside of Samoa/Tonga?*” in the questionnaire, 40% stated that they had been living outside of Samoa/Tonga for twenty to thirty years - the average length of time being just over twenty years. This means that the acculturation and adaptation process that has taken place, particularly as many of them migrated at a young age (see Section 4.1.2), is undisputable (Kennedy, 2007; Rodriguez & Hagan, 2009). As Natane\* who was deported from the USA mentioned “[I was] excited at first about coming home but ended up like nothing like I was in prison. To make it short I realized this was not my home for many reasons...”

<sup>2</sup> ICE – Immigration and Custom Enforcement

The year of deportation varies amongst those that have been returned. The earliest criminal deportee undertaking the questionnaire stated 1995 as first arriving in-country from New Zealand. In 2002 the only deportee undertaking the questionnaire arrived from Australia and from 1996 through to 2009, 34 deportees arrived from the USA again highlighting the importance of understanding the US deportation experience (see Appendix 1).

#### 4.2.2 Treatment of deportees

.....  
"No comment..." (Isaiah\*)  
.....

The treatment by institutions and/or officials whose mandate it is to remove non-citizens provided mixed responses. Literature on the treatment of deportees (Dow, 2007; Phillips, *et al* 2006, Martinez, 2004; Zilberg, 2004; Pauw, 2002; Khokha, 2001; Morawetz, 2000; Tebo, 2000) as well as statements from a number of deportees disclosed that the treatment whilst being detained was very negative. Deportees mentioned consistently being moved around from facility to facility without explanation, being far away from family, denied procedural understanding, as well as witnessing and/or being physically and psychologically abused. "[I] was detained in INS<sup>3</sup> for months being transferred around from facilities and staff when I didn't contest my deportation. [I] faced discrimination religiously, physically and mentally" (Pika\*). Another deportee Ilisapesi\* from the USA mentioned that waiting to be deported was "horrible". Her detention and eventual deportation was due to a Driving Under the Influence (DUI) charge. Her detention was within a federal prison and according to her; the treatment by officials was negligent and deceitful, by frequently lying to her and other detainees about their deportation dates and procedures.

By comparison the treatment by officers whose mandate it is to transport deportees to Samoa and Tonga often resulted in positive remarks: "... on my plane ride here to Samoa [I] was very comfortable. The cops that escorted me were very nice to me. They didn't hand cuff me and I got to wear my own street clothes. They bought me food, talked to me the whole way here on the plane" (Mataio\*). A number of deportees from the USA stated during interviews that they were allowed to travel unshackled

3 INS – Immigration and Naturalization Service (now defunct)

and often the US Marshals would act discreetly about their situation upon arrival.

This discrepancy in treatment raises questions about the management of deportees and their rights, however to date there is limited research on this topic. Morawetz (2000) suggests that the mistreatment of deportees is often exacerbated due to the fact that there is a lack of access to procedural information. This is supported by Hernandez (2008) who states that there is a lack of due process protections, a lack of protection against dispensation of disproportionate punishments for an unlawful act, and a lack of legal representation in immigration proceedings. All of this compounded means that in some cases deportees arriving in Samoa and Tonga experienced mistreatment by institutions and/or officials whose mandate it is to remove them. These experiences should be further researched to determine procedural fairness and inform the development of improved processes, which may include making support mechanisms available to those that may require it due to being traumatized by the deportation experience.

### 4.2.3 Family Separation

.....  
"My first experience was my first 4 years without my family and Samoa it's all about family it was really hard adjusting"  
(Vai\*)  
.....

The issue of family separation is a significant concern that was continuously mentioned in the interviews and questionnaires and thus should not be overlooked. "There is no word... honestly!!!! In the dictionary to explain... the hurt to hear your kids grow through the phone!!!" (Manu\*). In fact, Human Rights Watch commissioned a report focused on family separation due to deportation laws in the USA. It made specific recommendations to address this issue and stated that at least one million spouses and children have faced separation due to the removal of non-citizens in the USA (Human Rights Watch, 2009).



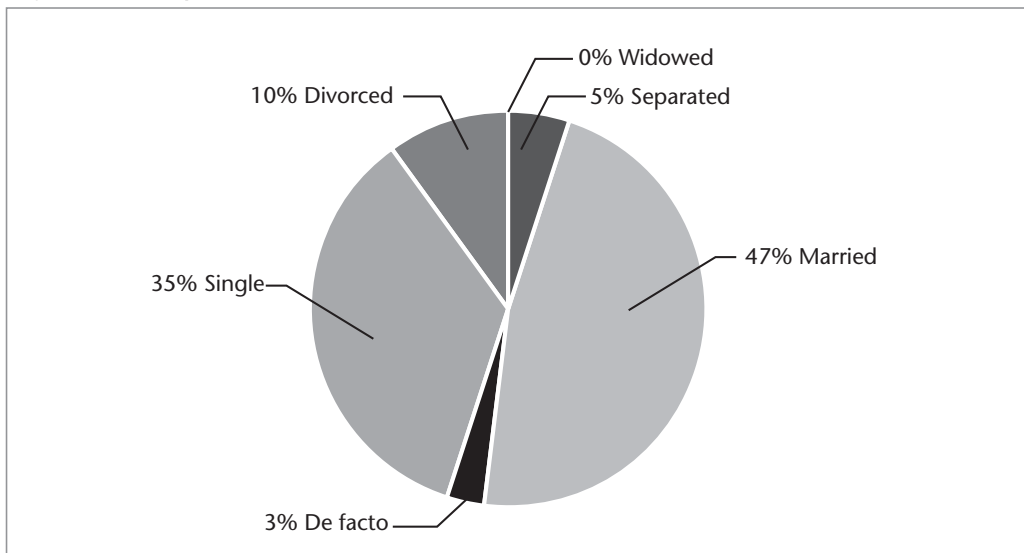
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In terms of this study, the data showed that whilst deportees had committed deportable offences a significant number of them had been settled permanent residents, with strong community and familial networks prior to being deported. Others had been contributing to society engaging in meaningful employment having rebuilt their lives following prison sentences.

For those interviewed, 58% specifically mentioned having their spouses/partners overseas. For those with children, 50% mentioned their child/children currently reside/s overseas. Of those that answered the questionnaires, 47% of respondents were married with 79% having children (see Figures 4 and 5). However, it must be understood that the questionnaire did not ask if these spouses and/or children were based in-country or abroad.

Figure 4: Respondents Marital Status



For those deportees that have dependents and/or family members abroad, deportation has eliminated a possible income and other resources that are integral to the sustainability of family life (Rodriguez & Hagan 2009; Morawetz, 2000): “My little family and I were inseparable, we done practically everything together: shopping, dancing, movies. I’d become attached to my lil family... Seeing my kids cry when being escorted burnt my heart... I’m still in pain, knowing that my family is hurting while daddy is far away. It still hurts.” (Poluta’u\*).



The above statement highlights the often painful separation that occurs when the removal of a parent, due to his/her criminal convictions, eventuates. These children (notably those under the age of eighteen who are citizens) and spouses/partners live with the devastating effects of deportation. These effects can include less parental authority which subsequently impacts on the socialization of these children in their communities (Rodriguez & Hagan, 2009), lowered income that effects the standard of living and psychological/emotional effects.

Finally, each country administers their deportation laws differently; as an example in the USA there is no requirement that deportation must be reasonable (Pauw, 2002). The limited forums for family members to voice their concerns or to show rehabilitation for an offender are constrained. Also the forums to show that the criminal offence is not serious enough to warrant deporting a person who may have lived most of their life in the USA are absent (Pauw, 2002).

In fact, by deporting people from their “homes” and families, these laws might be creating a new pattern of illegal migration, those who return by any means to the USA to be reunited with their families. This pattern, as highlighted in Rodriguez and Hagan (2009), may be more “difficult to deter... because the compulsion to migrate lies in the deep emotional bonds of primary family relationships” (p. 19). It may also create patterns of migration to neighboring nations such as New Zealand and Australia, depending on their own laws. These countries with better employment and education facilities can provide families that have been separated by deportation better living standards and more opportunities.

#### 4.2.4 Forced ‘Home’

.....  
“Prison was a good experience – Prison is better than Tonga so far” (Maake\*)  
.....

Forced repatriation/return can create trans-national identities that continue through ongoing relationships with family and friends that have remained in the deporting country (Drotbohm, 2009; Drotbohm, 2008, Peutz, 2006; Zilberg, 2004). This means that re-integration into their “new home” can often be problematic due to the fact that deportees now

have to live within a new environment, with a new set of rules/codes, new surroundings (e.g. villages) and new family/community that they do not identify with. To highlight this Malosi\* writes:

*“I moved in with an uncle who was a Matai<sup>4</sup> of high status in a village near Apia. I had to get myself accustomed to my new environment but it wasn’t easy. After doing 2 years behind bars and deported to Samoa, I was still in that ‘prison mentality.’ I was afraid to leave the house because I was so used to spending 23 hours locked down in my cell - so I stayed indoors for a while”*

The negative emotional state represented by feelings of fear as mentioned by Malosi\*, anxiety, disorientation and uncertainty often manifest themselves prior to being release from institutions. This is further compounded by the fact that they will be in a new environment (country) away from accustomed support networks which furthers their negative emotional states and increases culture-shock upon arrival.

This experience of culture-shock that may occur can be attributed to having little or no knowledge of their new “home”. Deportees often describe feeling completely different and strange in their new environment. In some cases the islands may form part of a faded memory leaving them feeling exiled from another country that they call “home” – a “home” where many may never legally return (Yngvesson, 2006; Zilberg, 2004, Morawetz, 2000). Maake\* describes it by saying “I felt sad, like this [being deported] is worse than prison ... If they told me to do five more years [in prison] or get deported I would do five years”.

The separation from their familiar environment leads to a loss of bearings, often with extreme feelings of fear, anxiety and terror, or even the feeling that their life might be in danger (Yngvesson, 2006; Zilberg, 2004). In some cases, deportees can experience a loss of motivation to continue with their own lives as described by Failalo\*: “[I felt] mainly lost, confused and depressed. It was hard to adjust to my culture so it made me frustrated, started drinking heavily, got into fights with the locals. At times I felt suicidal.”

Finally, deportation, as Yngvesson (2006) states, legally returns “physical bodies” (p. 182) to a place of juridical existence – as if their legal

---

4 Matai – chiefly title that defines their place in a community

identities (Samoan/Tongan citizenship) have continued to exist without any problem. As if the individual deported, exclusively, belonged there and not anywhere else, as though they may simply reoccupy lives that they left behind before their migration experience (Yngvesson, 2006). These notions, and the impact on individuals, are missing from much of the academic literature, yet are experienced daily by those that are deported to their country of origin: “fuck I’m in the jungle... It was so dark” (Afi\*).

### 4.3 Return[ed] to Paradise

The following four sections highlight the experiences of deportees following their return “home”. The issues discussed are the most mentioned concerns during interviews, questionnaires and/or written in the case studies. The first and most fundamental is that of *stigmatization/marginalization* due to being deported with a specific focus on those that have been deported with psychiatric/physical disabilities. *Employment and educational* opportunities will also be highlighted as a major concern, followed by a preliminary look at the consumption of *drugs and alcohol* as a coping mechanism. Finally, the issue of *support structures* that are accessed by deportees to assist with their resettlement will be explored.

#### 4.3.1 Stigma & Marginalization: Disabilities & Deportation

.....  
“It’s not what you do – It’s how you make it” – (Paea\*)  
.....

The 2008 PIFS report highlighted that;

“The stigmatisation of deportees has stemmed from an entrenched perception that criminal deportees are inherently bad and continue their criminal activities... in some instances criminal deportees have become the focal point of any misdeed that has occurred, there is evidence of victimisation, and they are less likely to obtain employment. This has resulted in some instances of recidivist behaviour, alcohol abuse, drug abuse, and even suicide.” (PIFS, 2008, p. 2)

This stigmatization is specifically felt by those deportees, who due to their psychiatric and/or physical disabilities that existed prior to deportation, may be further marginalized. As stated by Pauw (2002) there is no requirement that deportation must be “reasonable” (p.1095) and





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perhaps for those who have been returned to Samoa and Tonga with psychiatric and/or physical disabilities is it often a case of identifying limited resources and capabilities that assist in this transition process making it extremely difficult to resettle.

Still, disabilities, illness or other difficulties, do not impede on the deportation process; in fact deporting countries continue to deport people with medical conditions knowing perfectly well that receiving nations often have limited medical and/or treatment facilities (Bracken, 2009). When asked about coping mechanisms, deportee Maake\* mentioned that self-hospitalization and reality checks are the best form of medical

care that can be obtained for his psychiatric condition. These aspects of the deportation experience demand self-resilience and survival mechanisms to face often daily stigmatization and marginalization that would not be demanded in other post-release situations.

However, it is not just those with psychiatric and/or physical disabilities that are marginalized. Once forcibly repatriated deportees begin to explore and identify their own coping mechanisms to deal with the stigmatization and marginalization that may come from the deportation experience. Yngvesson (2006) mentions that the discrimination encountered by deportees attempting to meet even basic necessities such as employment, integrating into village life, finding accommodation, or even “walk about freely” (p. 182) is evident. It is even more evident for those who are tattooed or who have belonged to gangs (Zilberg, 2004) as they are also subjected to over-policing: “they hate me because of my tattoos and the fact that I got deported” (Moeaktola\*).

### 4.3.2 Gaining Employment & Education

.....  
“...Settle down here and look for a wife but I don’t know if I can support a family on such low wages” (Sese\*)  
.....

To find preliminary data on the issues that deportees face, the questionnaire asked to *“list three issues that you find most difficult to deal with in terms of adjusting to life in Samoa/Tonga”*. Notably 80% of the respondents mentioned locals, culture and/or language signifying the lack of connection to their new “home”. This experience of being strangers in their own land is further compounded when the knowledge of local people, culture/customs and local language is necessary to find employment and educational resources. It is for this reason that the highest responses to *“list three issues that you find most difficult to deal with”* were unemployment and/or the lack of monetary funds, with 87% of those undertaking the questionnaire finding these to be the most difficult.

Unemployment in Samoa and Tonga is not solely an issue affecting deportees, as the labor markets in these countries are generally small. However, the deportation experience can be a tremendous disadvantage in gaining meaningful employment due to a range of issues mentioned previously; poor knowledge of language, culture and mistrust of deportees. In addition, labor conditions and rates of pay are far lower to those in the departing countries: *“...The Island pays real bad you need two jobs to get by...”* (Eloni\*).

Interestingly the questionnaire uncovered that currently 68% of the respondents were employed earning their income in semi-skilled employment (See Appendix 5). This income, although considered ‘subsistence income’ by departing countries’ standards, allows deportees to gain some level of independence and perhaps contribute to their families’ and communities’ well-being, making the deportee a meaningful and active member of such units. It was also found through the questionnaire that out of the 38 that answered *‘have you undertaken any formal education program/s?’* 28% responded positively signifying some opportunities to further develop skills and employability in Samoa and Tonga.

To conclude, research suggests that for those that are unemployed, a heavy dependence on remittances from family members abroad is the only income that enables deportees to survive (Drotbohm, 2008; Peutz, 2006).



This high dependence can often contribute to feelings of worthlessness and frustration (see section 4.2.4) particularly when the deportee was gainfully employed and supporting family members (see section 4.2.3) prior to deportation. It may also lead to recidivism (see section 4.1.3) for those who do not have family members that can provide remittances.

### 4.3.3 Drugs & Alcohol Use

.....  
“I guess being drunk and on drugs helps you to forget all the problems” (Failalo\*)  
.....

The use of drugs and alcohol amongst deportees may in some instances be part of a dependency cycle, which has been exacerbated by the deportation experience. Brotherton (2003) and Bracken (2009) have explored this issue with deported populations in other Small Island Developing States (SIDS) and confirm that for some deportees this experience facilitates the return to old habits and lifestyles involving drinking and drugs, regardless of the potential negative impacts to the deportees and others around them.

*[I] had high hopes of not ever drinking or using again but that didn't last long... I had no job to attend to so that was a good enough reason for me to start up again. I had also been feeling down of not knowing when will be the next time I get to see my dad, mum, brother and sisters (Malosi\*)*

With this in mind, the questionnaire attempted to include questions that would explore this issue in the hope that future research can contribute to this area and assist in finding solutions for those that have a dependency issue. Respondents were asked about their participation and pattern of use of certain substances (see Table 2). Notably the most common substances used were alcohol and cigarettes, which may correlate to previous consumption patterns. What cannot be determined through this study is whether the level of consumption has changed due to the deportation experience. Nor can the types of illicit drug being used or the correlation between substance abuse and the state of physical and mental health be determined. It is for this reason that this area of study needs to be further explored and interventions be put in place to assist with rehabilitation if and when it is required.

Table 2: Substance Use amongst Questionnaire Respondents

Substance Used	Everyday	Once a week	Once a fortnight	Once a month	Never	Other	Did Not Answer	Total
Alcohol	0	5	1	1	0	1	0	8
Cigarettes	6	1	0	1	0	0	1	9
Alcohol & Cigarettes	2	4	0	0	0	2	0	8
Illicit Substance Use	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cigarettes & Illicit Substance Use	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
All three habits	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	4
Does not have any of these habits	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	7
Did Not Answer	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4
Total number of respondents								40

#### 4.3.4 Finding Support

.....  
 "...Well I'm still working on trying to fit into the friendly Island of Tonga ☹" (Natane\*)  
 .....

Throughout the world the deportation phenomenon has allowed for the establishment of support organizations, particularly non-profit welfare based organizations that aim to assist deportees in resettling in their new "home". Bracken (2009), Phillips, *et al* (2006) Zilberg (2004) and Brotherton (2003) all mention a number of these organizations based in countries such as Haiti, the Dominican Republic and El Salvador. Most of these organizations assist in orientation programs, counseling/therapy, emergency relief assistance, access to communication media (emails, internet, telephone, etc.), job placements, and access to accommodation/shelters, amongst other support. Multilateral organizations such as the International Organization for Migration (IOM) have also assisted in providing funding and technical advice on deportation.

It is for this reason that the research attempted to assess the level of support that deportees may receive from a number of sources/





organizations. A scale-rating question was posed in relation to the perceived level of support, with the number one signifying 'no support' through to the number ten signifying 'full support'. The areas of support were wide-ranging enough to be able to gauge the general support that deportees might receive in Samoa or Tonga. The highest ranking type of support network came from 'religious organizations' followed by 'family/relatives', 'friends' and 'other deportees'.

At present in Tonga there are two organizations dedicated to working with deportees. In Nukualofa (capital city of Tonga) the Foki ki 'Api – Deportation Reconnection program through the Tonga Lifeline Crisis Ministry of the Free Wesleyan Church provides support (Lilo, 2009). In Vava'u (archipelago in northern Tonga) the Ironman Ministry Incorporated, a rehabilitation center that provides accommodation and cultural identity programs is the main support organization (Ironman Ministry, 2005). These organizations can play a major role in the resettlement of deportees' in-country, however, technical advice, capacity building, resources and professionalization of staff needs to occur for adequate resettlement to begin. Finally, to date there are no organizations or programs available to assist deportees arriving in Samoa.

## V. Conclusions

.....  
“What can I say? It was a trip to get sent back – But I’m grateful that I’m alive” (Alika\*)  
.....

5

This baseline study was commissioned as part of UNESCO Apia’s youth program aiming to identify marginalized youth, identify key issues and determine opportunities to address the developmental needs of young people. It aimed to begin assembling and analyzing the limited academic and organizational material on the Samoan and Tongan deportation experience.

The findings of this report show that the deportation experience is often traumatic, for both the deportee and those family members left behind. The issue of resettlement support in-country has not been resolved as there is no clear responsibility in regard to this concern. In many cases deportees have simply been left in a strange country to make their own way often with limited employment and educational facilities.

The phenomenon of deportation is likely to continue into the foreseeable future as non-citizen populations of Pacific Islanders remain high in the USA, New Zealand and Australia, and equally the participation of a confined number of Pacific Islanders in unlawful activities. This means that Samoa and Tonga will continue to be the receiving countries for deportees, and mechanisms to improve local capacities to deal with this are needed.

As social welfare schemes are not available in Samoa and Tonga, community support networks which develop from family ties and communal living provide the critical role of a safety net in Pacific communities. This community social net provides for people in the community who have trouble supporting themselves due to illness, age, etc through the redistribution of resources. Deportees have not grown up with these

communities, and although some family ties still remain, they may not have access to this form of social support, which is also weaker in urban areas (where a majority of the deportees are based) than in rural areas.

Ill health, unemployment and a lack of income may therefore be more difficult issues for deportees to deal with if faced with limited social support networks. Recidivism is a greater risk where this support is lacking, as alternatives for survival are limited. The research found that the strongest social support networks for deportees were religious organizations, relatives, friends other deportees. Hence the further development of community-based support mechanisms, including strong participation from deportees, is likely to be an effective strategy.

At the national level, better data sharing between Governments (both the deporting Governments and receiving Governments) would be of use in providing a better understanding of the deportation experience. This information sharing is vital; however, it needs to be managed correctly so that data gathered is not used to further victimize an already stigmatized/marginalized population.

Community organizations, including affiliated religious groups, seem well placed to be able to provide support services and facilitate the re-integration into local communities. It is hoped that effective support will lead to reducing trauma and stress from the deportation experience, reducing recidivism and enabling deportees to become productive members of their new communities. The need to build networks with deportees is an important strategy to foster this approach.

A focus on building pathways for active contribution to self support and to their new communities (both the community of deportees and the local geographic community) are important for addressing the lack of a safety net. Assessment of the current educational situation and employability of deportees is needed to inform the design of education and training to address this need.

It is hoped that this preliminary study will contribute to future regional and international research but particularly that it informs stakeholders about possible areas of support for deportees.

To conclude, the decision to deport non-citizens from the USA, New Zealand and Australia has far reaching implications that not only affect the individual but families and entire communities. The deportation experience makes an impact at the local, national and the international level demonstrating that deportation is not the end of a 'problem', but the start of a new and on-going dilemma for individuals, families and the wider community.

# VI. Recommendations

6

## **Recommendation 1 – The establishment of a cooperation agreement to facilitate information sharing amongst countries**

The establishment of a repository of information set out by a standard process for requesting information (reflecting legal obligations) that will allow for specific information from agencies to be shared with receiving countries.

## **Recommendation 2 – Develop a plan with relevant stakeholders in Samoa and Tonga to provide the implementation of support programs servicing deportees needs**

In Samoa, a national consultation should be conducted to determine the views of Government, deportees and community organizations for the purpose of developing a plan for appropriate interventions and programs for deportees.

In Tonga, a consultation was conducted in 2008 and an Outcome Statement of the National Workshop on Deportees (2008) was agreed. Further support should focus on the implementation of the agreed activities and programs in this statement.

## **Recommendation 3 – The establishment of a support organization in Samoa and the provision of technical advice/support for organizations that assist deportees in Tonga**

In Samoa, the establishment of an organization will need special consideration to ensure appropriate interventions and programs are put in place to assist those that are returning home. Full involvement of deportees in this process will be critical to effectively meet their needs and develop an environment of trust.

In Tonga, the provision of technical advice/support to organizations that already assist with the resettlement of deportees is a crucial step for effective reintegration in-country. Organizations that are mandated to strengthen institutional capacity particularly in the area of ex-offender resettlement are well placed to assist with existing organizations. Also the increase of community awareness programs will also be suited in the case of Tonga.

**Recommendation 4 – A program of activities addressing employment and educational needs of deportees**

A consultation with relevant stakeholders to inform a process of skills analysis including the assessment of educational levels and employment opportunities of this economically active group (age range of 25 – 35 years) is vital for their re-integration. This analysis should map already existing programs in-country, consider opportunities for waged employment or self-employment through entrepreneurship and propose training and resource needs for deportees to increase their employability.

# Appendix

## Appendix 1

Table 1.1: Number of criminal deportees to Samoa and country of deportation

Country: Samoa

Country	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Total
*USA	M	12	M	M	15	13	14	15	3	13	14	99
**Australia	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	3
***New Zealand	M	M	M	1	1	0	5	3	2	8	2	22
(M) = Missing or withheld data by departing country												124

Figure 1.1: Percentage of criminal deportees to Samoa by country

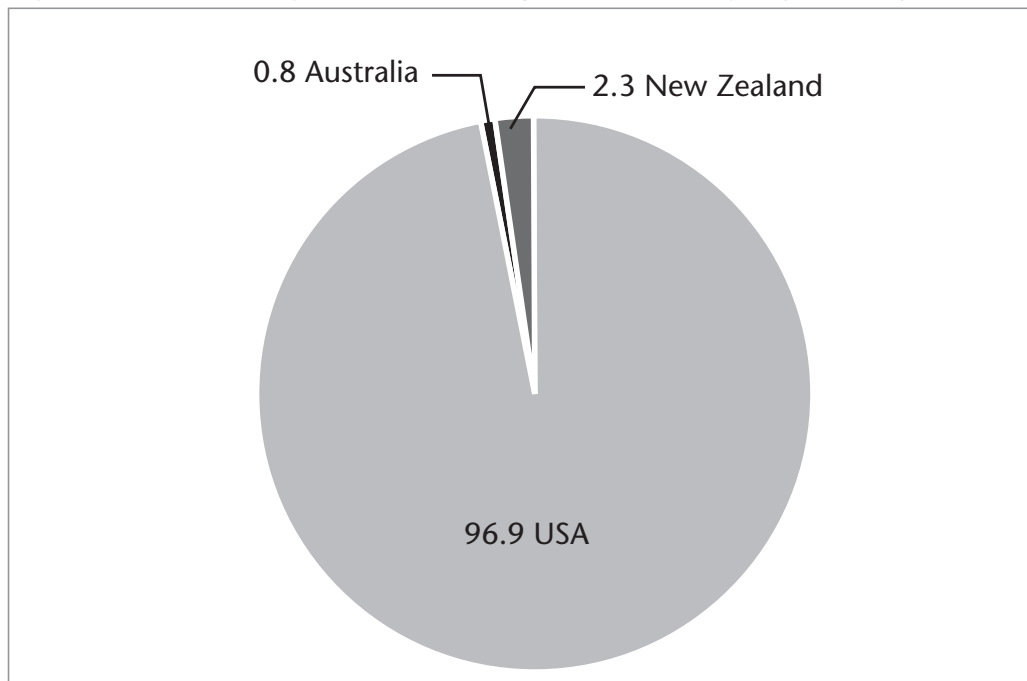


Table 1.2: Number of criminal deportees to Tonga and country of deportation

Country: Tonga

Country	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Total
*USA	24	32	41	36	26	33	37	36	23	26	29	343
**Australia	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	3
***New Zealand	M	M	M	3	0	1	1	2	2	0	3	12
(M) = Missing or withheld data by deporting country												358

Figure 1.2: Percentage of criminal deportees to Tonga by country

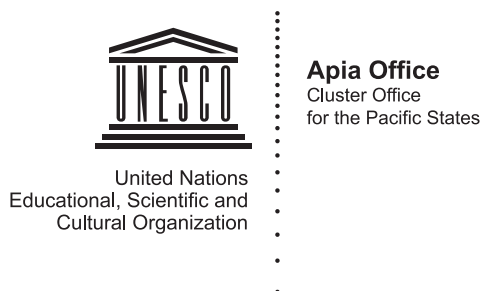


\*Source: U.S.A Department of Homeland Security (DHS) [available online]  
<http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2008/table37d.xls>  
<http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/assets/statistics/yearbook/2006/table39d.xls>

\*\*Source: Australian Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC) Program Integrity Risk Branch

\*\*\*Source: Immigration New Zealand (INZ) Border Security Group

## Appendix 2



### Reason for this questionnaire:

By gathering information about your experience & circumstances involving your experience as a deportee we hope to better understand your situation and create a strategy to address the issues that really matter to you.

Participation in the study is totally voluntary and you may stop participation at any time or refuse to answer any question if you are not comfortable. However, the more information we can gather, the better the understanding of the issues. Please note that all the information collected will be confidential and will not be used against you or to identify you.

All information from the questionnaire will be written in a report format to present to possible donors and/or partners who are interested in supporting a deportee program. All the information will be grouped and presented as percentages or other figures so that individual answers cannot be identified. *For example: 50 people completed the questionnaire of which 15% were females and 85% males.* Copies of the report can be made available to you upon request.

If you have further concerns or questions, please do not hesitate to contact to Ms. Natalia Pereira UNESCO Pacific Youth Programs Coordinator on Ph: 24276.

Thanks you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.



## Background

1. Circle your gender:  
*Male          Female*
2. How old are you?  
*18 – 25          26 – 35          36 – 45          > 45 years old*
3. Are you currently  
*Married   De facto   Single   Divorced   Widowed   Separated*
4. Do you have any children? How many?  
.....
5. Do you currently live with your partner and/or children?  
*YES          NO*
6. Do you have spiritual/religious beliefs?  
*YES          NO*
7. If willing, please list your spirituality/religion?  
.....
8. Does your religious organization provide any support/programs?  
*YES          NO          UNSURE*
9. For how many years did you live outside of Samoa?  
.....
10. In what year did you get deported to Samoa?  
.....
11. Where from? (circle one)  
*USA          NZ          AUS          Other:.....*
12. For what conviction/s did you get deported?  
.....
13. How long where you in prison for?  
.....
- 14) Describe in your own words what happened when you were deported?  
*Please explain: Treatment? Deportation experience? Which department was involved? Etc.*  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

## Experience since Arrival

1. Who are you currently living with in Samoa? (circle one)
  - (a) *Alone*
  - (b) *Immediate Family*
  - (c) *Relatives*
  - (d) *Friend/s*
  - (e) *Fellow deportee/s*
  - (f) *Other:.....*

2. Do you have a job?  
 YES            NO  
 a. If YES, what kind of job?  
 Job:.....

3. Have you undertaken any formal education program/s?  
 YES            NO

4. Please rate on a scale of 1 to 10 the level of support you receive from the following groups in Samoa:

	No support					Full Support				
Family/relatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Local Community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Police	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Other Deportees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Coworkers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Religious Organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sports Organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Other (.....)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

5. Have you been investigated/charged with any offence in Samoa?  
 YES            NO

6. Did you serve time in prison in Samoa for that conviction?  
 YES            NO

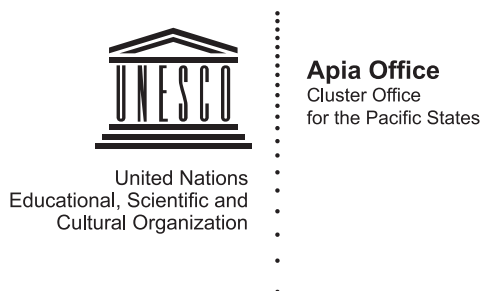
7. How often do you have thoughts of returning to the country you got (a) deportxed from?
  - (b) *Everyday*
  - (c) *Once a week*
  - (d) *Once a month*
  - (e) *Never*
  - (f) *Other:.....*



8. Do you currently have any of these habits?
  - (a) *Drinking*
  - (b) *Smoking cigarettes*
  - (c) *Illegal substance use*
  
9. How often do you participate in these habits?
  - (a) *Everyday*
  - (b) *Once a week*
  - (c) *Once a fortnight*
  - (d) *Once a month*
  - (e) *Never*
  - (f) *Other:.....*
  
10. List three issues that you find most difficult to deal with in terms of adjusting to life in Samoa.
  - (a).....  
.....
  - (b).....  
.....
  - (c).....  
.....
  
11. List three aspects of your life that brings happiness and/or support to you. (E.g. Fa’asamoa culture)
  - (a).....  
.....
  - (b).....  
.....
  - (c).....  
.....

– Thank you for participating in this questionnaire –  
If you’re willing to take part in a more in-depth face-to-face interview  
Please take the front page & contact Ms. Natalia Pereira

## Appendix 3



Dear Interviewee,

By gathering information about your experience & circumstances involving your experience as a deportee we hope to better understand your situation and create a strategy to address the issues that really matter to you.

Participation in this interview is totally **voluntary** and **you may stop participation at any time or refuse to answer any question** if you are not comfortable. However, the more information we can gather, the better the understanding of the issues. Please note that all the information collected will be **confidential** and will **not be used against you or to identify you**.

All information from this interview will be written in a report format to present to possible donors and/or partners who are interested in supporting a deportee program. All the information will be grouped and presented so that individual answers cannot be identified. Copies of the report can be made available to you upon request.

If you have further concerns or questions, please do not hesitate to contact to Ms. Natalia Pereira UNESCO Pacific Youth Programs Coordinator on Ph: 24276.

Thanks you very much for taking the time to be interviewed as your experience and time are invaluable to getting a better understanding of your situation.

## **Interview Release Form**

Research name:.....

Date:.....

Interviewer: Natalia Pereira UNESCO Pacific Youth Programs Coordinator

Name/Pseudonym of the person interviewed:.....

Country:.....

Telephone number (if applicable):.....

Date of arrival (if applicable):.....

*By signing/initialing the form bellow you give permission for the interview to take place and for information to be written in a report to be shared with donors and/or partners.*

*I agree to the use of the material written bellow, please accept this release form as a confirmation of our agreement in respect to my participation.*

Name/Pseudonym:.....

Signature:.....

Date:.....

Interviewer signature:.....

Date:.....

Information:.....

Initial:.....

## Appendix 4

Table 4.1: Types of offences as per respondents

Offence	Total
Aggravated robbery/burglary	6
Theft/burglary/robbery	6
Common & aggravated assault	8
Drug related charges	5
*Other	21
** Unknown	2
***Number of offences	48
Did not answer	2
Total number of respondents	40

\* The category of 'Other' includes 10 different offences that have 4 or less occurrences

\*\* Information provided in the questionnaire was not clear and therefore the researcher was unable to process the data.

\*\*\* In some cases respondents were charged with more than one offence

## Appendix 5

Table 5.1: Areas of Employment as per respondents

Employment Areas	Respondents
*Babysitter	2
Customer Service	1
Taxi Driver	2
Tattooist	1
Fencing	1
Mentor/Counselor	2
Janitor	1
Construction	1
Panel beating	1
Filming & editing videos	1
Security	1
Farmer	3
Fisherman	1
Engineer	1
Coordinator	1
Bar tender	1
Shopkeeper	2
Unemployed	12
Did not answer	5
Total respondents	40

\* In these cases the respondents were actively babysitting their own children

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## Management of Social Transformations (MOST)

### **Policy is the priority**

While it still promotes international, comparative and policy-relevant research on contemporary social transformations, MOST is now emphasizing the research and policy interface as its major *raison d'être*. Tackling the sustainability of social transformations is the programme's main task, which implies action at normative, analytical and strategic/political levels. It must concentrate on research of direct use to policy makers and groups involved in advocacy.

MOST's emphasis is thus on establishing and interconnecting international policy networks with renowned social science researchers to facilitate the use of social science research in policy-making. This means bringing together basic research with those entrusted with policy formulation in governments, institutions, actors and in UNESCO itself.

### **Tools for policy-making**

The Policy Papers, dedicated to social transformations and based on policy-relevant research results of work carried out by MOST and by other sections of the Social and Human Sciences Sector (SHS), are intended for policy makers, advocacy groups, business and media.

SHS is seeking new ways of distributing knowledge to target groups, such as ministers of social development, advocacy groups, UNESCO National Commissions and local authorities. It has launched a tool for online knowledge management and meta-networking for decision-making and strategy. This knowledge repository will use innovative and refined search tools to facilitate access and intelligibility of complex research data for all potential users.