

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IN THE AMERICAS

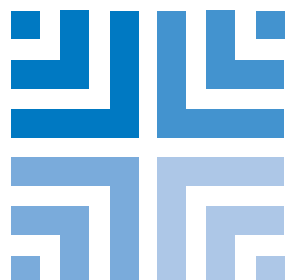
SICREMI 2012



Organization of
American States



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American States**



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FOREWORD

Countries of origin and destination countries both stand to gain from international migration, an issue that ranks high on the policy agenda of many governments around the world. For many countries of origin, including in Latin America and the Caribbean, international migration offers opportunities for people to work abroad and support their family members who have stayed behind. On the other hand, many destination countries, particularly high-income countries, see international migration as a means of addressing the labour market challenges posed by an aging population and the retirement of the post-World War II “baby boomers.”

To better inform policy discussions on international migration, the Continuous Reporting System on International Migration in the Americas (known by its Spanish acronym, SICREMI) was jointly launched by the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). It aims to develop annual statistics and analyses of international migration trends within, as well as to and from the Western Hemisphere. The reporting system and the resulting annual publication (*International Migration in the Americas*) are modeled on *The International Migration Outlook* produced annually by the OECD for OECD countries.

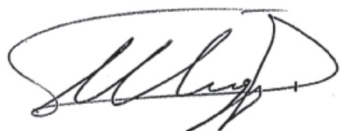
The current edition of *International Migration in the Americas* — the second annual report of the SICREMI — provides an overview of international migration to and from the countries of the Americas, with information on the labor force outcomes of emigrants from the Americas to OECD countries, and features a special chapter on remittances from immigrants to their countries of origin.

Among its main messages, the report calls for a more informed discussion on migration issues, based on solid statistics and evidence-based analysis. The report shows that the rollback in migration flows in recent years has been relatively small, given the seriousness of the economic crisis. This outcome underscores the importance of international migration for the global economy, even under complex circumstances like the ones we confront, and suggests that migration flows will likely increase again as the global recovery takes hold.

The report finds that the adverse economic situation in Spain and the United States has resulted in a slight but noticeable redirection of migration flows from the Americas to other OECD countries. It also examines the labor market situation of immigrants from the Americas in OECD countries. In particular, the report finds that, in the case of the United States, after the crisis, joblessness has fallen more rapidly among immigrants from the Americas than for the native-born population or migrants from other parts of the world.

Participation in the SICREMI network has expanded from nine countries in the first phase to the eighteen in this edition. This increase illustrates the interest of the governments of the region in an approach to discussions on migration based on solid data and analysis. However, the effort is not complete. This second issue of *International Migration in the Americas* demonstrates that even while a certain momentum has been gained, there remains much work to be done.

We therefore commit ourselves to support this effort in the firm belief that it can significantly contribute, to meaningful dialogue on migration issues, among the countries of the Americas.

A stylized, handwritten signature in dark ink, enclosed within a faint, hand-drawn oval shape.

José Miguel Insulza
Secretary General of the
Organization of American States

A stylized, handwritten signature in dark ink, consisting of a series of connected loops and a final horizontal stroke.

Angel Gurría
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SICREMI 2012

The participating organizations would like to express their special thanks to the National Correspondents of the 18 participating OAS Member States and their teams, who worked hard to produce the national reports, based in which this report was developed.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Trends in International Migration in the Americas

Immigration to countries of the Americas

2010 saw the first signs of economic recovery in the Americas from the Great Recession of 2008-2009. GDP growth rates increased significantly, from -0.4% on average in 2009 for the countries covered in this report¹ to an average of 5.6% in 2010.

However, the trends in international migration did not always mirror this evolution, especially in Latin America and the Caribbean.

Canada and the United States, after a decline of 12% in 2009 in temporary work migration, registered an increase of 5% in 2010. Permanent migration in these countries saw virtually no change in 2009, and in 2010 a drop of 4%. This type of migration is determined largely by numerical limits specified by the respective governments of these two countries and in recent years has not seen its levels adjusted in response to changes in economic conditions.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, despite the improvement in economic conditions in 2010, permanent immigration declined by 9% and temporary movements by 6%. Most of this is the consequence of declines in two countries, namely Brazil where the 2010 decline in permanent migration reflected the effect of a regularization in 2009, and in Argentina, which reflected a decline in regularizations from the Mercosur Patria Grande Program. Growth rates in immigration for Latin American and the Caribbean as a whole have fallen continuously from the rates observed in the pre-crisis period in 2007, when the levels of immigration were admittedly low.

The movements into individual countries of Latin America and the Caribbean appear to bear little connection to changes in the state of the national economies in many countries. Indeed, in some whose economies have evolved in a similar way from 2009 to 2010, one sees both large increases in temporary migration in certain countries and large declines in others. It may be that emigration is determined more by conditions in countries of origin than in countries of destination.

For the majority of the countries of the Americas included in this report, immigration is a regional matter, i.e. the majority of immigrants come from the Americas, with the exception of Brazil, Canada and United States where much of the immigration originates outside the Hemisphere. In 2011 intraregional flows within Latin America and the Caribbean were half of the flows of the region towards Canada and United States

¹ Argentina, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Paraguay and Uruguay. Although the United States is not a formal participant in the SICREMI network of migration correspondents from the Americas, its statistics are readily available and have been incorporated whenever appropriate.

In 2010, Asia was the continent of origin for about 45% of immigrants to Canada and the United States, while immigrants from the rest of the Americas accounted for 25%, not including unauthorized migration estimated at around 300 000 in 2009 from a peak of about 850 000 per year in the first half of the decade (Passel and Cohn, 2010).

There was, in addition, a strong concentration of migration from neighboring countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. For some destination countries, between 40% to 50% of the immigration comes from a single neighboring country. This was the case for Argentina (from Paraguay), Barbados (from Guyana), Bolivia and Chile (from Peru) and Costa Rica (from Nicaragua).

Asylum seeking in the Americas

For 2010-2011, approximately 13% of the world's asylum requests were made in countries of the Americas, about three quarters of these in the United States and Canada. Although the United States and Canada are in absolute terms the countries with the greatest number of requests, the number of requests per million population was 1040 in Ecuador, 744 in Canada, 403 in Panama, 211 in Costa Rica, 193 in the United States, and 112 in Venezuela.

Asylum requests in the Americas increased some 7% in 2011 with respect to 2010 with the United States showing an increase of 41% and Ecuador a decline of 55%. 97% of asylum requests from the Americas come from nationals of six countries, in particular Colombia, Mexico and Haiti and to a lesser extent, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras.

Evolution of remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean

Over the course of 2011, remittance flows to Latin American and Caribbean (LAC) showed signs of a solid recovery, reaching growth rates close to those recorded before the start of the global economic crisis. Since the last quarter of 2008, the increases in unemployment rates in traditional sending countries like the United States, Spain, and Japan, and the ensuing drops in incomes among LAC migrants had caused an unprecedented decline in the volume of remittances sent to the region. In 2010, remittances to LAC showed signs of stabilization of these flows and finished the year on a positive growth trend that resulted in an annual volume that was slightly higher than the previous year. In 2011, the countries in the region received a total of US\$ 61,013 billion in remittances, which represented an increase of 6% over the previous year.

Emigration from the Americas to OECD countries

The economic crisis has had a substantial effect on migration from the Americas, in particular to Spain, reducing migration to that country by close to 36% between 2005-2007 and 2008-2010. In absolute terms this means a decline from around 860,000 to 550,000 for the periods indicated.

Legal flows to the United States, on the other hand, have decreased by barely 4%. Recall, however, that the flow statistics for the United States only cover green cards, which grant the right to permanent residence. It is in temporary and unauthorized migration that the largest decreases were observed.

The difficult economic conditions in Spain and the United States appear to have had the effect of redirecting some of the migration flows from the Americas to other OECD destination countries.

The migratory flows of migrants from the Americas towards other countries of the OECD outside Europe grew by 8% (Canada, Chile, Mexico, Japan, Korea, Australia, and New Zealand) and to other countries in Europe by 14% in the 2008-2010 period compared to the period 2005-2007. The total

increase in the movement of these two areas amounts to around 105 000, which somewhat compensates for the decrease of 360 000 movements towards Spain and the United States.

The largest declines in expatriation to OECD countries from 2005-2007 to 2008-2010 were observed for migrants from the Southern Cone Region (down over 180 000 over the period) and from the Southern cone (also down by more than 180 000) in these periods. Caribbean countries have actually seen an 11% increase, largely due to migration from Haiti but especially the Dominican Republic, mostly to the United States.

Although economic conditions have become more difficult almost everywhere within the OECD zone, migration movements from the Americas have remained at a relatively high level, with more than 3 million persons for the 2008-2010 period representing a drop of only 8% compared to the level of movements in the 2005-2007 period prior to the economic crisis. Not even the most serious economic downturn since the Great Depression has managed to put much of a dent on migration movements, which continue and will undoubtedly expand as demographic imbalances in developed countries begin to make themselves felt more strongly.

Labor market situation of emigrants from the Americas in 2010-2011

Demographic and geographic patterns of settlement of emigrants from the Americas

Age, gender and region of destination of emigrants from the Americas

Most emigrants from the Americas (82%) in 2010-11 resided in the United States. The share of emigrants from Central America and the Caribbean living in the United States was even higher than this, and reached 99% in the case of emigrants from Mexico. On the other hand, emigrants from South America resided more in Europe than in the United States. Spain accounted for most of the emigrants in Europe (57%).

Educational attainment of the emigrant population from the Americas

Among emigrants from the Americas, one in three had a low educational level (less than upper secondary) in 2010-2011, compared to 15% with a high level (tertiary). Emigrants from Central American countries like Mexico, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras had the lowest share of highly-educated persons (7% on average). Emigrants from the Americas in the United States had much lower educational attainment levels than the native-born or other migrants. This was not the case in Spain, however, where the percentage of low-educated persons is higher for both other migrants (+6) and the native-born (+14) than for migrants from the Americas.

The United States, Canada and Venezuela have the highest share of tertiary-educated persons among their emigrant populations, at fully 60% in the case of the United States and about 45% for the other two countries. Generally, expatriation rates are higher among the highly educated, with Mexico, the Dominican Republic and Ecuador being exception.

Labor market outcomes of emigrant workers from the Americas

The Great Recession of 2008-2009 especially devastated the economy of Spain; that of the United States, where an even greater percentage of migrants from the Americas were living, was also strongly affected. Particularly hard hit was the construction sector where many immigrants were

working. Job opportunities are now far more scarce and competition from unemployed native-born workers more intense. This is reflected in the labor market outcomes of migrants from the Americas.

2010 and 2011 have seen some initial small signs of recovery in many OECD countries, but the overall situation of immigrants from the Americas in the labor market cannot be said to have improved greatly. Signs of a slight increase in employment and a decline in unemployment after 2009 among emigrants from the Americas in the United States are visible. The situation is not the same in Spain, where the labor market outcomes of migrants continue to deteriorate, although less so among emigrants from the Americas than among migrants from elsewhere. Although they admittedly remain much more unemployed than the native-born, their outcomes have begun to diverge (favorably) from those of other migrants, which is a positive sign for the future. It suggests that employers are not distinguishing, or distinguishing less, in rehiring between the native-born and other hispanophones.

For women from many countries of the Americas, labor market outcomes have taken an unfavorable turn. This is especially the case with respect to employment and unemployment outcomes, while participation has been more resilient.

On the other hand, there are signs of an improving labor market for Caribbean men in particular and to a somewhat lesser extent, for men from Central America. This reflects, to some extent, improvements in the economy of the United States.

The unemployment situation of low-educated migrants in Spain is especially difficult, averaging 26% for women from the Americas and 36% for men. In the United States the corresponding figures for women and men are 14% and 11% respectively.

Part-time work among emigrant workers from the Americas

Historically a larger share of women than of men has been in part-time jobs in OECD countries. Emigrants from the Americas are no exception: the share of part-time workers in total employment among emigrant women was 16 percentage points higher than among emigrant men, a difference 6 percentage points higher than among the native-born.

With a reduction in the working-age population on the horizon for many OECD countries, it is likely that increases in working hours among part-time workers will be one strategy for increasing economic activity among the resident population. There will thus be considerable potential for increasing working hours on the part of many workers, both native- and foreign-born.

Self-employment and entrepreneurship

In 2010-2011, the OECD area counted more than 1.5 million self-employed from the Americas. The largest contingent was Mexican and was essentially based in the United States. Migrants from Cuba, Canada, Colombia, Argentina and Brazil are next in line.

When migrants are in a position to set up a business and to create jobs, they can have a measurable effect on employment. In Spain and Italy, for example, nearly one out of four entrepreneurs born in the Americas has created jobs for others through his/her business. In Spain, 9 % of persons employed by entrepreneurs overall were employed by immigrants in 2007-08 and this share is growing (OECD 2010c).

The occupational distribution of employment among emigrant workers from the Americas

Although migrants from the Americas are characterized by a much higher percentage of low-educated persons than is the case among other migrants or the native-born in the United States, this is not the case in Spain, where the percentage of low-educated persons is high for all three groups, but where the native-born percentage at (57%) is some 10 to 15 percentage points above those of immigrants. Indeed, relative to most OECD countries, Spain lacks medium-educated workers and it is medium-skilled jobs which in most countries constitute the bulk of jobs present in the labor market.

In the United States, emigrants from the Americas were more likely than natives to work in low-skilled occupations such as construction, cleaning and maintenance, food preparation and serving, production or transportation in 2010-2011. They were also less likely than natives to work in high-skilled occupations such as management, legal, business and financial operations, computer science, architecture or engineering.

The situation in Europe was only somewhat less polarized. They were present in all occupations, but there was a very large over-representation in low-skilled jobs (27% of employment compared to about 8% for the native-born).

In the countries of southern Europe including Spain, there was a very large difference between the educational attainment of retiring workers and that of young residents entering the work-force. Under these circumstances, it seems likely that immigrants were not driving domestic workers from employment, but rather taking on jobs for which there were insufficient numbers of domestic candidates. The fact that such jobs tended to be manual and of relatively low wage levels tend to support this affirmation.

Earnings of emigrant workers from the Americas

Emigrant workers in both the United States and Spain tended to be concentrated in the bottom two income quintiles, with more than 60% of migrants in this situation. In both countries, they were underrepresented in the highest income quintiles. Remittance transfers amounted to about \$US 1500 for every migrant from the Americas who was employed.



CONTENTS

Part I: Trends in International Migration and Labor Market Outcomes

Trends in International Migration in the Americas	1
Introduction	3
Migration by category of entry	8
Asylum seeking in the Americas	10
Continents and main countries of origin of immigrants	12
The immigrant population	17
The acquisition of nationality	18
Emigration from the Americas to OECD countries	19
Labor market situation of emigrants from the Americas in 2010-2011	23
Introduction	23
Demographic and geographic patterns of settlement of emigrants from the Americas	23
<i>Age, gender and region of destination of emigrants from the Americas</i>	<i>25</i>
<i>Educational attainment of the emigrant population from the Americas</i>	<i>27</i>
Labor market outcomes of emigrant workers from the Americas	30
Education and unemployment among workers from the Americas	33
Part-time work among emigrant workers from the Americas	35
Self-employment and entrepreneurship	36
The occupational distribution of employment among emigrant workers from the Americas	38
Earnings of emigrant workers from the Americas	40
Bibliography	42
Notes	42

Part II: Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean in 2011..... 45

Remittances in 2011	47
Sending Countries' Effect on Remittance Flows.....	51
Recipient Countries' Effects on Remittance Flows.....	55
Conclusion and Outlook for 2012	
Notes	59

Part III: Country Notes 61**Introduction 63****Argentina**

Overview of the History of International Migration	54
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	65
Recent Trends in Migrants Flows and Stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	70
Bibliography	71
Notes	71

Barbados

Overview of the History of International Migration	72
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	73
Recent Trends in Migrants Flows and Stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	78
Bibliography	79

Belize

Overview of the History of International Migration	80
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	81
Recent Trends in Migrants Flows and Stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	84
Bibliography	85
Notes	85

Bolivia

Overview of the History of International Migration	86
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	88
Recent Trends in Migrants Flows and Stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	92
Bibliography	93
Notes	94

Brazil

Overview of the History of International Migration	95
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	96
Recent Trends in Migrants Flows and Stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	102
Bibliography	103
Notes	103

Canada

Overview of the History of International Migration	104
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	105
Recent Trends in Migrants Flows and Stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	112
Bibliography	113

Chile

Overview of the History of International Migration	114
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	117
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	120

Bibliography.....	121
Notes.....	122

Colombia

Overview of the History of International Migration	123
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	125
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	129
Bibliography.....	130
Notes.....	130

Costa Rica

Overview of the History of International Migration	131
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	133
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	137
Bibliography.....	138
Notes.....	139

Dominican Republic

Overview of the History of International Migration	141
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	142
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	147
Bibliography.....	148
Notes.....	149

Ecuador

Overview of the History of International Migration	150
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	152
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	157
Bibliography.....	158
Notes.....	159

El Salvador

Overview of the History of International Migration	160
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	162
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	165
Bibliography.....	166

Guatemala

Overview of the History of International Migration	167
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	169
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	172
Bibliography.....	173

Mexico

Overview of the History of International Migration	175
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	178
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	181
Bibliography.....	182

Panama

Overview of the History of International Migration	185
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	186
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	192
Bibliography.....	193

Paraguay

Overview of the History of International Migration	194
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	196
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	200
Bibliography.....	201
Notes.....	202

Peru

Overview of the History of International Migration	203
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	205
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	209
Bibliography.....	210
Notes.....	211

Uruguay

Overview of the History of International Migration	212
Legal Framework Governing International Migration	214
Recent Trends in Migrants' flows and stocks and in Labor Market Outcomes of Emigrants	216
Bibliography.....	217

United States	218
----------------------------	-----

Part IV: Statistical Annex 219

Introduction.....	221
Metadata	226

I.a.fl. Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality 238**I.a.as Inflows of asylum seekers..... 239****I.a.fb The foreign-born population..... 240****I.a.an Acquisitions of nationality 240****I.d.fl Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality**

Argentina.....	241
Barbados.....	241
Belize	241
Bolivia.....	242
Brazil.....	242
Canada	242
Chile	243
Colombia	243
Costa Rica	243

Dominican Republic	244
Ecuador	244
El Salvador	244
Mexico	245
Panama	245
Peru.....	245
United States.....	246
Uruguay.....	246

I.d.an Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

Barbados.....	246
Belize	247
Bolivia.....	247
Brazil.....	247
Canada	248
Chile	248
Colombia	248
Costa Rica	249
Dominican Republic.....	249
El Salvador	249
Guatemala.....	249
Mexico	250
Paraguay	250
Peru.....	250
United States.....	251
Uruguay.....	251

E.a.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries..... 252

E.a.fb.US The population born in the Americas living in OECD countries - United States 253

E.a.fb. SP. The population born in the Americas living in OECD countries - Spain 254

E.a.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of previous nationality..... 255

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

Antigua and Barbuda	256
Argentina	256
Bahamas	256
Barbados	256
Belize	256
Bolivia	257
Brazil	257
Canada	257
Chile	258
Colombia	258
Costa Rica	258
Cuba	259
Dominica	259
Dominican Republic	259
Ecuador	260
El Salvador	260

Grenada	260
Guatemala	261
Guyana	261
Haiti	261
Honduras	262
Jamaica	262
Mexico	262
Nicaragua	263
Panama	263
Paraguay	263
Peru	264
Saint Kitts and Nevis	264
Saint Lucia	264
Saint Vincent and the Granadines	264
Suriname	264
Trinidad and Tobago	265
United States	265
Uruguay	265
Venezuela	266
E.d.an Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality	
Antigua and Barbuda	266
Argentina	266
Bahamas	266
Barbados	267
Belize	267
Bolivia	267
Brazil	267
Canada	268
Chile	268
Colombia	268
Costa Rica	269
Cuba	269
Dominica	269
Dominican Republic	269
Ecuador	270
El Salvador	270
Grenada	270
Guatemala	270
Guyana	271
Haiti	271
Honduras	271
Jamaica	271
Mexico	272
Nicaragua	272
Panama	272
Paraguay	272
Peru	273
Saint Kitts and Nevis	273

Saint Lucia	273
Saint Vincent and the Granadines	273
Suriname	273
Trinidad and Tobago	274
United States	274
Uruguay	274
Venezuela	275

Index of Tables and Figures

Part I

Tables

Table 1: Flows of international migrants in the Americas, permanent and temporary, selected countries, 2006-2010	4
Table 2: Asylum seekers in the Americas by country of asylum 2000 - 2011	10
Table 3: Total immigration in the Americas, by continent of origin, 2010	12
Table 4: Acquisitions of nationality, selected countries, 2000-2010	18
Table 5: Emigration from the Americas to OECD countries, 2005-2007 and 2008-2010	21
Table 6: Age and gender distribution of emigrants from the Americas in the United States and in Europe, 2010-2011	24
Table 6.a: Age distribution of emigrants from the Americas in the United States and in Europe, by gender, compared to the native-born, 2010-2011	26
Table 7: Distribution of educational attainment by level of emigrants from the Americas, by gender and country of origin, 2010-2011	29
Table 8: Labor market outcomes of emigrant workers from the Americas, by country of birth and gender, 2009-2010 and 2010-2011 averages	32
Table 9: Unemployment rate among emigrant workers from the Americas, by country of birth, gender and educational level, 2010-2011	34
Table 10: Self-employed emigrants from the Americas in the United States and Europe, 2010-2011	37
Table 11: Share of emigrant workers from the Americas in each quintile of the earnings distribution, by country of origin, 2010-2011 average	41

Figures

Figure 1a: Immigration, permanent and temporary, as a percentage of the total resident population, 2010	7
Figure 1b: Net migration and natural increase, western hemisphere countries, 2005-2010 average	8
Figure 2: Permanent immigration by category of entry, selected countries from the Americas, 2010	9
Figure 3: Asylum seekers in the Americas, distribution of destinations for main countries of origin, 2009-2011	11
Figure 4: Top ten countries of origin of international migrants, permanent and temporary, 2010	14
Figure 5: The foreign-born population as a percentage of the total population, 2010	17

Figure 6	Emigrants from the Americas in the United States and in Europe, by region of origin, 2010-2011	24
Figure 7	Duration of residence in OECD countries of immigrants from the Americas and % living in the United States, 2010-2011	27
Figure 8:	Share of tertiary educated among emigrants from the Americas in the United States and Europe and among the resident population in origin countries, 2010-2011	29
Figure 9:	Evolution of labor force outcomes in the United States and in Spain, by birth status and gender, 2007-2011	31
Figure 10:	Part-time work among emigrants from the Americas, 2010-2011 averages	36
Figure 11:	Occupational distribution of employment of workers in the United States and in Europe, by birth status, 2010-2011	39

Boxes

Box 1:	National statistics on immigration	6
Box 2:	Statistics on emigrants from the Americas to OECD countries	19
Box 3:	Comparing characteristics of migrants from the Americas to natives and migrants born elsewhere.....	28

Part II

Boxes

Box 1:	Different flows through the same channels.....	50
Box 2:	Remittances, Exchange Rate, and Inflation (2010-2011)	56
Box 3:	Transparency in Remittance Costs.....	58

Figures

Figure 1:	Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2002-2011)	47
Figure 2:	Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2006-2011).....	48
Figure 3:	Trends in Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2006-2011).....	49
Figure 4:	Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2007-2011).....	50
Figure 5:	Latin American Employment and Labor Force in the U.S. (2007-2011)	52
Figure 6:	Weighted Average of Weekly Salaries of Latin American and Caribbean Workers in the U.S. (2001-2011)	53
Figure 7:	Employment in Spain by Sector (2007-2011)	53
Figure 8:	Monthly Migration Balance (2009-2011)	54
Figure 9:	Wage levels by Sector in Spain (2007-2011).....	55
Figure 10:	Remittances as a Share of GDP (2007-2011)	57

PART I

Trends in International Migration and Labor Market Outcomes

Trends in International Migration in the Americas

Introduction

2010 saw the first signs of a recovery from the Great Recession of 2008-2009 in many countries across the globe. In the Americas in particular, GDP growth rates increased significantly, from -0.4% on average in 2009 for the countries covered in this report¹ to an average of 5.6% in 2010. The latter is comparable to the average growth rate observed in 2006 and 2007 prior to the great recession. However, the trends in international migration did not always mirror this evolution, especially in Latin America and the Caribbean.

In Canada and the United States, temporary migration, in particular of workers, which had seen a decline of 12% in 2009, registered an increase of 5% in 2010 with the improvement in economic conditions (Table 1). Permanent migration in these countries, on the other hand, which is determined largely by numerical limits specified by the respective governments of the two countries and in recent years has not seen its levels adjusted in response to changes in economic conditions, saw virtually no change in 2009 and a small decline in 2010.

Immigration in the rest of the hemisphere, despite the improvement in economic conditions, declined by 9% and 6% overall, for permanent and temporary movements, respectively from 2009 to 2010 (Table 1). Most of this is the consequence of declines in two countries, namely Brazil where the 2010 decline in permanent migration reflected the effect of a regularization in 2009 which created a spike in the statistics in that year, and Argentina, which saw a fall in temporary Mercosur movements from 2009 to 2010.

Nonetheless the overall decline represents a continuation of an almost steady drop in immigration growth rates in Latin America and the Caribbean from the rates observed in 2007, which were already based on low levels of immigration. The movements in individual countries appear to bear little connection to current changes in the state of the national economies. Indeed, in countries whose economies have evolved in a similar way from 2009 to 2010, one sees both large increases in temporary migration (Brazil and Mexico) and large declines (Argentina and Peru). It would appear that immigration into many Latin American countries is as yet not strongly responsive to the state of the national economy.

It is difficult to know to what extent this is due to an imperfect coverage of immigration in the official statistics of the destination countries (see Box 1), to the fact that labor needs which cannot be satisfied in the domestic labor market are relatively uncommon or because emigration may be determined as much and perhaps more by conditions in origin countries than those in destination countries.

Table 1. Flows of international migrants in the Americas, permanent and temporary, selected countries, 2006-2010

Country	Type of immigration	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Percent change 2010	Immigration as a percent of the population 2010
Argentina	Permanent	25 450	50 220	80 970	96 280	96 070	0	0.24
	Temporary	29 380	84 750	144 400	117 740	82 080	-30	0.20
Barbados	Permanent	230	240	220	320	340	6	0.12
	Temporary	9 140	11 590	10 390	7 700	6 010	-22	2.20
Belize	Permanent					770	--	0.25
	Temporary	3 070	1 800	2 910			--	
Bolivia	Permanent				2 490	2 280	-8	0.02
	Temporary				15 070	17 510	16	0.18
Brazil	Permanent	27 060	18 180	14 210	56 850	17 060	-70	0.01
	Temporary	18 840	22 710	27 750	37 370	43 530	16	0.02
Canada	Permanent	251 640	236 760	247 250	252 170	280 680	11	0.83
	Temporary	321 820	357 380	399 200	382 110	383 910	0	1.13
Chile	Permanent / Temporary	48 520	79 380	68 380	57 060	63 910	12	0.37
Colombia	Permanent	1 450	1 530	1 810	2 340	3 350	43	0.01
	Temporary	8 630	9 760	11 310	13 860	15 880	15	0.03
Costa Rica	Permanent	6 380	6 000	8 320	9 650	7 510	-22	0.16
	Temporary	1 390	2 860	5 010	6 370	6 350	0	0.14
Dominican Republic	Permanent	3 530	2 620	2 790	2 890	900	-69	0.01
	Temporary	2 050	1 520	1 970	3 400	4 800	41	0.05
Ecuador	Permanent	40 270	49 430	52 930	57 800	61 410	6	0.42
	Temporary	23 770	26 770	27 380	32 040	33 860	6	0.23
El Salvador	Permanent	330	590	590	430	340	-21	0.01
	Temporary		2 050	1 920	1 620	2 020	25	0.03
Guatemala	Permanent			1 070	1 530	640	-58	0.00
	Temporary			2 130	3 550	820	-77	0.01

continues

Table 1: Continuation

Country	Type of immigration	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Percent change 2010	Immigration as a percent of the population 2010
Mexico	Permanent	6 870	7 190	15 910	23 850	26 180	10	0.02
	Temporary	46 070	43 910	33 850	32 530	38 810	19	0.03
Panama	Permanent					2 480	--	0.07
	Temporary					3 160	--	0.09
Paraguay	Permanent	1 600	3 560	5 350	4 340	5 550	28	0.09
	Temporary	300	490	570	1 630	6 970	328	0.11
Peru	Permanent	1 390	2 340	3 060	4 640	7 250	56	0.02
	Temporary	1 980	3 390	2 780	3 270	2 310	-29	0.01
United States	Permanent	1 266 130	1 052 420	1 107 130	1 130 820	1 042 630	-8	0.34
	Temporary	1 340 560	1 485 730	1 492 510	1 288 130	1 371 470	6	0.44
Uruguay	Permanent / Temporary	1 160	1 340	3 980	3 830	2 180	-43	0.06
Latin American and Caribbean countries (with complete data for 2006-2010)	Permanent	163 910	222 030	257 930	319 850	291 710		0.06
	Temporary	141 550	207 750	265 410	255 910	240 600		0.05
	Permanent		35	16	24	-9		
	Temporary		47	28	-4	-6		
United States and Canada	Permanent	1 517 770	1 289 180	1 354 380	1 382 990	1 323 310		0.38
	Temporary	1 662 380	1 843 110	1 891 710	1 670 240	1 755 380		0.51
	Permanent		-15	5	2	-4		
	Temporary		11	3	-12	5		
All countries (with complete data for 2006- 2010)	Permanent	1 681 680	1 511 210	1 612 310	1 702 840	1 615 020		0.19
	Temporary	1 803 930	2 050 860	2 157 120	1 926 150	1 995 980		0.23
	Permanent		-10	7	6	-5		
	Temporary		14	5	-11	4		

Sources: Visa and residence permit data for all countries except Brazil, where data are from the Federal Police Register and Belize, where the temporary immigration data refer to temporary employment permits.

Notes: Data exclude persons on diplomatic passports and their family and foreign staff. In the statistics for Chile and Uruguay, permanent and temporary migration are confounded. Data for Ecuador cover admissions rather than persons; they may therefore include multiple entries for the same person. Data for Peru cover persons having entered in the given year and still resident in the country as end-September 2011. The statistics on permanent immigration may include changes of status, that is, persons who were present in the country on a temporary status of some kind and have changed to a permanent status. See Statistical Annex for details.

Box 1: National statistics on immigration

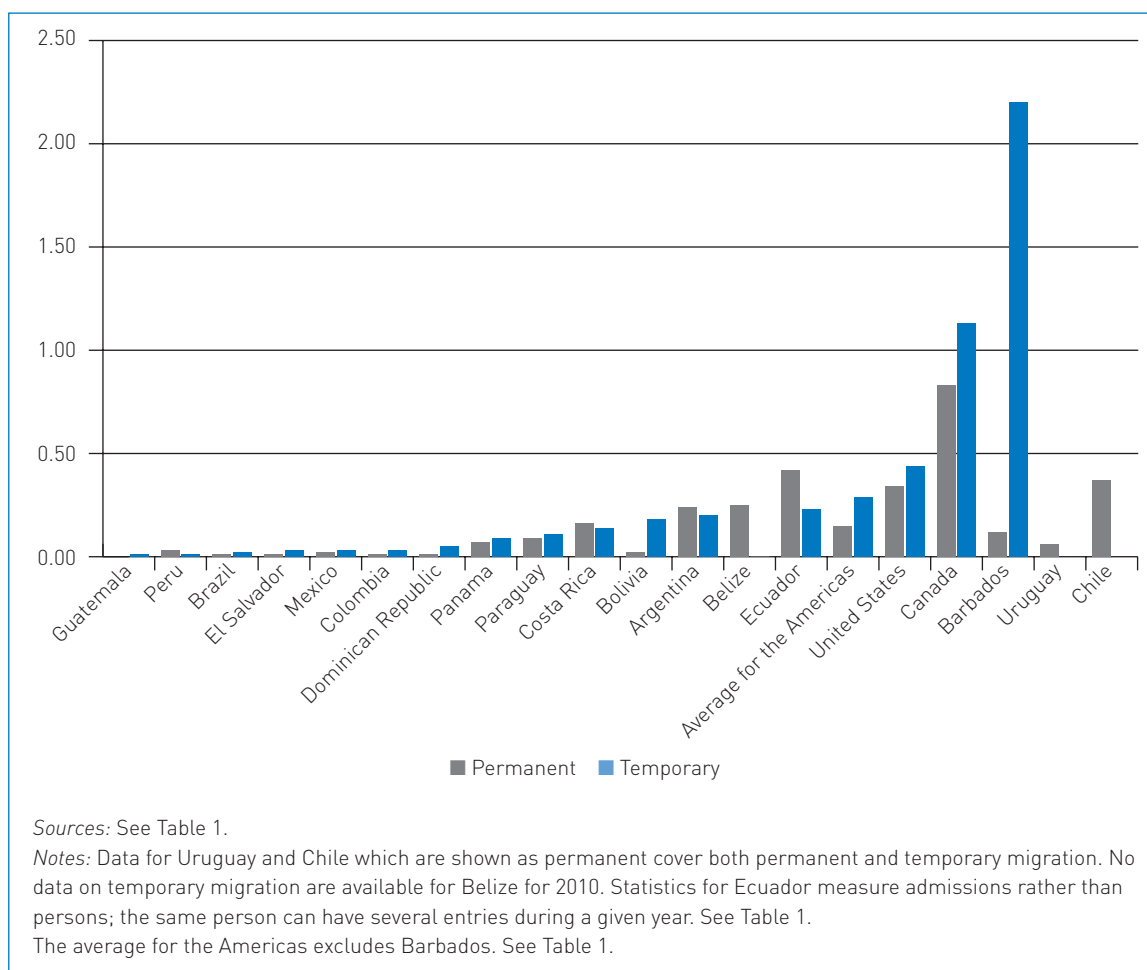
For the most part, the statistics on immigration shown in Table 1 are based on the statistics of immigration visas and/or permits of the destination countries (see Statistical Annex). The exceptions are Brazil, where the statistics are from the Federal police register, and Ecuador, where they are based on entries and exits of persons registered with the Migration Department. On occasion, certain countries have carried out regularization of unauthorized migrants, who then enter the permit systems and may show up in the statistics of immigration in a given year, which is generally not that of the year when they entered the country.

The extent to which visa or permit administrative data systems cover the full extent of flows is not known. Unauthorized migration exists in all countries and by definition is excluded from official data sources. Regularizations aid in bringing some of this migration to the surface, but may not cover all such migration, because persons in this situation may not come forward or, if they do, may be refused legal status if they do not satisfy all of the criteria for regularization. This is of course not a situation unique to countries of Latin America and the Caribbean; many OECD countries are in the same situation and it is the extent of regularizations in countries such as Greece, Italy and Spain as well as the estimates of the undocumented population in the United States which have revealed how extensive the population of unauthorized migrants can be.

The permit statistics often include so-called changes of status, that is, persons who were already in the country on a temporary status and changed to a permanent status. Such persons have not generally entered the country in the year in which they appear in the permanent statistics. They will nonetheless be included implicitly when the text refers to “immigrants” or to “entries”, because for destination countries, it is the passage to permanent status which signals the entry into the resident population.

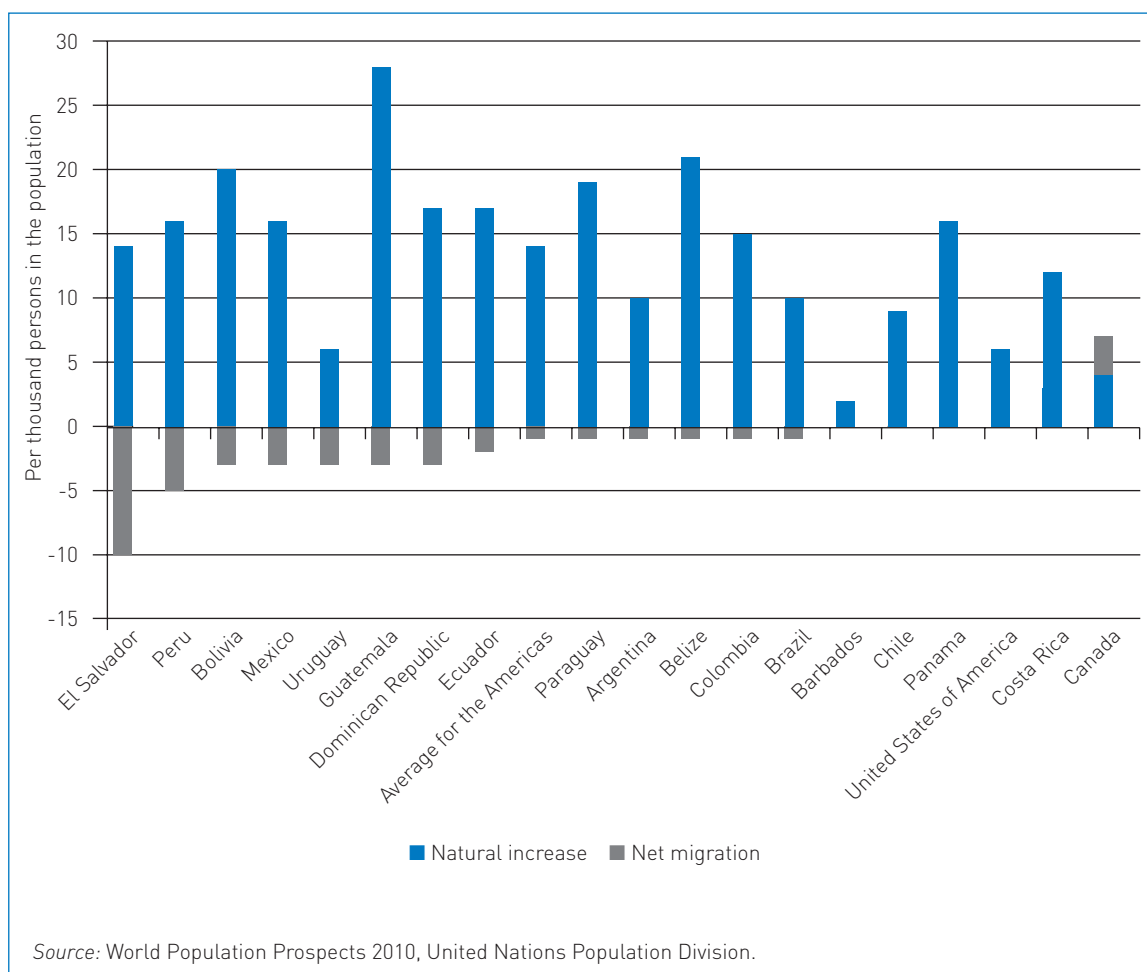
Note that “permanent” may not always mean holding the right of permanent residence. In some countries, persons may receive temporary permits while being considered by the destination country as being on a migration “track” that will eventually lead to permanent residence. To the extent possible, such migrants are classified in this report as “permanent” at the time of entry or of recording, recognizing that some may not actually remain in the country indefinitely. This, however, is also true of persons who receive the right of permanent residence at the time of entry. It is estimated, for example, that one-fourth to one-third of permanent immigrants to Canada eventually leave the country, most in the initial years after arrival.

In any event, immigration levels in almost all countries of Latin America tend to be low, which leaves considerable room for idiosyncratic movements to offset those which respond to general economic conditions. Only in Argentina and Belize do permanent migration levels tend to approach those of the United States, which in the OECD is among countries with the lowest legal migration rates on a per-capita basis (Figure 1a).² Barbados is unique among Latin American and Caribbean countries in having very high levels of temporary migration, higher even than Canada on a per-capita basis, most of it from CARICOM countries, and in particular from Guyana.

Figure 1a: Immigration, permanent and temporary, as a percentage of the total resident population, 2010

The low immigration levels in Latin America and the Caribbean are in part a consequence of their demographic situations. It is generally the case that, all things being equal, countries having high rates of natural increase have low immigration rates (Figure 1b), although the relationship is not a strong one,³ in part because of confounding factors such as differences in income levels between origin and destination countries. Uruguay, Argentina and Barbados stand out as countries having low rates of natural increase but net migration rates which are close to zero or negative, that is, they are losing as many persons through migration as they are gaining.

The situation of Barbados is of particular interest, because it has been satisfying many of its labor needs through temporary labor migration, an objective shared by many destination countries across the world for low-skilled jobs. However, temporary labor migration, while an appropriate strategy when labor needs are temporary in character, may be less so when the labor needs of employers are more prolonged. Historically, it has generally been the case that when labor needs are not of a temporary character, economic considerations make it difficult to impose a temporary labor migration regime. In such cases, both immigrant and employer have a considerable interest in maintaining an employment relationship that is of mutual benefit and employers have generally lobbied (successfully) to keep the same workers on the payroll.

Figure 1b: Net migration and natural increase, western hemisphere countries, 2005-2010 average

Migration by category of entry

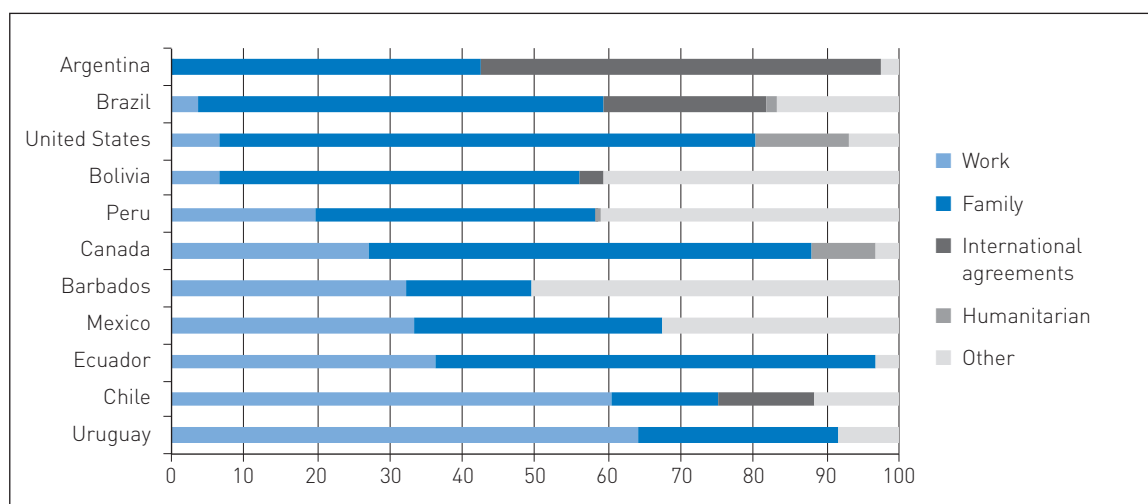
The importance of labor migration among permanent movements varies considerably among countries in the Americas for which data by category are available (Figure 2). Chile and Uruguay stand out in particular, with almost 60% of migration in these countries accounted for by labor migrants in 2010. However, this may reflect the fact that permanent and temporary migration are confounded in the statistics for these countries and temporary migration generally includes a significant proportion of labor migrants. In Barbados, Ecuador and Mexico, labor migrants were about one third of permanent entries in 2010.

Argentina had virtually no permanent labor migration in 2010, most labor migration of skilled workers being temporary in character in that country. However, a considerable percentage of migrants entering Argentina or obtaining permits there did so under international agreements, in particular that governing movements among Mercosur member and associated member countries. Many of these undoubtedly came to find work, but are not specifically identified as labor migrants in the statistics. This was also the case in Brazil, Chile and Bolivia, but to a lesser extent.

Brazil's labor migration accounted for 3% of permanent migration in that country, while Bolivia and the United States had comparable proportions of labor migrants, at around 6%. Canadian labor mi-

gration stood at 27% of total permanent migration in 2010. The latter figure excludes the accompanying family of such migrants, whose inclusion would raise the Canadian proportion to over 60%. Indeed, because of the presence of family members, it is uncommon for directly selected or recruited migrants, in most destination countries where family workers can accompany migrating workers, to account for much more than 40% of total permanent migration. Accompanying family members may also work after arrival, but they are not selected or admitted with that explicit objective in mind.

Figure 2: Permanent immigration by category of entry, selected countries from the Americas, 2010



Labor migration is also generally the most important part of permanent migration over which governments have discretionary authority. There are rarely restrictions on the immigration of immediate family members of permanent citizens or residents, because the right to live with one's family is recognized as a human right in most countries. Likewise, nations party to the Geneva Convention agree to accept as immigrants persons who request asylum and satisfy the criteria defined in the Convention for being considered a refugee. Governments cannot refuse immediate family members of permanent immigrants or recognized refugees without reneging on signed treaties or without calling into question their respect for certain human rights.

Other forms of discretionary migration include that of retired persons, of persons of independent means, or of refugees resettled from camps in countries generally bordering their own, to which they have fled because of persecution or civil conflict.

Family migration, including the accompanying family of labor migrants, accounted for a significant proportion of total permanent migration in Bolivia, Canada, Ecuador and especially the United States in 2010. The latter country has one of the more liberal family migration policies, allowing for the migration, not only of immediate family members, but also of adult siblings and adult children of residents of foreign nationality, subject to numerical limit. Generally the number of applications in the latter categories outstrips the number of available places. In the United States, the opening up of family migration in this way is the avowed counterpart to the low permanent labor migration limits, which are set at 140 000, including accompanying family members.

Permanent humanitarian migrants were significant in permanent migration only in Canada and the United States and to a lesser extent in Brazil. In a number of countries, recognized refugees are given a temporary permit and may or may not proceed to permanent status depending on the evolution of the situation in their countries of origin.

Finally, the “other” category in 2010 subsumes a number of different types of movements, which include retired persons (Barbados, Ecuador and Mexico), regularizations (Brazil) and others of undetermined status.

Asylum seeking in the Americas⁴

For 2010-2011, approximately 13% of asylum requests were made in countries of the Americas, a figure which has been fairly stable over the decade (Table 2). About three quarters of the requests were made in the United States and Canada. Among countries in Latin America and the Caribbean,

Table 2: Asylum seekers in the Americas by country of asylum 2000 - 2011

Country of asylum	Average per year		Number			% change 2011/2010	Number per million population 2011
	2000- 2004	2005- 2009	2009	2010	2011		
Argentina	375	587	765	796	871	9	22
Belize	29	8	24	25	32	28	104
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	18	69	42	48	32	-33	3
Brazil	620	603	389	1 087	4 980	358	26
Canada	35 095	28 154	33 970	22 543	24 985	11	744
Chile	97	645	--	260	305	17	18
Colombia	16	148	372	161	109	-32	2
Costa Rica	2 775	763	1 184	991	964	-3	211
Cuba	57	22	10	23	6	-74	1
Ecuador	6 242	16 606	35 514	31 369	14 171	-55	1040
El Salvador	11	26	100	55	15	-73	2
Guatemala	38	32	31	15	21	40	1
Haiti	--	--	20	1	--	--	0
Honduras	60	48	38	68	9	-87	1
Jamaica	--	--	--	--	--	na	0
Mexico	326	508	680	1 039	753	-28	7
Nicaragua	17	91	272	120	39	-68	7
Panama	157	355	423	601	1 396	132	403
Paraguay	9	19	19	13	25	92	4
Peru	93	237	187	289	466	61	15
Saint Lucia			3	3	2	-33	11
Trinidad and Tobago			147	22	29	32	22
United States of America*	49 410	39 646	38 080	42 971	60 587	41	193
Uruguay	11	27	37	21	20	-5	6
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	928	2 418	2 873	3 450	3 176	-8	112
Total applications in the Americas	96 382	91 014	115 180	105 985	113 034	7	
Latin American and Caribbean	11 878	23 214	43 130	40 471	27 462	-32	
% in Latin America and Caribbean	12	25	27	28	24	na	
Total applications in the world	832 340	762 300	984 400	850 200	860 600	1	
% in Americas	12	12	12	12	13	na	
% in Canada and the United States	11	9	7	8	10	na	

Source: UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

* *United States of America*: figures from 2004 onwards refer to “affirmative” claims submitted with the Department of Homeland Security (number of cases) and “defensive” claims submitted to the Executive Office for immigration review.

it is Ecuador and to a lesser extent Costa Rica and Venezuela which have historically received the largest number of requests.

In absolute terms, the Americas received some 100,000 asylum requests per year over the decade, the figure for 2011 being about 113 000. This represented around 123 asylum requests for every one million residents in the Americas. Although the United States and Canada are in absolute terms the countries with the greatest number of requests, the number of requests per capita is highest in Ecuador, Canada, Panama, Costa Rica, the United States, and Venezuela.

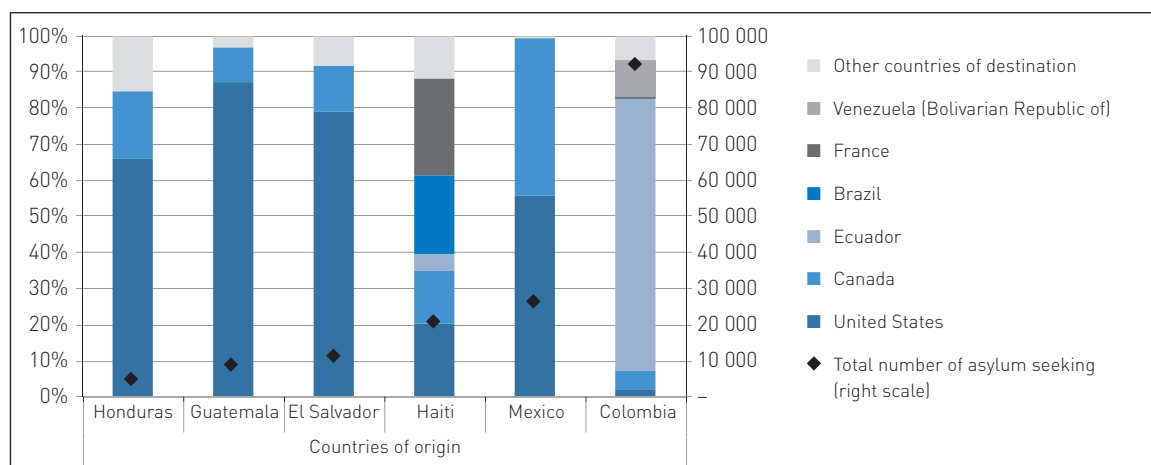
Asylum requests in the Americas increased some 7% in 2011 with respect to 2010. This rise reflects largely the balance between an increase of 41% of asylum requests in the United States and a decline of 55% in Ecuador. The drop in Ecuador arose as a result of the *Registro Ampliado* initiative, whose objective was to implement on the northern border a rapid system of review and resolution of asylum requests. Between March 2009 and 2010, 27 740 persons were recognized as refugees, providing an outlet to Colombian citizens fleeing their country as a consequence of the worsening of domestic conflict. By December 2011, it was estimated there were around 55,000 people in refugee conditions in Ecuador, of which some 98% were recognized refugees of Colombian nationality (UNHCR – Ecuador, 2012).

The origin of requests in the United States held steady in both years with around 40% from countries of the Americas and 60% originating in the rest of the world. Mexico, El Salvador, and Guatemala are the most represented countries in terms of asylum requests in the United States. Mexican asylum seekers increased some 214% in 2011 with respect to the previous year, one of the main causes being the growing violence principally in cities along the northern border between Mexico and the United States, which has motivated the use of asylum requests as an option for emigrating.

Brazil registered an almost fivefold increase in asylum requests in 2011 with respect to 2010, due for the most part to requests by Haitian citizens as a consequence of the 2010 earthquake in Haiti.

Ninety-seven percent of asylum requests from the Americas come from nationals of six countries, with Colombia, Mexico and Haiti accounting for the bulk of requests (Figure 3). Asylum seekers of Colombian origin make most of their requests in Ecuador, although recently other countries such as Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama, Peru, and Spain have agreed to resettle Colombians upon request by the Government of Ecuador.

Figure 3: Asylum seekers in the Americas, distribution of destinations for main countries of origin, 2009-2011



Requests from asylum seekers from other countries are made for the most part in the United States and to a lesser extent in absolute terms in Canada. Lastly, Haitians, for language reasons among other factors, have made more requests to France than to other countries, but Brazil, the United States and Canada have also received significant numbers of requests from that country.

Attention in recent years has been focused in Latin America on what are designated as “mixed migratory movements,” which refers to the fact that persons seeking refuge from persecution or conflict and those who migrate for economic reasons often use the same routes and employ the same means of travel (Crisp 2008), which in practice complicates the examination of asylum requests. The same phenomenon occurred after the fall of the Iron Curtain, when large numbers of economic migrants made use of the asylum channel as an entry route into Western Europe.

A number of “rules” have been developed in order to limit what are deemed to be unfounded requests, among them the safe-country-of-origin-rule and the safe-country-of-transit rules. The first of these refers to the fact that certain countries are deemed to be “safe” countries, where human rights are respected; asylum requests from such countries are then not accepted. The safe-country-of-transit rule asserts that persons seeking asylum should normally be making a request in the first “safe” country in which they arrive, rather than passing on to what might be considered a preferred country of destination.

Continents and main countries of origin of immigrants

For most countries in the Americas covered in this report, immigration is an American affair, that is, most immigrants, permanent and temporary combined, came from the Western Hemisphere (Table 3) in 2010. Only in Canada, the United States and Brazil did a majority of immigrants originate from outside the American continents.

Table 3: Total immigration in the Americas, by continent of origin, 2010

	Africa	Americas	Asia	Europe	Oceania	Not specified	Total distribution
Canada	8	24	45	18	2	2	100
United States	6	28	46	19	1	0	100
Brazil	4	44	19	32	0	0	100
Peru	1	53	18	27	0	0	100
Belize	10	63	24	3	0	0	100
Dominican Republic	0	67	8	24	1	0	100
Mexico	1	68	12	19	0	0	100
Ecuador	0	78	7	15	0	0	100
Panama	0	80	10	10	0	0	100
Peru	1	80	4	14	1	0	100
Argentina	0	81	0	16	0	3	100
Barbados	1	85	4	10	0	0	100
El Salvador	0	88	5	7	0	0	100
Chile	0	90	4	6	0	0	100
Costa Rica	0	90	4	6	0	0	100
Argentina	0	95	2	2	0	0	100
Average across countries	2	70	13	14	0	0	100

Sources: See table 1.

Notes: Includes both permanent and temporary migration.

Indeed for more than half of the countries in Table 3, more than 80% of immigrants came from other countries in the Americas. Linguistic differences can be a barrier for highly skilled migration, but tend to be less important for low-skilled migration, as the considerable movements from Mexico and Central America to the United States amply illustrate. Nonetheless the absence of language barriers between many of the countries of the region has no doubt facilitated movements in many cases.

Many of the observed movements are also between neighboring countries and have been stimulated by clauses in regional trade agreements which facilitate movements, in particular Mercosur, the Andean Pact, CARICOM and the Central American Common Market (MCCA). Nevertheless, movements within Latin America and the Caribbean were in 2010 only half the level of flows from the region to Canada and the United States, entry to which is subject to regulation and control. They illustrate well the predominance of economic motivations for migration.

Asia was the continent of origin for about 45% of immigrants to Canada and the United States, while immigrants from the rest of the Americas accounted for about one fourth of migrants to these two countries. The latter figures do not include unauthorized migration to the United States, but movements of this kind are estimated to have fallen to about 300 000 a year by 2009 from a peak of about 850 000 per year in the first half of the decade (Passel and Cohn 2010). Adding them in would still leave the movements from the rest of the Americas short of the total from Asian countries by about 150 thousand.

Three other countries (Belize, Brazil and Peru) showed percentages in the vicinity of 20% for Asian immigrants, but all other countries were close to or below 10%. European immigrants, on the other hand, constituted fully one-fourth to one third of all immigrants in Brazil, Peru and the Dominican Republic and close to 20% in Canada, Mexico and the United States.

Africa has almost negligible representation among immigrants in the Americas, with the exception of Belize (10%), Canada (8%), the United States (6%) and Brazil (4%).

The United States appears among the top ten countries of origin (Figure 4) in all countries of the Americas covered in the chart, without exception, and in the top five in all but two of them (Argentina and Barbados). China is also largely present among the top ten, although less prominently than the United States. The larger countries of Latin America, namely Colombia, Peru, Argentina, Brazil and Mexico, are present among the top ten countries of origin in around half of the countries of the region.

There was a strong concentration of migration in a number of destination countries in the region in 2010, with a single neighboring country accounting for some 40% to 50% of all entries into the countries, both temporary and permanent together. These included Argentina (from Paraguay), Barbados (from Guyana), Bolivia and Chile (from Peru) and Costa Rica (from Nicaragua). All of these consist of movements facilitated by regional trade agreements. This is also the case for movements between Canada, Mexico and the United States, often taking place in the context of NAFTA, although their importance relative to total movements in these countries is less significant.

The story thus in countries of the Americas, with the exception of Canada and the United States, remained in 2010 one of limited immigration, with most of it being regional in character, with the possible exception of Brazil and Peru whose movements, while low, were more geographically diverse. Despite the economic crisis and the difficult labor market conditions in OECD destination countries, movements continued towards these countries in 2010, a phenomenon which will be examined more closely further in this report.

Figure 4: Top ten countries of origin of international migrants, permanent and temporary, 2010

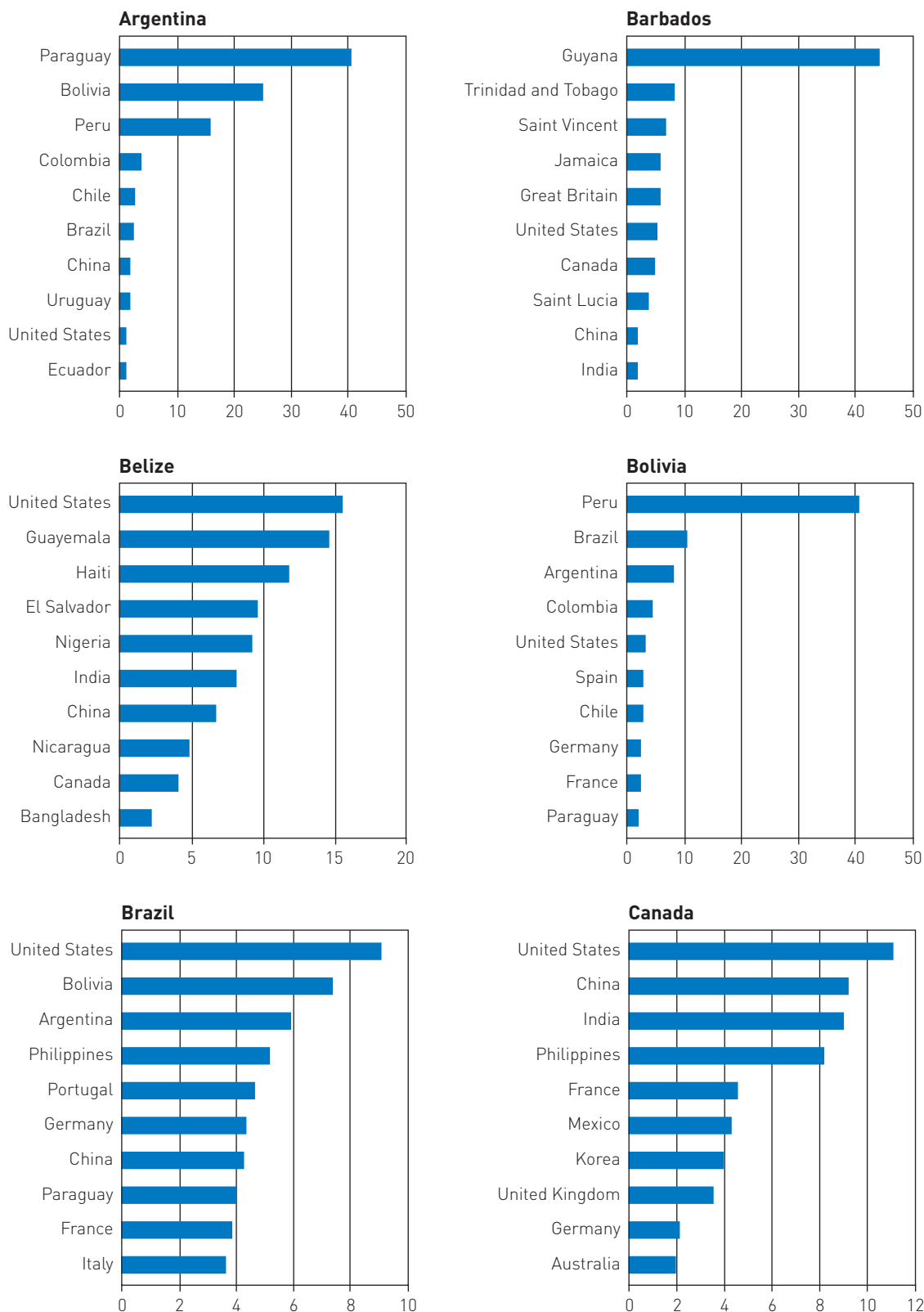


Figure 4: Continuation

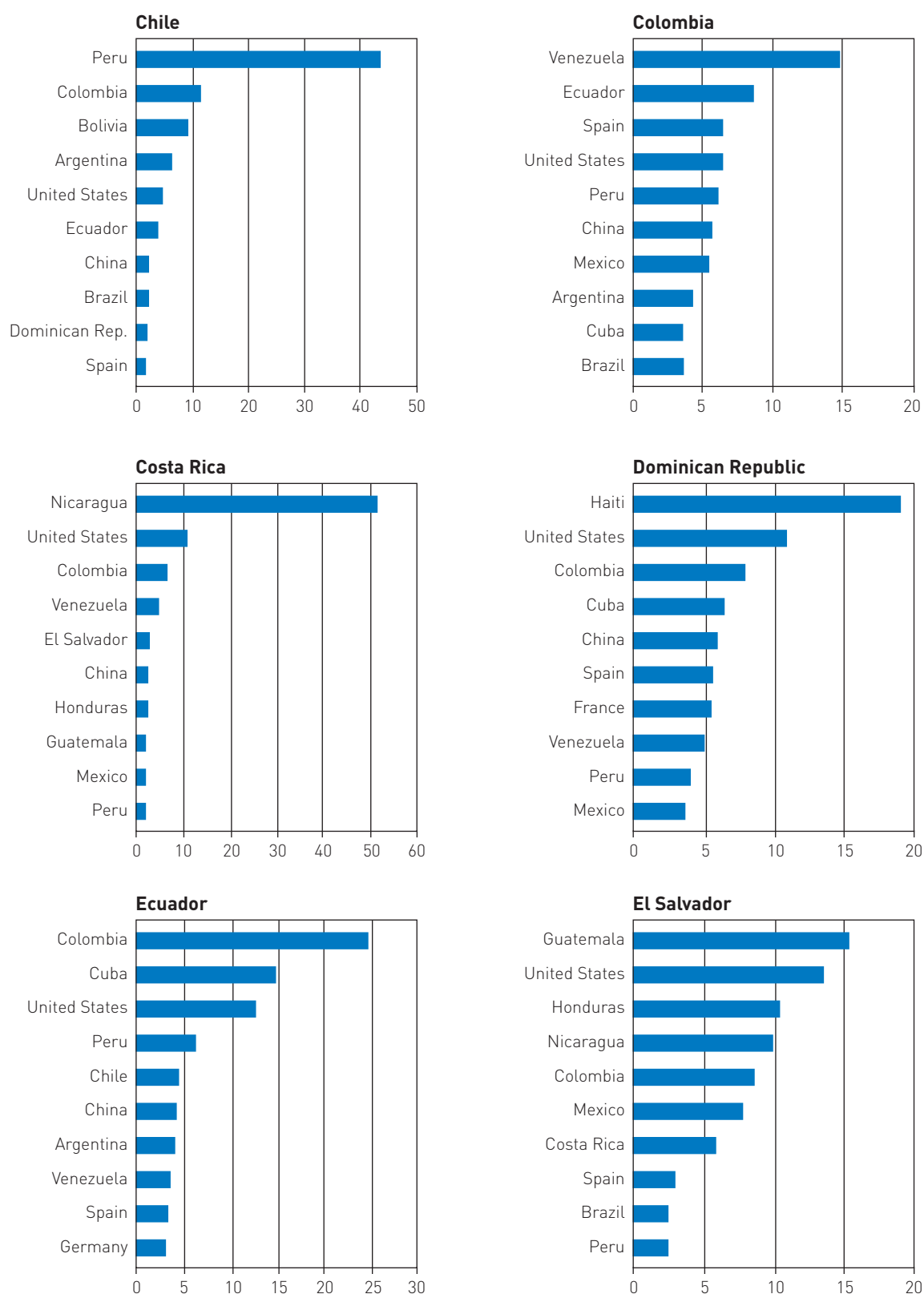
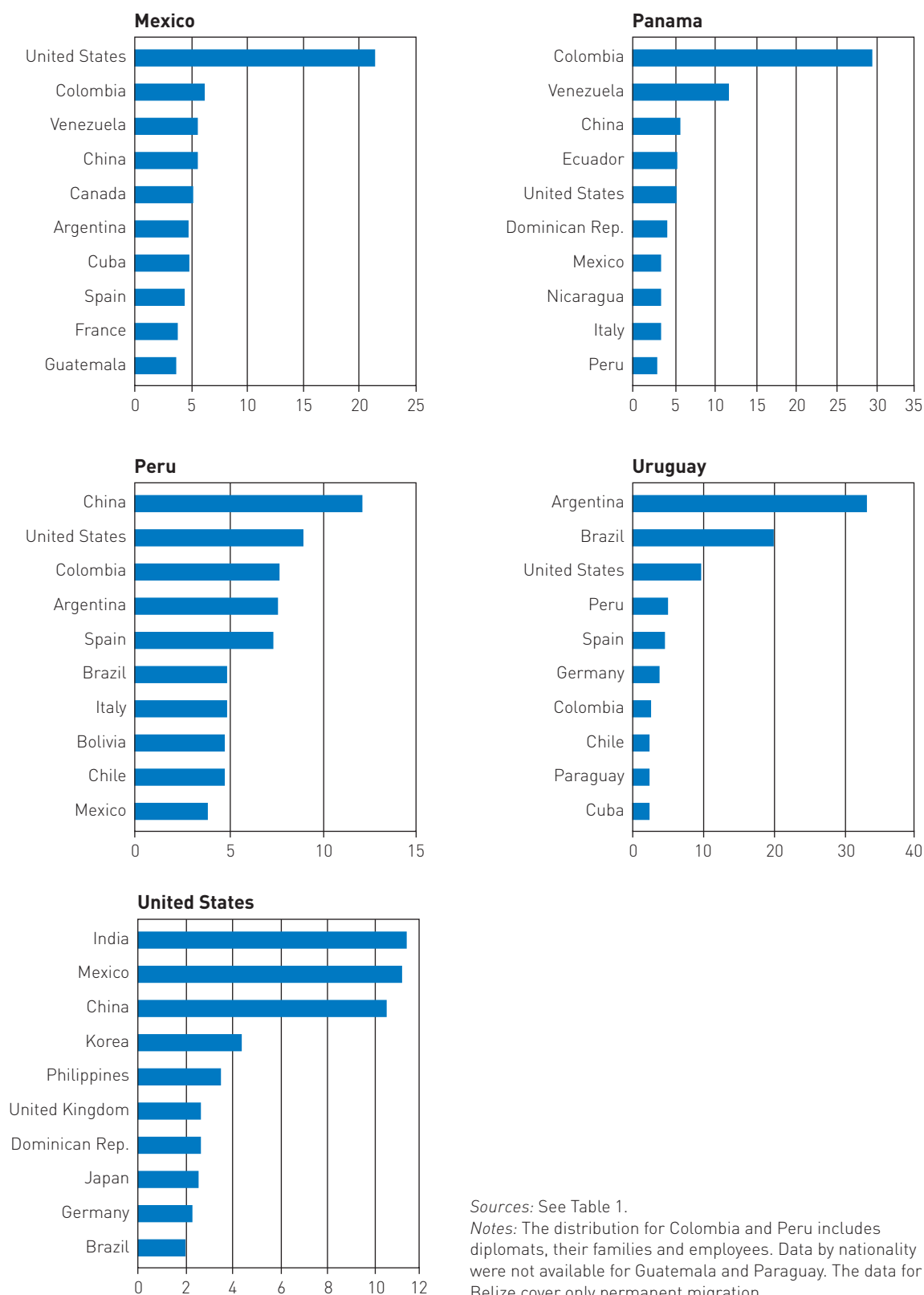


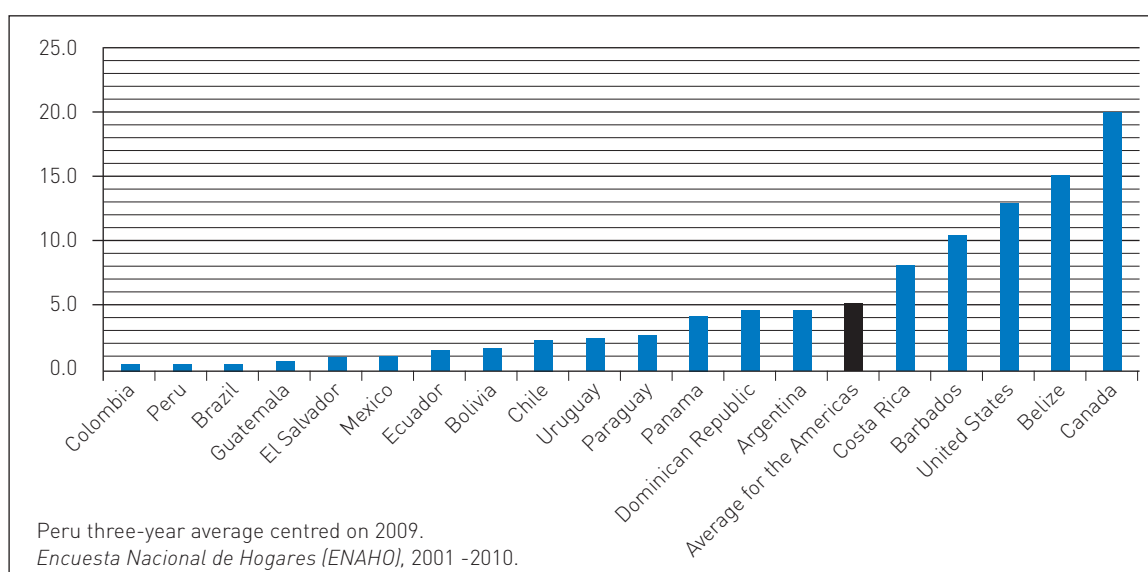
Figure 4: Continuation

The immigrant population

Historically, all countries of the Americas have seen migration movements, from Europe and Africa in particular, which have added significantly to their populations. After achieving independence, many countries in the region encouraged migration from Europe to bring in needed capital and labor for economic development. The World Wars and the Great Depression saw a major decline in movements, although large numbers of displaced persons arrived in many countries of the Americas following World War II. This was a temporary uptick, however, and movements remain limited thereafter. Few countries saw the scale of movements recorded in Northern America and Northern Europe, in the latter to support reconstruction efforts after the Second World War and their booming economies thereafter. Although labor migration in Europe was drastically reduced following the first oil crisis in the mid-seventies, family migration continued. Following the fall of the Iron Curtain, substantial humanitarian movements took place and labor migration resumed in many countries, at modest levels except in the former emigration countries of Ireland and the countries of Southern Europe, where low birth rates and a substantial increase in the educational attainment of youth created a market for immigrants in low- and medium-skilled jobs.

By contrast, none of these more recent developments occurred in Latin America and the Caribbean. Although economic growth has been strong, per-capita income levels remain low in most countries, and differences between neighboring countries are not often of a scale as to stimulate significant migration of workers in search of higher wages. One exception to this is Barbados, where per capita GDP (approximately \$US 15K in 2011) is significantly higher than that of several neighboring countries, which contribute in an important way to migration flows to Barbados, especially from Guyana (\$US 2.3K GDP/capita). With 10.9% of its population foreign-born, Barbados is one of three Latin American and Caribbean countries with an immigrant population above the region average. The other two are Costa Rica (8.0%) and Belize (15%), which have seen large movements of persons from zones of civil conflict in the region.

Figure 5: The foreign-born population as a percentage of the total population, 2010



The foreign-born population in all other countries stands at relatively modest levels, with only Argentina, Panama and the Dominican Republic showing an immigrant population exceeding 4

percent of their total population. Of these, only Argentina shows immigration levels recently of a scale as to suggest further increases in its immigrant population in the short- to medium-term.

The acquisition of nationality

With definitive settlement by immigrants in a country, the question of the acquisition of the nationality of their country of adoption almost inevitably arises, if for no other reason than the fact that it makes possible full political participation by immigrants in the life of the country. But it also makes hiring for the employer simpler and can conceivably motivate the immigrant to greater effort (OECD 2011). In addition, in some countries access to certain types of employment, especially in the public service, is restricted to persons holding the nationality of the country.

As might be expected, the number of acquisitions in Latin American and Caribbean countries tends to mirror the extent of permanent immigration (Table 4), that is, the higher the level of permanent or long-duration migration, the more persons acquire the nationality of the country.

Table 4: Acquisitions of nationality, selected countries, 2000-2010

								Ratio of 2010 value to 2006-2010 average	Ratio of acquisitions to permanent immigration (2005-2010)
	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010		
Belize ¹	2 330	900	1 560	1 610	1 550	760	--	0.6	1.8
Brazil		22 130	24 840	26 670	30 890	31 730	29 750	1.0	1.1
Canada	214 570	198 690	260 760	199 840	176 530	156 300	143 560	0.8	0.7
Chile	--	--	--	--	--	810	630	0.9	--
Colombia	60	120	150	130	130	50	100	0.9	0.1
Dominican Republic	--	380	570	770	630	910	1 190	1.5	0.3
El Salvador	--	--	--	--	40	40	30	0.9	0.1
Mexico	3 940	5 610	4 180	5 470	4 470	3 490	2 150	0.5	0.2
Peru		790	770	750	940	1 020	920	1.0	0.2
United States	888 790	604 280	702 590	660 480	1 046 540	743 720	619 910	0.8	0.7
Barbados	710	1 390	1 020	880	790	1 100	990	1.0	3.6
Bolivia		1 130	1 400	1 330	1 470	1 570	1 650	1.1	0.6
Costa Rica	1 730	1 600	1 710	1 810	2 190	2 360	3 350	1.5	0.3
Guatemala	390	390	410	440	470	510	550	1.2	0.4
Paraguay	110	10	40	20	10	10	10	0.8	0.0
Uruguay					180	170	210	1.2	0.1
Average of above countries								1.0	0.7

Notes: The data year for the first ratio is 2009.

The extent to which immigrants take out the nationality of the country of residence depends on a number of different factors, among them the time of residence in the country, whether the migration is intended to be permanent, the benefits which naturalization brings with respect to access to jobs or employer receptiveness, whether or not the origin and/or destination country allows dual

nationality and the regulatory framework surrounding the acquisition of nationality in the destination country. The ratio of the number of acquisitions to the number of permanent migrants can convey an indication of the “propensity” to acquire the nationality of the country of residence or of the difficulty or ease of obtaining it.⁵

Table 4 does suggest that there is a much lower tendency to take out the nationality of the host country among some countries in the Americas compared, say, to the situation in Canada and the United States, for which the standard pattern of migration is settlement followed by acquisition of nationality at a relatively brief interval thereafter. The ratio of acquisitions to permanent migration is about 0.7 for both these countries, whereas most Latin American and Caribbean countries in Table 3 show a ratio under 0.5. There are some exceptions to this, in particular Belize and especially Barbados, where the ratio of acquisitions to permanent migration is 1.8 and 3.6, respectively. These high ratios likely reflect requests for nationality by non-residents of these countries, on the basis of descent from a native Belizean or Barbadian.

Emigration from the Americas to OECD countries

As noted above, migration in the Americas continues to be largely an American affair, although more and more emigrants have been opting for Spain over the past decades. Italy, Germany, Canada and Chile⁶ have each admitted an estimated 300 to 400 thousand immigrants from the Americas over the past ten years [see Box 2].

Box 2: Statistics on emigrants from the Americas to OECD countries

The statistics shown in Table 5 are based on official national statistics of immigration for each OECD country. However, the definition of what constitutes a migrant in these countries is highly source - and country-dependent and may not reflect a comparable population in all countries. For example, in the United States the statistics of immigration incorporated in Table 5 essentially count persons who received “green cards” during a given year, that is, the right of permanent residence. Persons who entered the United States with a so-called “non-immigrant visa”, which includes temporary workers and students, among others, are not counted in this measure.

The German statistics, on the other hand, are based on municipal population registers and define as an immigrant a person who arrives with the intention of staying more than a certain period of time (generally 3 months or less) and who has a residence permit compatible with that intention. This measure of immigration clearly has a much broader coverage than the green-card measure, because it includes many short-term temporary movements as well as international students.

The statistics for Spain are also based on municipal registers and count as an immigrant anyone who arrives from abroad and registers his/her usual residence in the municipality. Unlike most municipal registers, however, those in Spain do not require that the person registering have legal status. Thus, entries into the register for Spain include unauthorized immigrants. Spain is perhaps the only country for which the statistics of immigration include unauthorized immigrants.

The OECD compiles a series of standardized statistics of permanent migration for its member countries, but this series is not yet available by nationality.

Because of the varying definitions used, summing the immigration statistics over OECD member countries, as was done in Table 5, can mean adding together statistics of significantly different coverage. The statistics presented in the table are meant to be indicative and should be interpreted with caution.

The economic crisis has had a substantial effect on migration from the Americas, in particular to Spain, reducing migration to that country by close to 36% between 2005-2007 and 2008-2010, from about 860 thousand to 550 thousand.

Legal flows to the United States, on the other hand, have decreased by barely 4%. Recall, however, that the flows statistics for the United States only cover green cards and it is more in the temporary flows to the United States and in unauthorized migration that one has seen the largest declines (OECD 2012). Many categories of green-card migration are subject to numerical limits and are highly oversubscribed, so that even a downturn as severe as the recent one has had little effect on movements. Persons who have earned a place in the queue may well be reluctant to pass it up, even if financing the migration may be more difficult.

The difficult economic conditions in Spain and the United States appear to have had the effect of redirecting some of the migration flows to other parts of the OECD. Emigration to other OECD countries outside of Europe⁷ has risen by 8% and to other countries of Europe by about 14%. One should not exaggerate the importance of this phenomenon, however. The total increase in movements to these two areas from 2005-2007 to 2008-2010 amounts to about 105 000, which offsets less than one third of the 360 000 decline one observes in Spain and the United States. In addition, a significant fraction of it concerns citizens of the United States, for whom difficult conditions in that country may be leading to more expatriation. Still, the increases in movements to parts of the OECD other than Spain and the United States are seen for most countries of origin of the Americas, which suggests that the phenomenon is indeed a general one. One notable exception is that of emigrants from Brazil to non-European countries of the OECD, which has declined by almost 60% and evidently reflects the drop in migration of persons of Japanese origins from Brazil to Japan.

The destination countries where movements from the Americas have especially increased are Mexico (+43K), Italy (+27K), Korea (+26K) and Chile (+17K). Movements to Mexico from all parts of the Americas, including the United States, have gone up from 2005-2007 to 2008-2010. Some of these have involved nationals of El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras, for whom Mexico, because of difficult conditions to the north, has perhaps become more of a destination than a transit country. The Andean Region accounts for most of the increase to Italy and about half that to Chile. Almost all of the increase to Korea has come from United States citizens, whose movements to that country have increased by more than 40%. These are undoubtedly highly qualified emigrants, since most lesser-skilled migrants to Korea tend to come from other Asian countries.

The largest declines in expatriation to OECD countries from 2005-2007 to 2008-2010 were observed for migrants from the Andean Region (down over 180 000 over the period) and from the Southern cone (also down by more than 180 000). Latin America has seen scarcely no change (-1%) in (legal) out-migration, and Mexico, the most significant expatriation country in the Americas, even saw a small increase in legal migration (of 3%). Caribbean countries have actually seen an 11% increase, largely due to migration from Haiti but especially the Dominican Republic, mostly to the United States.

The changes observed in migration movements as a result of the crisis may well have consequences for further movements in the near future. The “discovery” of opportunities elsewhere than in Spain and the United States means that migration communities of various origins are becoming more numerous, if only slightly so, in countries where they were perhaps less present before. This heightened presence tends to facilitate further movements, because of a better knowledge of employment opportunities for potential migrants in destination countries and of migration channels and procedures. Employers themselves may use current employees as a recruitment channel for other workers of the same origins.

Table 5: Emigration from the Americas to OECD countries, 2005-2007 and 2008-2010

Country/region of origin	United States			Spain			OECD outside of Europe (excluding US)				Europe excluding Spain			All OECD countries		
	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	
Canada	55 580	44 580	- 20	1 650	1 730	5	31 620	38 800	23	27 220	36 360	34	116 060	121 460	5	
United States	na	na	na	12 930	13 930	8	178 500	216 860	21	159 670	171 440	7	351 100	402 220	15	
Canada and the United States	55 580	44 580	- 20	14 580	15 650	7	210 120	255 650	22	186 880	207 800	11	467 160	523 680	12	
Antigua and Barbuda	1 430	1 240	- 13	10	<5	--	110	180	62	30	30		1 570	1 450	- 8	
Bahamas	2 280	2 090	- 9	10	<5	--	130	190	50	40	60	40	2 460	2 340	- 5	
Barbados	2 490	1 650	- 34	10	10	- 22	390	450	13	70	60	- 19	2 970	2 160	- 27	
Cuba	110 980	122 030	10	25 110	23 200	- 8	5 480	10 240	87	11 230	11 720	4	152 790	167 180	9	
Dominica	1 100	1 300	19	380	330	- 13	230	220	- 3	760	950	24	2 470	2 800	14	
Dominican Republic	93 600	135 160	44	44 930	36 940	- 18	1 700	3 860	127	9 670	13 810	43	149 890	189 770	27	
Grenada	2 660	2 200	- 17	10	<5	--	1 010	860	- 15	50	50	11	3 730	3 110	- 17	
Guyana	24 600	20 240	- 18	10	10	- 25	3 730	3 560	- 5	460	490	6	28 800	24 300	- 16	
Haiti	67 160	72 870	8	150	230	53	5 210	10 500	102	8 830	10 170	15	81 340	93 760	15	
Jamaica	62 700	60 090	- 4	30	50	36	6 220	7 640	23	540	680	26	69 490	68 450	- 1	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	1 150	1 010	- 12	<5	<5	--	40	90	124	20	20	40	1 200	1 120	- 7	
Saint Lucia	2 970	2 850	- 4	10	10	9	680	870	28	330	340	4	3 990	4 070	2	
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1 950	1 740	- 11	10		- 40	1 300	1 390	7	30	50	96	3 280	3 180	- 3	
Suriname	810	660	- 18	30	20	- 15	60	60	- 5	4 490	5 180	16	5 380	5 930	10	
Trinidad and Tobago	22 250	17 630	- 21	20	40	50	2 820	3 380	20	300	330	9	25 400	21 370	- 16	
Caribbean	398 120	442 750	11	70 710	60 840	- 14	29 100	43 480	49	36 830	43 930	19	534 750	590 990	11	
Belize	3 200	3 080	- 4	10	10	- 50	140	450	220	40	60	53	3 390	3 600	6	
Costa Rica	7 930	6 640	- 16	1 310	1 260	- 3	1 280	1 690	31	1 030	1 460	42	11 540	11 050	- 4	
El Salvador	74 270	58 370	- 21	3 460	3 110	- 10	2 270	5 440	140	1 510	3 360	122	81 510	70 280	- 14	
Guatemala	58 880	38 840	- 34	2 760	2 900	5	1 150	6 360	453	800	1 090	36	63 590	49 180	- 23	
Honduras	22 840	19 390	- 15	18 000	15 370	- 15	810	5 000	517	640	1 200	88	42 280	40 950	- 3	
Mexico	483 840	494 030	2	16 840	15 820	- 6	13 240	15 600	18	12 540	17 350	38	526 460	542 800	3	
Nicaragua	11 170	11 320	1	7 570	9 270	22	540	1 650	206	550	880	61	19 830	23 110	17	
Panama	6 150	5 020	- 18	1 570	1 300	- 17	670	1 570	134	450	530	17	8 840	8 410	- 5	
Central America	668 260	636 690	- 5	51 510	49 020	- 5	20 100	37 750	88	17 560	25 920	48	757 430	749 380	- 1	

Table 5: Continuation

Country/region of origin	United States			Spain			OECD outside of Europe (excluding US)						Europe excluding Spain			All OECD countries		
	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change	2005-2007	2008-2010	% change
Bolivia	8 810	7 530	- 15	174 540	30 990	- 82	10 850	15 840	46	4 200	8 970	114	198 400	63 330	- 68			
Colombia	101 910	80 470	- 21	102 290	85 810	- 16	27 290	39 820	46	14 780	18 750	27	246 270	224 850	- 9			
Ecuador	41 350	35 280	- 15	66 780	66 930	0	9 450	11 150	18	22 420	24 990	11	140 000	138 360	- 1			
Peru	55 090	46 390	- 16	69 010	57 470	- 17	113 270	106 200	- 6	21 630	37 380	73	259 010	247 430	- 4			
Venezuela	32 680	31 080	- 5	37 100	25 480	- 31	6 800	11 520	70	5 240	6 310	20	81 800	74 390	- 9			
Andean Region	239 840	200 740	- 16	449 720	266 680	- 41	167 670	184 530	10	68 260	96 400	41	925 480	748 360	- 19			
Argentina	20 050	15 530	- 23	70 310	33 950	- 52	17 030	19 760	16	10 850	9 960	- 8	118 240	79 210	- 33			
Brazil	48 870	39 150	- 20	93 300	53 600	- 43	95 190	39 820	- 58	86 850	81 880	- 6	324 210	214 460	- 34			
Chile	7 450	6 220	- 17	28 370	14 800	- 48	2 960	4 150	40	6 270	7 310	17	45 050	32 480	- 28			
Paraguay	1 780	1 480	- 17	58 180	45 940	- 21	2 500	3 390	36	1 240	1 800	45	63 690	52 600	- 17			
Uruguay	4 240	4 560	8	24 150	10 090	- 58	3 790	4 210	11	1 400	1 220	- 13	33 570	20 070	- 40			
Southern Cone	82 390	66 940	- 19	274 300	158 380	- 42	121 470	71 340	- 41	106 600	102 170	- 4	584 770	398 820	- 32			
Total	1 444 190	1 391 690	- 4	860 810	550 570	- 36	548 450	592 740	8	416 130	476 230	14	3 269 590	3 011 230	- 8			

Source: OECD Database on International Migration. See Statistical Annex for details.

Although economic conditions have become more difficult almost everywhere within the OECD zone, migration movements from the Americas have remained at a relatively high level, namely, more than 3 million persons for the three years ending in 2010. This represents a drop of only 8% compared to the level of movements in the three-year period prior to the economic crisis. Not even the most serious economic downturn since the Great Depression has managed to put much of a dent on migration movements, which continue and will undoubtedly expand as demographic imbalances in developed countries begin to make themselves felt more strongly.

The labor market situation of emigrants from the Americas in 2010-2011

Introduction

This section examines the labor market situation of emigrants from the Americas in destination countries of the OECD for which detailed information on the country of origin is available, namely the United States and most European countries⁸. The countries included in the analysis accounted for over 92 percent of the total number of emigrants from the Americas in OECD countries in 2005-2006⁹.

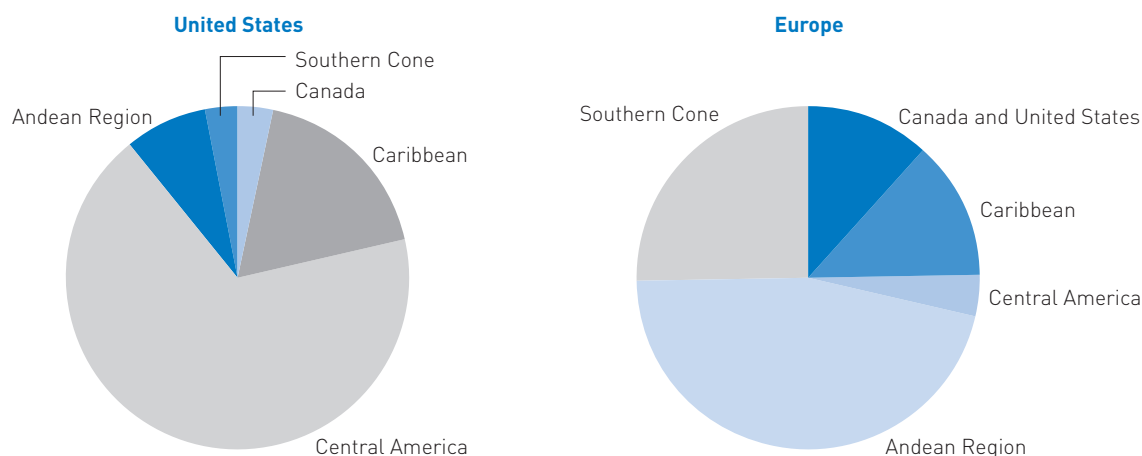
Migrants choose where to emigrate after assessing the potential benefits and costs of a move and its feasibility in terms of access and the possibility to stay, based on the information at their disposal. Perceived economic opportunities compared to those in the country of origin, the distance to it, and to a lesser degree, the language spoken are all important factors that influence the country of choice of emigration¹⁰. Information about economic opportunities is often relayed back to origin countries by migrants already present, who thus play an important role in helping to match employers and potential migrants. Migrants from the Americas, in particular, have to a great extent been labor migrants, as is evident in the favorable employment outcomes they have generally shown before the economic crisis. The latter has had a devastating effect on these outcomes, however, especially in Spain and the road back up risks being a long one. This section looks at recent evolutions with a view towards identifying recent trends.

Before examining in more detail the labor market situation of migrants from the Americas in destination countries, and in particular after 2009, we first look at some general geographic and demographic patterns of settlement.

Demographic and geographic patterns of settlement of emigrants from the Americas

The availability of economic opportunities and proximity have played an important role in determining the location of choice for emigrants from the Americas, with regard to the United States (Figure 6). Over two thirds of emigrants 15+ from the Americas living there in 2010-2011 were from Central America, followed by 18% from the Caribbean. Mexico, the bordering country, was the main country of origin, accounting for fully 54% of all emigrants from the Americas in the United States.

Emigrants from the Americas living in Europe were driven not only by economic prospects but also by language and culture similarities as well as ease of entry, since many have chosen Spain as their destination, where visas were not required for some origin countries until fairly recently (table 6). Most emigrants from the Americas in Europe are from the Andean region (46%), in particular Ecuador and Colombia, and the Southern Cone (25%).

Figure 6: Emigrants from the Americas in the United States and in Europe, by region of origin, 2010-2011

Notes: The population covered consists of persons 15+. Estimates are averages of monthly estimates for the United States and of quarterly estimates for the European Union Labor Force Survey.

Sources: Current Population Survey (United States) and European Union Labor Force Survey, 2010-2011.

Table 6: Age and gender distribution of emigrants from the Americas in the United States and in Europe, 2010-2011

	Gender distribution		Age distribution							Total
	Men	Women	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75+	
Canada	46	54	8	17	20	19	15	10	11	100
United States	48	52	14	22	23	18	13	6	5	100
Canada and United States	46	54	10	19	21	18	14	9	9	100
Antigua and Barbuda	51	49		3	5	35	22	24	12	100
Bahamas	43	57	23	17	27	17	11	3	3	100
Barbados	41	59	2	10	17	27	17	15	12	100
Cuba	48	52	8	10	18	20	16	13	14	100
Dominica	52	48	5	19	24	23	12	9	9	100
Dominican Republic	42	58	15	21	21	21	12	6	3	100
Grenada	50	50	5	13	19	24	15	13	10	100
Guyana	48	52	7	16	22	23	16	10	6	100
Haiti	46	54	12	18	23	22	14	6	5	100
Jamaica	42	58	8	15	19	23	17	11	8	100
Trinidad and Tobago	45	55	9	13	22	21	23	9	3	100
Caribbean	45	55	10	15	20	22	15	10	8	100
Belize	38	62	4	20	21	25	17	11	3	100
Costa Rica	53	47	7	28	17	22	12	10	4	100
El Salvador	51	49	11	26	29	20	9	3	2	100
Guatemala	57	43	15	34	23	15	8	3	2	100
Honduras	51	49	16	32	24	15	8	3	1	100
Mexico	55	45	13	26	27	18	10	4	2	100
Nicaragua	43	57	6	25	25	18	14	7	4	100
Panama	46	54	9	9	19	26	20	13	3	100
Central America	54	46	13	27	27	18	10	4	2	100

Table 6: Continuation

	Gender distribution		Age distribution							Total
	Men	Women	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75+	
Bolivia	45	55	14	40	25	14	5	2	0	100
Colombia	43	57	15	22	24	22	10	6	2	100
Ecuador	50	50	17	29	28	15	7	3	1	100
Peru	46	54	13	22	27	21	9	4	3	100
Venezuela	45	55	12	30	24	22	9	2	1	100
Andean Region	46	54	15	26	26	19	8	4	2	100
Argentina	50	50	11	22	25	20	12	6	4	100
Brazil	40	60	14	35	25	17	6	2	1	100
Chile	49	51	11	18	25	19	15	7	5	100
Paraguay	35	65	17	40	20	15	5	2	1	100
Uruguay	48	52	12	20	25	22	11	7	3	100
Southern Cone	45	55	12	28	25	18	9	4	3	100
All destination countries										
Born in Americas	50	50	12	24	25	19	11	5	4	100
Born elsewhere	48	52	10	21	23	19	13	8	6	100
Native-born	48	52	16	16	16	17	15	10	9	100
All Persons	48	52	15	17	17	17	15	10	8	100
United States										
Born in Americas	52	48	12	23	25	19	11	6	4	100
Born elsewhere	47	53	9	17	21	20	15	10	8	100
Native-born	48	52	19	16	15	18	15	9	8	100
All Persons	49	51	17	17	16	18	15	9	7	100
Spain										
Born in Americas	44	56	16	31	29	15	6	2	1	100
Born elsewhere	51	49	13	28	28	15	8	5	3	100
Native-born	49	51	12	16	18	17	14	11	11	100
All Persons	49	51	12	18	20	17	13	10	10	100

Notes and sources: See Figure 6.

Age, gender and region of destination of emigrants from the Americas

The majority of emigrants from the Americas in the United States and in Europe were of prime working age in 2010–2011 (Table 6.a).¹¹ Around half of the emigrant population aged 15 and over were between 25 to 44 years old, in contrast to the native-born population and to immigrants from the rest of the world, where the shares were 32% and 44%, respectively (See Box 3). The age distribution of Caribbean emigrants was somewhat less skewed; indeed this group includes older emigrants in proportions similar to what one finds among the native-born populations of destination countries. The more balanced age distribution of immigrants from the Caribbean reflects a more long-standing pattern of emigration, in which earlier arrivals have aged in their countries of adoption.

Table 6.a: Age distribution of emigrants from the Americas in the United States and in Europe, by gender, compared to the native-born, 2010-2011

United States					Europe				
	Men		Women			Men		Women	
75+	2.9	6.4	4.8	8.8	75+	2.2	7.7	2.9	11.6
65-74	4.9	8.8	6.9	9.4	65-74	3.1	10.4	3.4	11.5
55-64	10.5	15.4	12.0	15.4	55-64	7.1	15.3	7.9	15.3
45-54	18.8	18.1	19.8	17.7	45-54	15.9	17.3	17.3	16.6
35-44	25.1	15.3	24.0	15.0	35-44	26.5	17.6	26.9	16.4
25-34	25.3	16.6	21.4	15.9	25-34	27.9	16.5	28.6	14.9
15-24	12.6	19.5	11.1	17.9	15-24	17.3	15.2	13.0	13.7
Total	100	100	100	100	Total	100	100	100	100

Notes: The population covered are those aged 15 years old or more in the United States and the European Union. Estimates are averages of monthly estimates for the United States and of quarterly estimates for the European Union Labor Force Survey.

Sources: Current Population Survey (United States) and European Union Labor Force Survey, 2010-2011.

The demographic differences between emigrants and the native-born in 2010-2011 was even more marked in Spain, where fully three fifths of immigrants from the Americas were 25-44, as opposed to 34% of the native-born. This reflects the more recent nature of migration to Spain, with fewer older immigrants than, for example, in the United States, which has a longer history of immigration in the 20th century.

To countries in the throes of population ageing, immigration of young workers can bring a needed boost to the size of the work force, as more and more of the large post-war baby-boom cohorts make their way into retirement over the next decades. The economic crisis has put a brake on labor migration movements, however, and there is considerable slack in the labor markets of destination countries to reabsorb before demographic imbalances can begin to reassert themselves, which they will likely do by the end of the decade. On average the size of the working-age population is expected to increase by barely 1% on average by the year 2020 in OECD countries, compared to almost 8% over the 2000-2010 decade. In the United States it is expected to still increase by 6%, but this is half the rate of the previous decade and in Spain by barely 3%, compared to almost 15% over the 2000-2010 period.

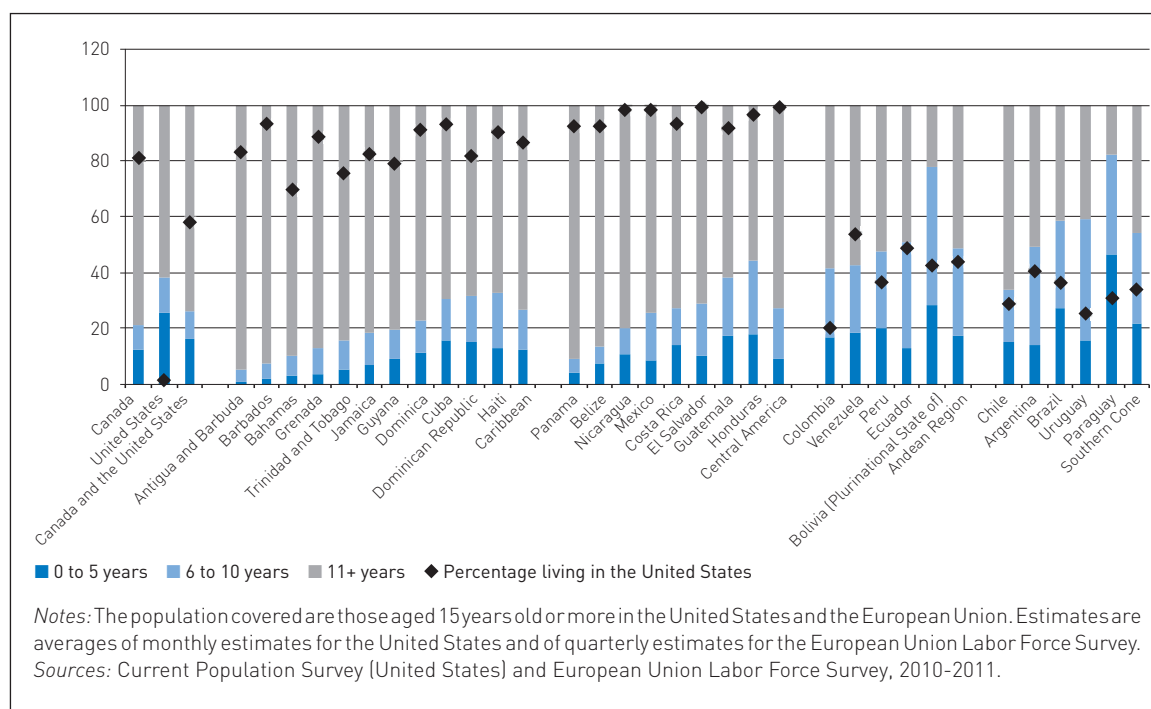
Migration in the past was often perceived as something which men do, bringing in their families after they become established. As is well known, this pattern is no longer true. The population of emigrants from the Americas aged 15 years or plus were about equally divided into men and women in 2010-2011. However, the share of women and men was different among regions and countries of origin. A higher share of men was observed among emigrants from most countries in Central America, in particular from Guatemala and Mexico. Among the emigrant populations in all other regions of the Americas, a different pattern has emerged, with women largely predominating.

Most emigrants from the Americas (82%) in 2010-11 resided in the United States (Figure 7). The share of emigrants from Central America and the Caribbean living in the United States was even higher than this, and reached 99% in the case of emigrants from Mexico. On the other hand, emigrants from South America resided more in Europe than in the United States. In 2010-2011 56% of emigrants from the Andean region and 65% of emigrants from the Southern Cone lived in Europe. Spain accounted for most of the emigrants in Europe (57%); this was especially the case for those from Paraguay (95%), Bolivia (92%), Uruguay (87%), Ecuador (84%) and Colombia (81%).

The emigrant population from the Americas in the United States in 2010-2011 has lived in that country longer on average than those living in Europe. Almost three-quarters of expatriates from the

Americas in the United States have been there longer than 10 years. This includes many unauthorized migrants,¹² most of whom have become established in that country. Emigration to Europe, and in particular to Spain and the other countries of southern Europe, is more recent, with only 43% of migrants having arrived more than 10 years ago. Migration from Bolivia and Paraguay is especially recent, more than 90% having arrived within the last ten years. Between 58% to 67% of the emigrants from Argentina, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Brazil and Uruguay arrived in Europe between 2000 and 2010. Migration from the Caribbean, much of it to the United Kingdom, is more long-standing.

Figure 7: Duration of residence in OECD countries of immigrants from the Americas and % living in the United States, 2010-2011



The European continent thus has opened up as a significant new destination point for migrants from the Americas over recent decades, especially for the residents of South America. Spain alone admitted more than 5 million new immigrants over the 2000-2010 decade, which corresponds to almost 12% of its population in the year 2000. Almost 2 million of these were from the Americas. The Great Recession of 2008-2009 especially devastated the economy of Spain; that of the United States, where an even greater percentage of migrants from the Americas were living, was also strongly affected. Particularly hard hit was the construction sector where many immigrants were working. Job opportunities are now far more scarce and competition from unemployed native-born workers more intense. This is reflected in the labor market outcomes of migrants from the Americas, which will be examined more closely in a subsequent section.

Educational attainment of the emigrant population from the Americas

The emigration of highly-skilled individuals is often perceived by origin countries as a brain drain, a loss of skills needed to promote economic growth and development in their countries. Nevertheless, there may be factors which offset the drain, which can even become a brain gain if individuals return or if they transfer money and skills back home (OECD, 2012b). In addition, the prospect of

Box 3: Comparing characteristics of migrants from the Americas to natives and migrants born elsewhere

In comparing labor market outcomes of emigrants from the Americas to those of the native-born or of migrants born elsewhere in the United States and in Europe, one needs to bear in mind that most emigrants from the Americas (92%) are concentrated in the United States and Spain. By comparison, only 45% of immigrants from other regions of the world reside in the United States and in Spain. These two countries also account for about 48% of the population of OECD countries. In other words, if one compares labor force outcomes of migrants from the Americas to those of the native-born or to migrants from other parts of the world in destination countries, the statistics for the native-born will tend to be affected by countries where there are few immigrants from the Americas. In consequence, measured differences in outcomes between migrants from the Americas and other persons may not necessarily reflect the differences which most migrants from the Americas experience or perceive in practice, which, to a great extent, are based on what is happening in just two countries.

This section will report, in addition to the statistics over all countries for the native-born, for migrants born in the Americas and for migrants born elsewhere, the corresponding statistics for the three groups in the United States and Spain, the countries where most migrants from the Americas live.

migration can induce a higher share of the resident population to invest in education than if such a prospect did not exist (Beine, Docquier and Rapoport 2008). However, if the possibility of migration can act as a spur to investment in education by residents, this will remain true only if expatriation does not exceed a certain limit.

Among emigrants from the Americas, one in three had a low educational level (less than upper secondary) in 2010-2011 (Table 7), compared to 15% with a high level (tertiary). Emigrants from Central American countries like Mexico, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras had the lowest share of highly-educated persons (7% on average). Emigrants from the Americas in the United States had much lower educational attainment levels than the native-born or other migrants. This was not the case in Spain, however, where the percentage of low-educated persons is higher for both other migrants (+6) and the native-born (+14) than for migrants from the Americas.

The north-south divide with regard to destinations for immigrants from the Americas¹³ is paralleled by differences in the educational level of the emigrating populations from the two regions. Immigrants in the United States showed fewer persons at both the low end and the high end of the educational attainment distribution in 2010-2011 compared to those who lived in Spain.

In most countries the share of tertiary-educated among emigrants from the Americas is higher than among the resident population in the countries of origin (Figure 8). This is generally typical of expatriate populations, with those having higher education being more equipped to learn about job opportunities and to finance the migration than persons with low education. However, relative returns to migrating may be higher for the low-educated than for the highly educated, which can overcome the cost barrier if the migration can be financed through, for example, loans.

The United States, Canada and Venezuela have the highest share of tertiary-educated persons among their emigrant populations, at fully 60% in the case of the United States and about 45% for the other two countries.

Table 7: Distribution of educational attainment by level of emigrants from the Americas, by gender and country of origin, 2010-2011

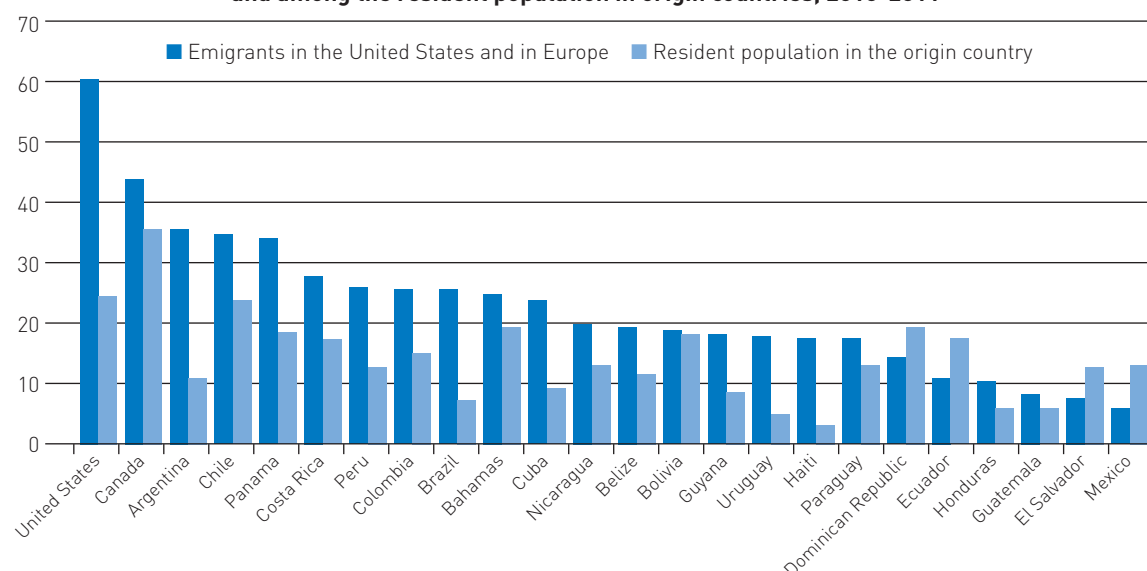
	All			Men			Women		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Canada	6	50	44	7	47	47	6	52	42
United States	11	29	60	11	29	59	11	28	61
Canada and United States	8	44	48	8	42	50	7	46	47
Antigua and Barbuda	17	59	25	23	74	4	11	45	44
Bahamas	9	66	25	12	56	32	6	75	19
Barbados	11	54	35	11	53	36	12	55	33
Cuba	17	59	24	16	58	26	19	59	22
Dominica	19	62	19	16	60	24	23	63	14
Dominican Republic	27	59	15	24	62	14	29	56	15
Grenada	17	68	14	18	69	13	16	68	16
Guyana	11	71	18	11	74	15	11	68	21
Haiti	17	65	18	13	68	19	20	63	17
Jamaica	12	66	23	13	69	18	11	63	26
Trinidad and Tobago	7	66	26	7	69	24	7	64	29
Caribbean	17	62	21	16	64	20	19	60	21
Belize	6	74	20	5	80	15	7	70	22
Costa Rica	18	54	28	16	54	30	19	55	26
El Salvador	39	53	8	40	52	7	37	54	8
Guatemala	43	48	8	44	48	8	43	48	9
Honduras	43	47	11	45	45	10	40	49	11
Mexico	44	50	6	44	50	5	44	49	7
Nicaragua	15	65	20	14	65	21	16	65	19
Panama	3	63	34	5	58	37	2	67	31
Central America	43	50	7	43	51	6	42	50	8
Bolivia	34	47	19	31	50	19	36	45	19
Colombia	21	53	26	19	54	26	23	52	25
Ecuador	42	46	11	43	47	10	42	46	12
Peru	22	52	26	21	54	25	24	49	27
Venezuela	15	40	45	15	38	46	15	41	44
Andean Region	28	49	23	28	50	22	29	48	23
Argentina	24	41	36	26	42	32	21	39	40
Brazil	27	48	26	27	51	22	26	46	28
Chile	22	43	35	21	44	35	23	42	35
Paraguay	40	42	17	43	42	16	39	43	19
Uruguay	37	45	18	36	48	16	37	43	20
Southern Cone	27	44	29	27	46	27	26	43	30
All destination countries									
Born in Americas	33	51	15	34	52	14	33	51	17
Born elsewhere	28	41	31	27	40	32	29	41	30
Native-born	25	52	23	24	53	23	25	51	24
All Persons	25	51	24	24	52	23	26	50	24

Table 7: Continuation

	All			Men			Women		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
United States									
Born in Americas	33	55	13	34	54	12	32	55	14
Born elsewhere	9	49	41	8	48	44	11	51	38
Native-born	6	68	26	6	68	26	5	68	26
All Persons	8	66	26	9	65	26	8	66	26
Spain									
Born in Americas	43	35	22	44	36	20	42	35	23
Born elsewhere	49	28	23	50	27	23	47	29	24
Native-born	57	18	25	56	19	25	58	17	25
All Persons	55	20	25	55	21	25	56	20	25

Notes: By low, medium and high are meant less than upper secondary, upper secondary and tertiary attainment, respectively. See also Figure 6.

Sources: Current Population Survey (United States) and European Union Labor Force Survey, 2010-2011.

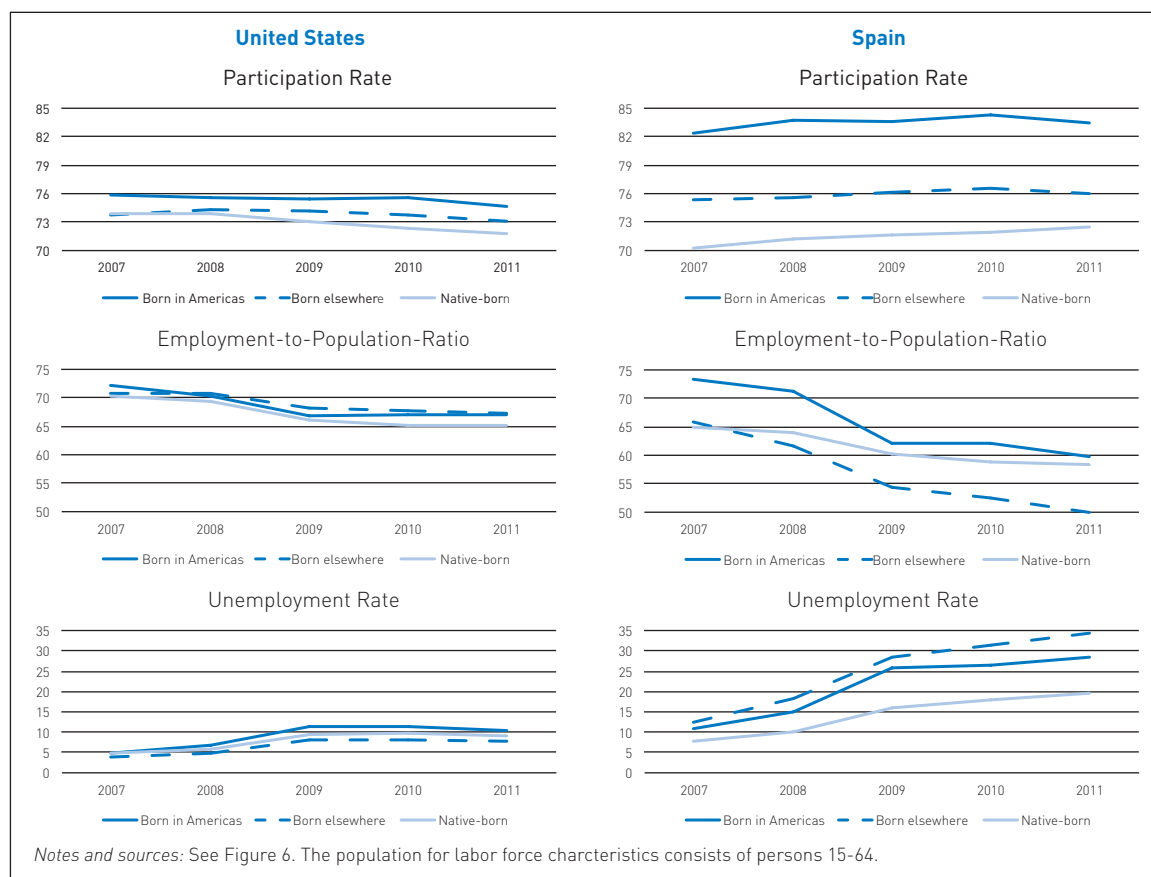
Figure 8: Share of tertiary educated among emigrants from the Americas in the United States and Europe and among the resident population in origin countries, 2010-2011

Notes: The population covered are those aged 15 years old or. Estimates for emigrants from the Americas are averages of monthly estimates for the United States, of quarterly estimates for the European Union Labor Force Survey. Estimates for the resident population in the origin countries correspond to the projected proportion of tertiary educated using IIASA/VID data. Sources: Current Population Survey (United States) and European Union Labor Force Survey, 2010-2011. IIASA educational attainment projections (2010).

Labor market outcomes of emigrant workers from the Americas

2010 and 2011 have seen some initial small signs of recovery in many OECD countries, but the overall situation of immigrants from the Americas in the labor market cannot be said to have improved greatly. Figure 9 shows the evolution of the labor market situation of emigrants from the Americas from 2007 to 2011 in the two economies in which emigrants from the Americas are concentrated. In both countries migrants were employed in sectors where economic activity is more cyclical, such

Figure 9: Evolution of labor force outcomes in the United States and in Spain, by birth status and gender 2007-2011



as construction, hospitality and retail trade, and were more likely to be in temporary jobs (not renewed if economic prospects deteriorate) or with less seniority.

Signs of a slight increase in employment and a decline in unemployment after 2009 among emigrants from the Americas in the United States are visible. The situation is not the same in Spain, where the labor market outcomes of migrants continue to deteriorate, although less so among emigrants from the Americas than among migrants from elsewhere. Indeed the evolution of employment and unemployment in Spain among emigrants from the Americas is now parallel to that of native-born Spaniards. At the onset of the crisis, it was more similar to that other migrants. This may reflect the fact that emigrants from the Americas were initially as susceptible to job loss as other migrants but that they enjoy certain advantages, for example linguistic, when they attempt to re-integrate the labor market following the loss of a job. Although they admittedly remain much more unemployed than the native-born, their outcomes have begun to diverge (favorably) from those of other migrants.

This general overview masks the situation for individual countries and groups, which is given in Table 8. Some shading has been introduced to aid in the reading of the results. A gray shade indicates that the indicator in question has increased (participation rate, employment-participation ratio) or decreased (unemployment rate) by at least one percentage point from 2009-2010 to 2010-2011. That is, gray indicates what can be considered a positive development. A blue shade, on the other hand, indicates the reverse, a change for the worse.¹⁴ Estimates have had to be averaged to

Table 8: Labor market outcomes of emigrant workers from the Americas, by country of birth and gender, 2009-2010 and 2010-2011 averages

	2009-2010						2010-2011					
	Men			Women			Men			Women		
	Participation rate	Employment-population ratio	Unemployment rate	Participation rate	Employment-population ratio	Unemployment rate	Participation rate	Employment-population ratio	Unemployment rate	Participation rate	Employment-population ratio	Unemployment rate
Canada	84	78	8	70	66	5	84	77	8	68	64	5
United States	79	73	7	64	59	8	80	75	6	62	57	8
Canada and United States	83	76	8	68	64	6	83	77	7	66	62	6
Antigua and Barbuda	83	69	17	78	75	3	nr	nr	nr	81	76	6
Bahamas	89	82	8	51	43	17	89	85	5	64	52	19
Barbados	86	76	11	80	77	4	90	78	13	79	75	5
Cuba	83	72	14	67	57	15	84	72	15	69	58	16
Dominica	73	63	14	76	65	14	73	65	10	68	61	11
Dominican Republic	81	66	18	69	58	16	82	67	18	68	57	16
Grenada	86	81	6	78	74	5	89	85	5	73	61	16
Guyana	81	71	13	74	69	7	82	72	12	70	64	9
Haiti	80	68	15	72	63	12	80	68	14	70	60	14
Jamaica	83	71	15	79	72	9	84	70	17	79	71	10
Trinidad and Tobago	78	62	21	73	66	9	83	72	13	74	64	13
Caribbean	82	69	15	71	63	12	83	70	15	71	62	14
Belize	80	73	9	68	59	13	94	75	20	71	57	20
Costa Rica	92	86	7	59	55	7	89	80	10	58	52	10
El Salvador	91	81	12	69	61	12	91	82	10	68	61	11
Guatemala	92	81	12	61	52	14	91	82	10	61	53	14
Honduras	89	74	16	71	61	14	87	75	13	67	57	15
Mexico	89	79	11	54	47	13	89	80	10	53	47	12
Nicaragua	89	76	14	73	64	13	88	78	11	70	59	16
Panama	80	75	7	74	66	10	75	68	10	75	67	11
Central America	89	79	11	57	50	13	89	80	10	56	49	12
Bolivia	91	69	24	86	73	15	91	68	26	85	74	13
Colombia	87	70	19	75	62	18	87	71	18	76	61	19
Ecuador	86	66	24	77	64	18	85	66	23	77	63	19
Peru	85	72	16	77	66	14	83	69	17	77	64	16
Venezuela	87	73	16	69	57	17	88	76	13	68	57	16
Andean Region	87	69	20	76	64	16	86	69	20	76	63	18
Argentina	88	74	17	72	60	16	87	73	16	72	60	17
Brazil	87	78	11	71	61	14	88	79	10	69	59	15
Chile	87	75	13	72	63	13	88	76	14	72	62	13
Paraguay	86	73	15	87	78	10	86	73	15	86	75	13
Uruguay	91	73	20	70	59	15	86	67	22	69	57	18
Southern Cone	88	75	14	72	62	14	87	75	14	72	61	15
All destination countries												
Born in Americas	88	76	13	64	56	13	87	77	12	64	55	14
Born elsewhere	82	73	12	64	56	11	82	72	12	64	56	12
Native-born	77	70	10	66	60	9	77	69	10	66	60	9
All Persons	78	70	10	66	60	9	78	70	10	65	59	10
United States												
Born in Americas	88	78	11	61	54	11	88	79	10	61	54	12
Born elsewhere	83	75	9	66	61	8	82	75	8	65	60	8
Native-born	77	69	11	68	63	8	76	68	10	68	62	9
All Persons	79	70	11	68	62	9	78	70	10	67	61	9
Spain												
Born in Americas	87	61	30	81	63	23	87	60	31	82	61	25
Born elsewhere	87	60	31	64	46	29	86	58	33	66	44	33
Native-born	80	67	16	64	52	18	79	65	18	65	52	20
All Persons	81	66	19	65	53	20	81	64	21	66	52	21

Notes and sources: See figure 6 and figure 8. "nr" means not reliable. Gray cell shading indicates cells where the cell value has increased (participation rate and employment/population ratio) or decreased (unemployment rate) by at least one percentage point from 2009-2010 to 2010-2011. The reverse situation is conveyed by blue shading. Since the two periods have 2010 in common, this essentially reflects changes from 2009 to 2011.

ensure sufficient sample sizes to produce more reliable estimates of change. However, because the averages have a year in common (2010), the measured change essentially reflects the change from 2009 to 2011, attenuated by a no-change situation for the common year.

In the aggregate, it is apparent, as was seen earlier, that the changes observed from 2009-2010 to 2010-2011 are limited both overall and in the United States, but not so in Spain. There, the labor market situation of all groups except emigrant men from the Americas has deteriorated from 2009 to 2011, except for participation rates, which have generally maintained themselves for all groups and even increased among women.

For women from many countries of the Americas, labor market outcomes have taken an unfavorable turn. This is especially the case with respect to employment and unemployment outcomes, while participation has been more resilient. On the other hand, there are signs of an improving labor market for Caribbean men in particular and to a somewhat lesser extent, for men from Central America. This reflects, to some extent, improvements in the economy of the United States. The gains, however, are modest; they do not appear significant when one totals over all emigrants from the Americas in the United States, undoubtedly because the situation of the largest group, migrants from Mexico, has improved only a little. This is the case for women as well, despite the large number of origin countries for whom the outcomes of emigrant women have declined.

The labor market situation of emigrants from the Americas thus seems to have stabilized overall, compared to the strong deterioration one saw from 2007 to 2009. There are some countries which have been less “penalized”, partly because of their concentration in the United States, where the downturn has not been as severe as it was in Spain. With the debt crisis adding to the economic downturn in Spain, the labor market situation there shows little signs of improvement. However, the trend in outcomes for emigrants from the Americas in Spain now seems to be tracking like that of native-born Spaniards, which is a positive sign for the future. It suggests that employers are not distinguishing, or distinguishing less, in rehiring between the native-born and other hispanophones.

The economic situation in the United States is also showing some small positive signs for emigrants from the Americans who are living there. Participation rates remain very high and the employment and unemployment situations appear to be improving slightly more for emigrants, particularly men, from the Americas than for the native-born or for other migrants. However, labor market outcomes for emigrant women from the Americas are declining in the United States, as elsewhere. The labor market situation remains difficult generally and a return to the economic conditions of 2007 is not yet on the horizon.

Education and unemployment among workers from the Americas

In almost all countries, unemployment tends to be more prevalent among low- than among high-educated workers,¹⁵ and this is generally the case whether workers are native-born or foreign-born. This is also true for workers from Latin America living in OECD countries (Table 9). The differences range overall from 4 percentage points between high- and low-educated workers from the Americas (7% vs 11%) in the United States to 14 percentage points in Spain (22% vs 36%). Interestingly, these differences are smaller than those observed between high- and low-educated native born, which are 18 percentage points in the United States and 16 percentage points in Spain. The reason is that although highly educated immigrant workers tend to have less favorable economic outcomes than highly educated native-born workers, the reverse is generally true for the low-educated. This is a phenomenon that is observed in almost all countries.

Table 9: Unemployment rate among emigrant workers from the Americas, by country of birth, gender and educational level, 2010-2011

	Men			Women		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Canada	15	10	5	10	6	5
United States	10	8	5	12	8	8
Canada and United States	13	10	5	10	6	6
Antigua and Barbuda	nr	nr	nr	nr	nr	nr
Bahamas	nr	nr	nr	nr	26	nr
Barbados	nr	16	9	nr	8	nr
Cuba	33	14	12	23	18	11
Dominica	nr	15	nr	nr	16	nr
Dominican Republic	29	15	15	23	15	11
Grenada	nr	7	nr	nr	23	nr
Guyana	24	13	5	1	14	4
Haiti	29	14	9	23	13	12
Jamaica	19	17	13	11	10	9
Trinidad and Tobago	nr	16	4	nr	15	9
Caribbean	27	15	11	20	14	9
Belize	nr	24	nr	nr	24	nr
Costa Rica	20	5	14	nr	11	4
El Salvador	10	10	5	12	10	10
Guatemala	9	11	11	16	16	4
Honduras	15	13	9	16	14	13
Mexico	10	10	5	14	12	8
Nicaragua	10	12	7	11	17	15
Panama	nr	10	10	nr	11	12
Central America	10	10	6	14	12	9
Bolivia	32	23	22	15	12	13
Colombia	33	17	10	28	18	14
Ecuador	30	17	17	23	16	14
Peru	28	15	13	18	16	15
Venezuela	19	18	8	21	16	14
Andean Region	30	17	12	22	16	14
Argentina	28	15	9	29	19	12
Brazil	17	10	4	23	13	10
Chile	25	11	12	16	16	9
Paraguay	18	13	10	10	15	15
Uruguay	28	20	16	23	13	19
Southern Cone	23	13	8	21	15	11
All destination countries						
Born in Americas	14	12	9	17	13	10
Born elsewhere	19	12	7	20	12	8
Native-born	16	10	5	16	10	5
All Persons	16	11	5	17	10	6
United States						
Born in Americas	11	11	7	14	12	7
Born elsewhere	16	11	6	11	9	6
Native-born	23	13	5	22	10	4
All Persons	15	12	5	17	10	5
Spain						
Born in Americas	36	29	22	26	26	21
Born elsewhere	41	29	20	43	30	21
Native-born	25	15	9	28	20	12
All Persons	28	19	11	29	22	13

Notes and Sources: See Figures 6 and 8.

Highly educated immigrant workers need to have a good level of linguistic competence in order to mobilize their skills and qualifications in a high-skilled job. In addition employers tend to prefer workers whose qualifications or experience were obtained in the country rather than abroad.¹⁶

Low-educated migrants workers, however, tend to be a self-selected group, willing to take risks and often to take on work which some native-born workers may prefer to forego. In addition, because of inequality of educational opportunities or social disadvantage, their education level may not necessarily reflect their innate ability. Finally, if their status in the destination country is uncertain (for example, if they are unauthorized), they may not have access to social transfers. In practice this means that they can less afford to be unemployed or have the luxury to spend long periods looking for acceptable work because other sources of income may not be available to them. This translates into high employment and lower unemployment rates than would otherwise be the case.

The unemployment situation of low-educated migrants in Spain is especially difficult, averaging almost 40%, with a lower rate for women from the Americas (26%) than for men (36%). In the United States the corresponding figures for women and men are 14% and 11% respectively.

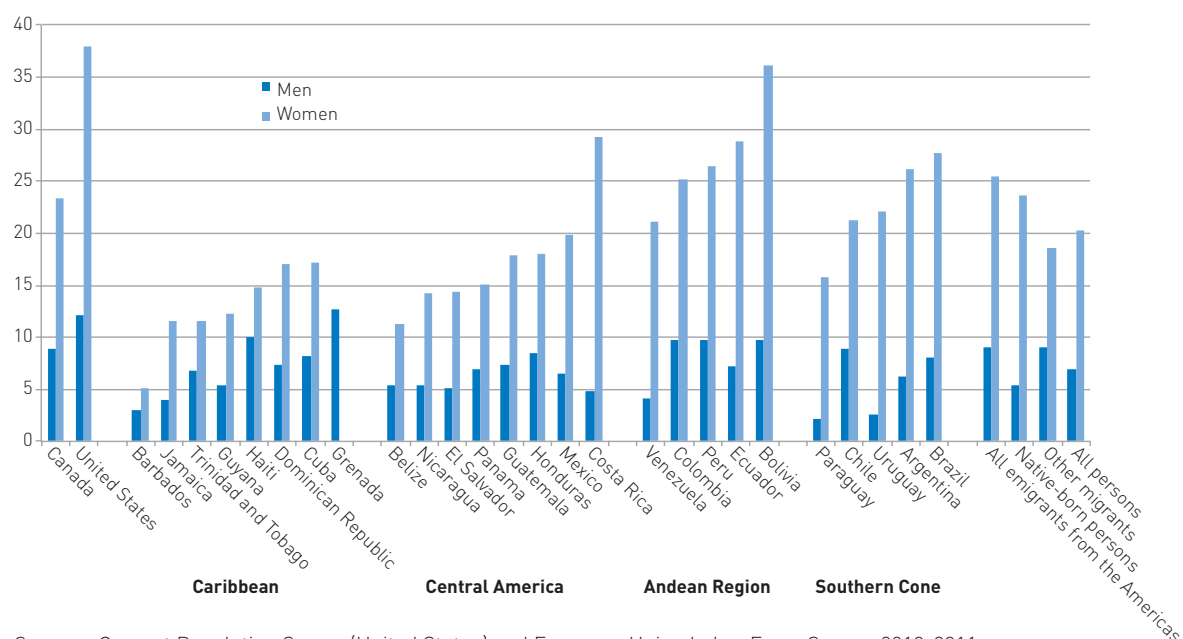
The usual north-south divide which one finds for emigrants from the Americas with respect to characteristics, is less present with regard to unemployment rates by educational attainment, the Caribbean region lining up on this count with the Andean Region and the Southern Cone. Low-educated emigrants from each of these regions are showing unemployment rates of close to 25% or more for men and a little over 20% for women. Central American emigrants, on the other hand, show rates that are relatively low for low-educated men (10%) and about 14% for low-educated women. Likewise, highly educated men from Central America, in particular from Mexico and El Salvador, show unemployment rates that are comparable to those of highly educated native-born workers (about 5%), a characteristic they share with tertiary-educated emigrants from Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago and Brazil.

Part-time work among emigrant workers from the Americas

The incidence of part-time employment has been increasing in OECD countries; in particular since persons with lower labor force participation tend to work part-time when they enter the labor market (OECD, 2010a) and policy efforts have been oriented towards increasing the activity of persons out-of-the-labor-force. Part-time work can provide flexibility and easier conciliation of work and family. Historically a larger share of women has been in part-time jobs. Emigrants from the Americas are no exception: the share of part-time workers in total employment among emigrant women was 16 percentage points higher than among emigrant men, a difference 6 percentage points higher than among the native-born (Figure 10).

The share of the employed working part-time was higher in the United States than in Spain for most population groups in 2010-2011, in particular for emigrant women from the Americas – almost one in three worked in a part-time job in the United States. In Spain, on the contrary, the share of emigrant women from the Americas working part-time was lower (16%), and it was even 6 percentage points lower than that of natives and 10 percentage points lower than that of migrants born elsewhere.

The prevalence of part-time work tended to be higher among emigrant women from the Southern Cone and especially from the Andean Region than from the Caribbean and Central America, but it was emigrant women from the United States who had the highest rate at almost 40%, with women from Bolivia at about 35% and Costa Rica at close to 30%. The prevalence among men exceeded 10% only among expatriate men from the United States, Haiti and Grenada.

Figure 10: Part-time work among emigrants from the Americas, 2010-2011 averages

Sources: Current Population Survey (United States) and European Union Labor Force Survey, 2010-2011.

While part-time work can be a means to increase the participation of certain groups in the labor market, part-time jobs offer however lower wages, less job security and fewer training and promotion opportunities than full time jobs¹⁷. With a reduction in the working-age population on the horizon for many OECD countries, it is likely that increases in working hours among part-time workers will be one strategy for increasing economic activity among the resident population. There will thus be considerable potential for increasing working hours on the part of many workers, both native- and foreign-born.

Self-employment and entrepreneurship

Although many migrants leave their countries looking for wage-and-salary employment in the country of destination, migration status does not preclude engaging in self-employment or starting a business.¹⁸

In 2010-2011, the OECD area counted more than 1.5 million self-employed from the Americas. The largest contingent was Mexican and was essentially based in the United States. Migrants from Cuba, Canada, Colombia, Argentina and Brazil are next in line (Table 10).

Migrants from the United States represented the first community of entrepreneurs from the Americas in European countries, with the exception of Spain where Argentineans are the first community. Not surprisingly, the United States was the country harboring most entrepreneurs from the Americas, generally followed by Spain. The only exceptions were Argentine and Uruguayan entrepreneurs for whom Spain was the first country of residence, Canadian and Jamaican entrepreneurs for whom the second country of importance was the United Kingdom, and Haitian entrepreneurs for whom the second country was France. Entrepreneurs from the United States were mainly based in the United Kingdom and in Italy.

Table 10: Self-employed emigrants from the Americas in the United States and Europe, 2010-11

Country of birth	Self-employed Number of persons	Share of self-employed in total employment Percent	Persons who are highly educated	
			Among the self-employed	Among wage-and- salary workers
			Percent	
Canada	84 400	10	50	44
United States	45 500	22	72	65
Canada and United States	129 900	12	58	47
Cuba	87 400	7	40	22
Dominican Republic	41 200	5	26	15
Guyana	12 200	5	22	17
Haiti	29 200	6	12	10
Jamaica	27 100	4	22	23
Trinidad and Tobago	13 300	6	26	26
Caribbean	216 200	5	31	20
El Salvador	58 300	5	10	8
Guatemala	56 400	8	10	8
Honduras	22 700	4	28	18
Mexico	628 400	6	8	6
Nicaragua	11 300	5	22	19
Central America	800 700	6	10	7
Bolivia	12 600	5	27	20
Colombia	72 000	8	36	28
Ecuador	36 600	4	13	12
Venezuela	35 500	13	55	50
Andean Region	206 600	7	35	24
Argentina	62 000	17	44	40
Brazil	61 400	13	26	31
Chile	14 500	8	61	36
Paraguay	49 900	9	35	26
Uruguay	14 000	15	14	19
Southern Cone	157 900	13	35	32
All destination countries				
Born in Americas	1 511 300	7	23	14
Born elsewhere	3 401 700	10	40	36
Native-born	31 121 100	9	33	28
All Persons	36 118 200	9	33	28
United States				
Born in Americas	1 255 500	6	19	12
Born elsewhere	1 337 200	7	49	41
Native-born	12 104 600	6	39	25
All Persons	14 772 300	6	38	25
Spain				
Born in Americas	115 600	8	42	24
Born elsewhere	219 700	14	36	28
Native-born	2 565 700	17	30	41
All Persons	2 901 000	16	31	39

Notes and sources: See Figure 6 and Figure 8. Totals for regions may not add up to the sum for the individual countries, because of data suppression for reason of insufficient reliability.

Overall, entrepreneurship in OECD countries was slightly higher among the foreign- than among the native-born (13% versus 12% on average). For immigrants from the Americas, this was not the case (7% versus 9%), especially in Spain (8% versus 17%). However, entrepreneurship tends to increase with residence in the country of destination and migration into Spain is of relatively recent vintage, which undoubtedly explains a good portion of this difference.

Most countries have provisions in their migration regulations which facilitate the entry and settlement of entrepreneurs wishing to open businesses and who bring with them significant financial resources. For example, over the period from 2004 to 2009, the main recipients of an *autorización de residencia temporal y trabajo por cuenta propia* from the Spanish authorities were from China, Morocco, Argentina, Colombia and Ecuador. However, most immigrant entrepreneurs do not enter in this way, but rather as family or labor migrants or even as children of migrants and become entrepreneurs only after a significant period in the country of destination. Setting up a business requires significant funds and knowledge of a particular area of activity as well as of country-specific procedures and practices, and these may take a certain time to acquire.

Entrepreneurship is also sometimes said to be an alternative to wage-and-salary employment on the part of immigrants who have difficulties finding appropriate work, have language and qualification deficiencies or face discrimination. However, although this phenomenon may exist, it would appear to be relatively uncommon, and it is unlikely to be common during a downturn, when the rate of business creations actually declines (OECD 2010b). Indeed the percentage of self-employed in the United States has fallen from 2007-2008 to 2010-2011 for migrants from the Americas, migrants from elsewhere and for the native-born as well (by close to one percentage point or more in all three cases).

Educational background and financial resources are among the drivers of the creation of a business. The self-employed in the OECD are more often highly educated than employees, although the differences are not large. This higher level of education of the self-employed is also observed among migrants from the Americas: 23% of them hold a higher education diploma versus 14% of immigrant employees. The high percentage of independents observed among emigrants from the United States and from the Southern Cone (in particular from Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil and Venezuela), and the lower percentages observed among emigrants from the Caribbean, Central America and the Andean Region may well reflect differences in the prevalence of highly qualified workers. Emigrants from the United States record particularly high educational levels and nearly three quarters of the self-employed from the United States who are abroad hold a higher education diploma.

When migrants are in a position to set a business and to create jobs, they can have a measurable effect on employment. In Spain and Italy, for example, nearly one out of four entrepreneurs born in the Americas has created jobs for others through his/her business. In Spain, 9 % of persons employed by entrepreneurs overall were employed by immigrants in 2007-08 and this share is growing (OECD 2010c).

The occupational distribution of employment among emigrant workers from the Americas

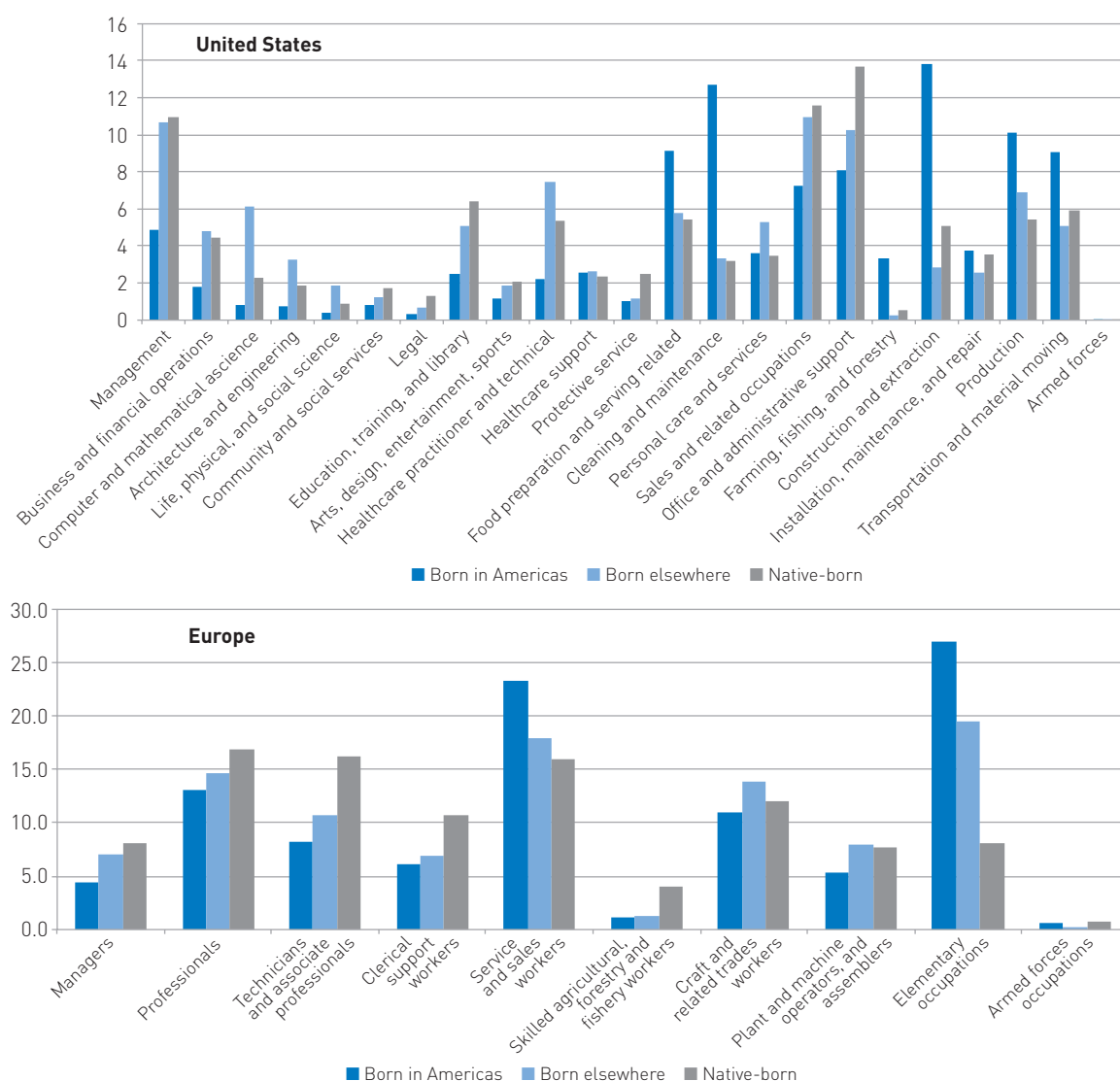
One recurring debate regarding migration concerns the effect which immigrants have on the labor market outcomes of workers in destination countries. Although addressing this question is beyond the scope of this chapter, statistics on the occupational distribution of employment may be illuminating in this regard.

Generally one expects the distribution of workers by occupational skill-level to reflect to a great extent their distribution by educational attainment. Now although migrants from the Americas are characterized by a much higher percentage of low-educated persons than is the case among other

migrants or the native-born in the United States, this is not the case in Spain, where the percentage of low-educated persons is high for all three groups, but where the native-born percentage at (57%) is some 10 to 15 percentage points above those of immigrants. Indeed, relative to most OECD countries, Spain lacks medium-educated workers and it is medium-skilled jobs which in most countries constitute the bulk of jobs present in the labor market.

In the United States, emigrants from the Americas were more likely than natives to work in low-skilled occupations such as construction, cleaning and maintenance, food preparation and serving, production or transportation in 2010-2011 (Figure 11). They were also less likely than natives to work in high-skilled occupations such as management, legal, business and financial operations, computer science, architecture or engineering. This was not the case for migrants from other parts of the world, who were much more likely than natives (and also than emigrants from the Americas) to work

Figure 11: Occupational distribution of employment of workers in the United States and in Europe, by birth status, 2010-2011



Notes and sources: See Figures 6 and 8. Data for European countries make use of the International Standard Classification of Occupations (1988), those for the United States are based on the United States Standard Occupational Classification (SOC).

in high-skilled occupations related to science. Given the large differences in educational attainment between immigrants from the Americas and the native-born, this does not come as a surprise.

The situation in Europe was only somewhat less polarized. Emigrants from the Americas in Europe were overrepresented in elementary occupations (ISCO 9), which are low-skilled, and in services and sales workers' occupations (ISCO 5), which are considered medium-skilled, compared to other migrants and to natives. On the other hand, they were less likely to be in high-skilled occupations such as managers and professional and associate professional occupations (ISCO 1-3). They were present in all occupations, but there was a very large over-representation in low-skilled jobs (27% of employment compared to about 8% for the native-born).

Analyses of the evolution of occupations in OECD countries (OECD 2012a) show that in all countries, high-skilled occupations increased strongly over the 2000-2010 decade and low-skilled occupations only somewhat less so. Medium-skilled occupations, on the other hand, were either stagnating or declining. At the same time, the educational attainment of young persons entering the work force was increasing steadily, with more and more youth having tertiary qualifications and the percentage completing upper secondary education continuing to rise as well. In the countries of southern Europe including Spain, there was a very large difference between the educational attainment of retiring workers and that of young residents entering the work-force. Under these circumstances, it seems likely that immigrants were not driving domestic workers from employment, but rather taking on jobs for which there were insufficient numbers of domestic candidates. The fact that such jobs tended to be manual and of relatively low wage levels tends to support this affirmation. The earnings of immigrant workers is precisely the topic of the next section.

Earnings of emigrant workers from the Americas

Emigrant workers can be an important source of revenue for origin countries. In 2010, emigrants from Latin America and the Caribbean remitted 36 billion USD (OECD, 2012b) to their countries of origin. The earnings of immigrant workers serve not only to support them in their countries of adoption, but also to improve living standards of family and relatives left behind (see chapter on remittances in this publication). Table 11 shows the share of emigrant workers from the Americas in each quintile of the earnings distribution by country of origin. Emigrant workers are overrepresented (underrepresented) in an earnings quintile if the proportion of migrants in that quintile is higher (lower) than 20 percent.

The overall earnings distribution shows an overrepresentation of emigrant workers from the Americas in the lowest two quintiles (around 30 percent were present in each quintile) and an underrepresentation in the highest two (around 10 percent in each quintile). Over one third of the emigrants from Bolivia, Ecuador, Peru, Honduras or Guatemala were concentrated in the lowest income quintile. Emigrants from Canada and the United States were on the contrary concentrated in the top income quintile. Almost one third of Canadian emigrants in the United States and in Europe were in the top income quintile of their country of destination. Other countries adequately represented in the top quintile (at 20% or better) were Argentina, Costa Rica, Dominica, Panama and Venezuela.

The situation of emigrant workers in the income distribution of the United States was relatively better than that of emigrant workers in Spain, with more emigrants concentrated in the second quintile in the United States compared with a greater concentration in the lowest quintile in Spain. In both countries, they were underrepresented in the highest income quintiles. This was not the case in the United States for emigrants born elsewhere, with 27 percent of them concentrated in the highest income quintile; in Spain all migrants were concentrated in the lowest income quintiles.

Table 11: Share of emigrant workers from the Americas in each quintile of the earnings distribution, by country of origin, 2010-2011 average

	Percentiles of the earnings distribution				
	0 to 20	21 to 40	41 to 60	61 to 80	81 to 100
Canada	18	16	17	17	32
United States	17	26	19	14	24
Canada and United States	17	21	18	16	29
Antigua and Barbuda	nr	nr	nr	nr	7
Bahamas	nr	nr	nr	nr	15
Barbados	18	41	13	20	8
Cuba	24	28	18	16	13
Dominica	nr	nr	nr	nr	28
Dominican Republic	28	35	19	11	7
Grenada	nr	nr	nr	nr	11
Guyana	20	27	21	19	13
Haiti	31	28	19	13	9
Jamaica	23	33	18	14	12
Trinidad and Tobago	14	27	22	20	16
Caribbean	25	31	19	14	11
Belize	nr	nr	nr	nr	10
Costa Rica	26	23	17	13	21
El Salvador	28	37	20	9	5
Guatemala	35	33	18	8	6
Honduras	35	34	16	12	4
Mexico	30	38	19	9	5
Nicaragua	32	28	19	10	11
Panama	21	28	21	9	20
Central America	30	37	19	9	5
Bolivia	45	29	13	9	4
Colombia	31	28	19	15	8
Ecuador	36	34	17	9	4
Peru	34	29	17	10	10
Venezuela	20	22	18	19	22
Andean Region	34	30	17	12	8
Argentina	21	20	21	17	21
Brazil	27	26	22	15	10
Chile	22	27	25	14	11
Paraguay	28	38	26	5	3
Uruguay	20	33	15	19	13
Southern Cone	24	26	22	16	13
All destination countries					
Born in Americas	29	32	19	12	9
Born elsewhere	27	26	18	14	14
Native-born	21	22	19	19	19
All Persons	22	23	19	18	19
United States					
Born in Americas	27	34	19	12	9
Born elsewhere	16	19	19	19	27
Native-born	20	19	20	20	21
All Persons	20	20	20	20	20
Spain					
Born in Americas	34	30	18	11	6
Born elsewhere	28	29	22	12	8
Native-born	18	18	20	22	23
All Persons	20	20	20	20	20

Notes and sources: See Figures 6 and 8. The data cover only wage-and-salary workers and earnings from the main job. Earnings in the United States are weekly earning before taxes and other deductions. Earnings for European countries are monthly take-home pay.

It is striking that so much was being remitted by migrants from the Americas with over 60% of migrants in the bottom two earnings quintiles. The 36 billion \$US remitted in 2010 amounts to approximately \$US 1500 for every migrant 15-64 from the Americas employed in an OECD country. Now the earnings level for the 20th percentile (the cut-off for the first quintile) of workers of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity in the United States was approximately \$US 360 in the 3rd quarter of 2012. That for the 40th percentile was about \$US 490. A remit of \$US 1500 would thus correspond to close to one month of earnings for persons in these quintiles. These would be substantial rates of savings for persons at these earnings levels and testify to the commitment of many migrants from the Americas to their families and relatives back home.

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Notes

1. Argentina, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Paraguay and Uruguay. Although the United States is not a formal participant in the SICREMI network of migration correspondents from the Americas, its statistics are readily available and have been incorporated whenever appropriate.

2. Chile as well may fall into this group, but the permanent/temporary nature of immigration into Chile is not determined at the time of entry, but only after two years. In other words, the immigration entry statistics collapse permanent and temporary immigrants, so that the relative size of the two groups is uncertain.
3. The correlation is -0.45.
4. The terms “asylum seeker” and “refugee” are often confused: an “asylum seeker” refers to someone who has applied for refugee status, but whose request has not yet been decided on definitively. A refugee is someone whose claim for asylum has been recognized.
5. It may not, however, be a precise one, especially in an environment of relatively free circulation, when the advantage of acquiring the nationality of the country of residence is less obvious.
6. Chile became the first South American member of the OECD in 2010.
7. Canada, Chile, Mexico, Japan, Korea, Australia, New Zealand, Japan and Korea.
8. The OECD countries included are Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Sweden, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Switzerland, United Kingdom and United States. Germany is not included in the sample as the country of birth is not identified in the German labor force survey.
9. Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC), 2005/06.
10. For a further discussion on this issue see Borjas (1999).
11. A certain proportion of immigrants 15+ arrived as minors and have aged into the working-age population. They are the children of immigrants of older migration waves and tend to increase the share percentages for immigrants of prime working age.
12. Many unauthorized migrants in the United States respond to sample surveys and censuses conducted by the United States Census Bureau. Indeed, it was the discovery in the 2000 Population Census that the United States had grown by about 8 million more persons than expected which brought to the fore the large numbers of unauthorized immigrants in the United States economy and society, numbers which have receded somewhat as a result of the crisis but remain in the vicinity of 10.5 to 11 million persons.
13. That is, Central American and Caribbean migrants going largely to the United States, while South Americans have tended to go more to Spain.
14. Because sample sizes are not always large, some of the changes observed may be attributable to sampling variability.
15. Low education here means less than upper secondary attainment, medium upper secondary and high tertiary attainment. Tertiary can include some high-level technical or professional qualifications considered equivalent to short university programmes.
16. One study (Oreopoulos 2011) suggests that after five years of work experience (in Canada), employers in that country do not care where the qualifications were obtained.
17. See OECD (2010) for further discussion on the incidence of involuntary unemployment and the potential negative impacts of part-time work on pay, job security and career prospects, among others.

18. In what follows, the terms self-employed and entrepreneur are used interchangeably, although evidently the terms have different connotations. The term “entrepreneur” in particular is reserved for owners of businesses having employees and significant economic activity. The self-employed, on the other hand, can include professionals but also small shop-keepers, tradesmen and street vendors, who may or may not have employees. With the statistics available, it is not always possible to identify whether or not a self-employed person has employees or, for that matter, whether a salaried worker is a working owner of an incorporated business. The statistics presented here are therefore meant to be indicative. See OECD (2010).

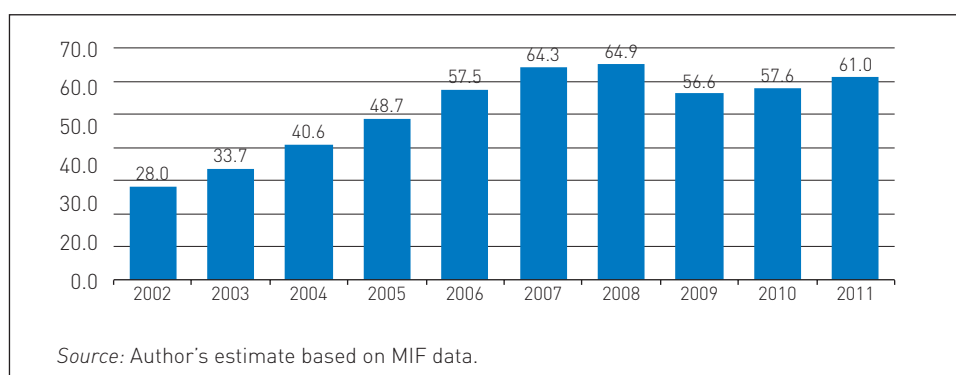
PART II

Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean in 2011: Recovery and Growth

Remittances in 2011*

Over the course of 2011, remittance flows to Latin American and Caribbean (LAC) showed signs of a solid recovery, reaching growth rates close to those recorded before the start of the global economic crisis. Since the last quarter of 2008, the increases in unemployment rates in traditional sending countries like the United States, Spain, and Japan, and the ensuing drops in incomes among LAC migrants had caused an unprecedented decline in the volume of remittances sent to the region. In 2010, remittances to LAC showed signs of stabilization, finishing on a positive growth trend that resulted in an annual volume that was slightly higher than the previous year. In 2011, the countries in the region received a total of US\$ 61 billion in remittances, which represents an increase of 6% over the previous year.

Figure 1: Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2002-2011)
Billions of U.S. Dollars¹



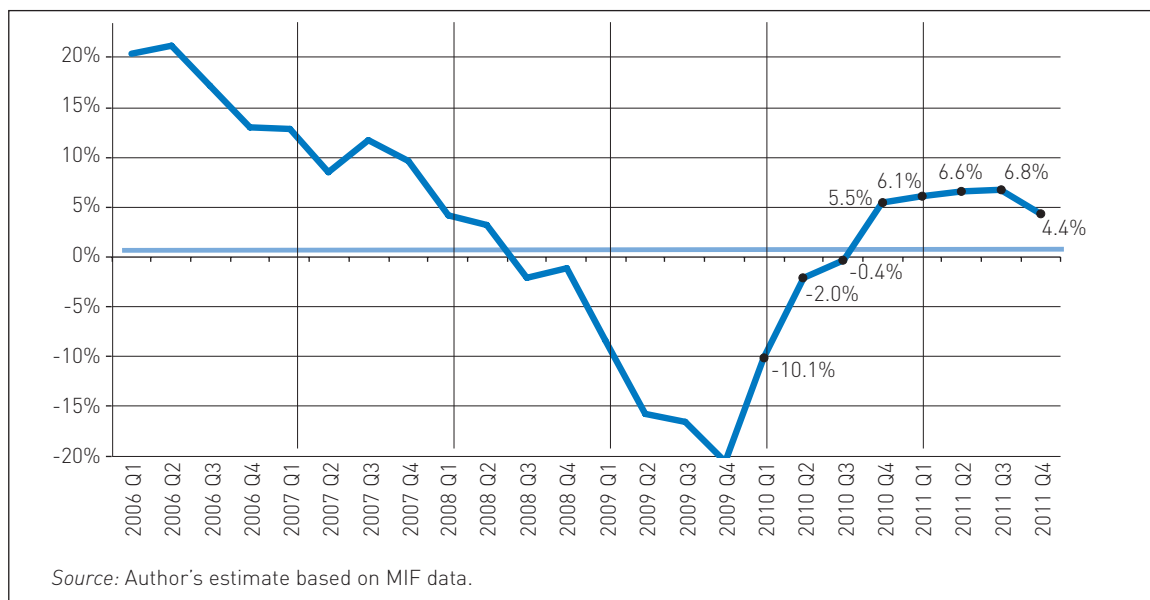
Between 2002 and 2008, remittances flows showed strong increases each year at an average rate of 17%. However, in 2006 these growth rates began a marked slowdown, and the second half of 2008 reflected the impact of the economic crisis as remittances fell more than -15% the final two quarters of 2009. Given the importance of these flows for recipient households, migrants adjusted their spending habits to continue to send money home, despite the economic uncertainty.² The year 2010 marked the start of an upward trend lasting throughout that year, reaching an annual positive growth with respect to the previous year. Remittance inflows recorded in 2011 exceeded the amount sent the previous year by 6%, the largest positive growth rate in the last four years.

Quarterly inflows received in 2011 were similar to those observed in 2006. As shown in Figure 2, remittance flows in the first and second quarters of 2011 showed annual growth rates of 6.1% and 6.6%, followed by a peak increase of 6.8% in the third quarter, the highest quarterly growth rate in the last four years. However, the growth rate eased to 4.4% during the fourth quarter, which suggests that, while remittances are back on the path of growth, the volume of inflows may be affected by adverse factors, such as those stemming from the economic difficulties that persist among European sending countries.

The average amount per remittance and the frequency of sending increased in 2011 with respect to previous years. According to official data and surveys, during the years immediately following the crisis, migrants had to reduce the number of times a year they sent money home, from an average

*Maldonado, R., Bajuk, N., Hayem, M. "Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean: Regaining Growth." Multilateral Investment Fund, Inter-American Development Bank. Washington, D.C., 2012.

Figure 2: Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2006-2011)
Year-over-Year Growth



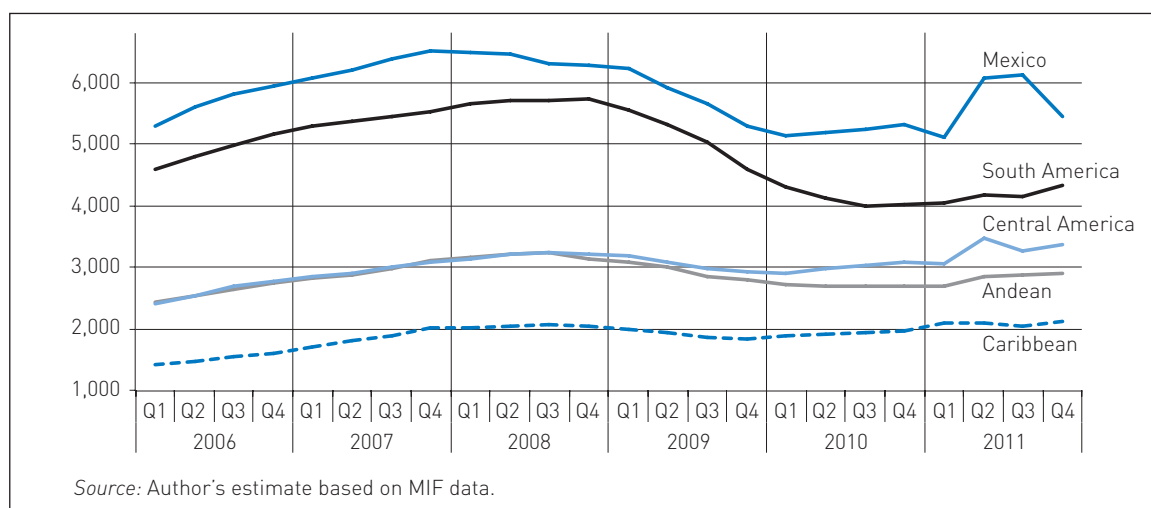
of 15.3 transfers per year in 2008 to only 12 in 2009 and 2010, as they struggled to maintain the sending levels of previous years. In addition, the amount of the average remittance had decreased by about -8% to -9% in 2009, and again in 2010, though only by about -0.1% to -0.6%.³ In contrast, official data for several countries shows that in 2011 remittances were sent more frequently and in greater amounts per transaction. For example, in the case of Mexico, the larger overall volume of remittances received in 2011 reflected an increase of 3.4% of the average remittance amount and a 3.3% increase in the number of times sent in the year.

Between 2008 and 2010, remittance flows varied significantly depending on the sub-region due to the economic crisis in traditional sending countries. The timing, duration and intensity of the economic crisis were not the same in the U.S. in comparison to European countries, and as a result, the flow of remittances from these countries showed different patterns. However, the sub-regional breakdown of remittance flows for the first months of 2011 show a general recovery across all sub-regions, as shown in Figure 3.

In **Mexico**, remittance inflows in 2011 remained closely associated with developments in the United States' economy, the source of almost all its remittances. While remittances to Mexico had dropped sharply by -16% in 2009 as a result of the crisis in the United States, these flows began their recovery in 2010, reaching a slight increase of 0.12% that year. During 2011, remittances in the first two quarters increased by 5.5% and 4.1% respectively, with the positive growth trend strengthening through the last two quarters at 10.3% and 7.6% respectively, compared to the same periods the previous year. In annual terms, remittance income in Mexico recorded an year on year growth of 6.9% in 2011.

In the case of the **Central America** countries, remittance flows began their recovery earlier in 2010, ending that year with a volume that surpassed that of the previous year by 5.2%. The pace of this increase picked up over the course of 2011, which showed an annual growth rate of 7% over 2010 levels.

Figure 3: Trends in Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2006-2011)⁴
Millions of U.S. Dollars

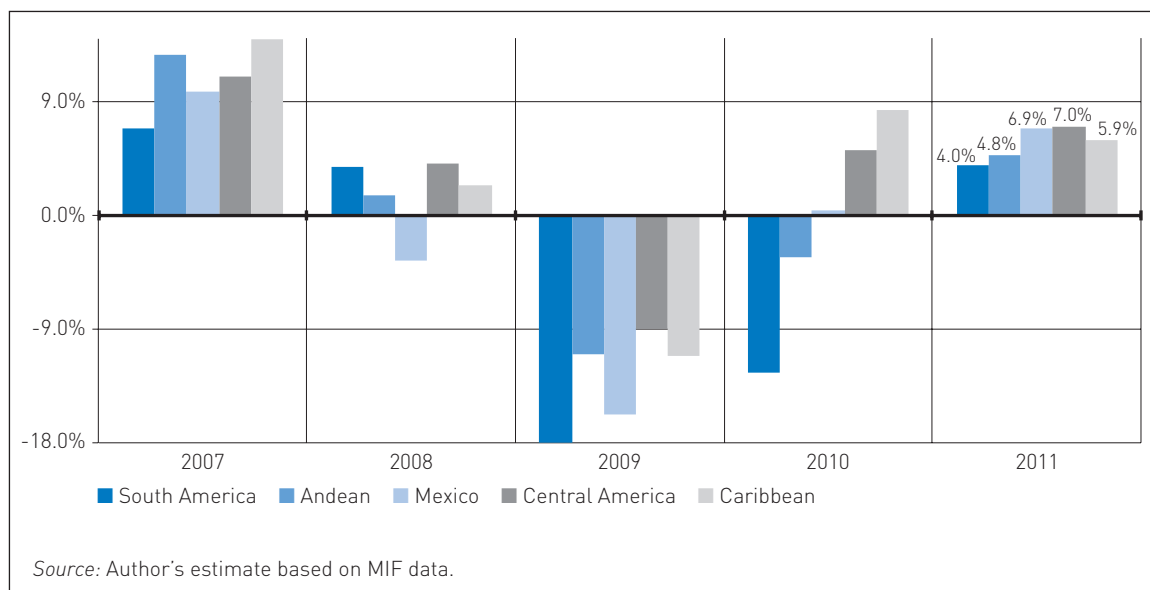


In the **Caribbean**, remittance flows had increased by 8.3% in 2010 with respect to the previous year, largely due to extraordinary inflows recorded in response to the devastating earthquake in Haiti early that year. During the first quarter of 2011, remittances to these countries recorded a 2.5% annual increase, which accelerated further in the second and third quarters, at 10.2% and 5.9% respectively, before falling back to a rate similar to the start of the year at 5.3% in the fourth quarter. Overall, remittances to the Caribbean increased by 5.9% in 2011 with respect to the previous year, an increase similar to the one observed at a regional level.

After a sharp decrease in the remittances received in 2010 with respect to the previous year, remittances to **South America** showed a quick recovery to positive growth in the first three quarters of 2011, reaching year-on-year rates of 7.5% in the first and second quarter and 4.8% in the third. But the pace of growth fell to -2.6% in the final quarter, reflecting a new drop in remittance flows sent from European countries, a major source of flows for this sub-region, as well as the continued decrease of remittances to Brazil. In annual terms, the growth of remittances to the South American sub-region in 2011 reached 4%, the lowest increase recorded in LAC this year at a sub-regional level.

- As in previous years, within the South American sub-region, the flows to the **Andean** countries show a specific, common trend, which merits a separate analysis. The group of Andean countries had recorded a drop in their remittance inflows in 2010 of -3.4%, as a result of the significant proportion of their flows coming from European countries, whose recovery from the global economic crisis has been somewhat erratic. In 2011, the group of Andean countries received 4.8% more than the previous year. Quarterly volumes showed year-on-year increases of 9% and 8.9% for the first and second quarters, but data for the second half of the year recorded a sharp slowdown with year-on-year increases of only 4.3% in the third quarter and a decrease of -2.14% in the last quarter.
- In the case of **Brazil**, according to revised data based on a more narrow definition of remittances, that includes only transfers conducted by individuals who change their residence and send money to their families back home, in 2011 these flows had a decrease of -4.9% over the previous year. This decrease is also linked to the return of many Brazilian migrants to their country of origin (see Box 1.)

Figure 4: Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean (2007-2011)
Year-over-Year Growth



Box 1: Different flows through the same channels

An important part of the measurement of remittances involves distinguishing these flows from other types of transfers migrants make to their home country from abroad. Banks and money transfer companies perform various types of cross-border transactions, which, depending on their nature, must be classified into three different categories of the recipient countries' current and capital accounts, in line with the recommendations of the Balance of Payments Manual of the International Monetary Fund: (i) workers' remittances, (ii) compensation of employees, and (iii) migrant transfers. The accuracy of this classification largely depends on the data that the market provides the authorities through surveys or other reporting mechanisms.

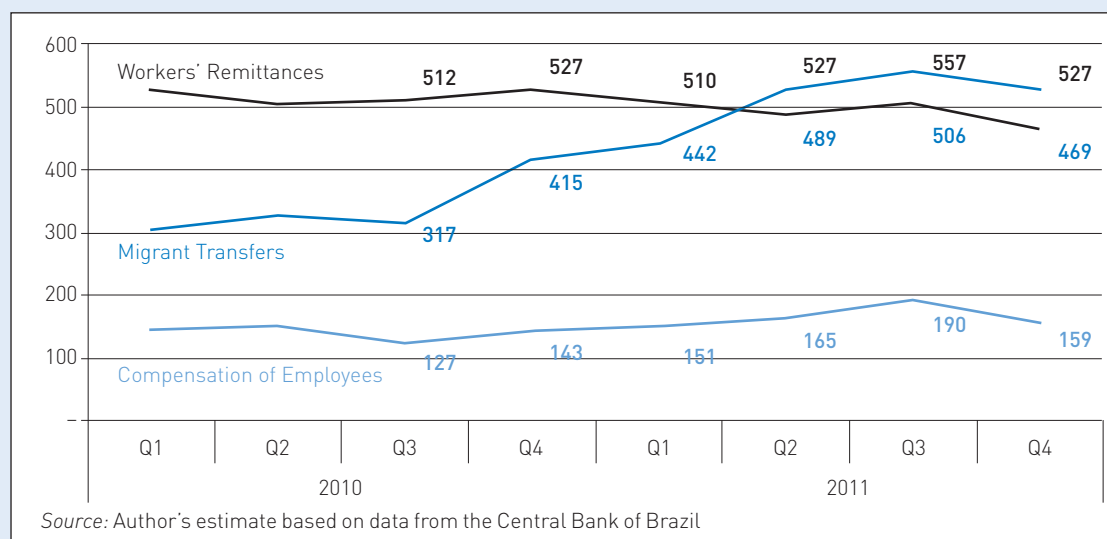
Workers' remittances are defined as money transfers conducted by individuals who change their residence, in other words, who move to another country, usually for more than a year, and send money home from there. The compensation of employees refers to transfers conducted by individuals who do not change their place of residence, but only live and work temporarily in another country. Finally, the migrant transfers accounts for capital flows that migrants send from abroad to their own accounts back home, usually due to a return to their home countries.

In contrast, the disaggregated data indicate a different picture. According to the strict definition of remittances, Brazil received US\$ 1.974 million in workers' remittances in 2011, an amount -4.9% less than previous year, whereas migrant transfers to Brazil in 2011 totaled US\$ 2.052 million, surpassing the volume received as remittances for the first time. The overall total amount of migrant transfers in 2011 represents an increase of 51% over the previous year, suggesting that a significant number of Brazilian migrants are returning to their country. This reduction in the total number of Brazilians living abroad would, in turn, likely lead to a continued descent in the total flow of workers' remittances to Brazil in future years. Once migrants cease to return to Brazil, the amounts recorded as migrant transfers would also decline, further reducing the overall volume of transfers conducted by migrants to Brazil.

continues

Box 1: Continuation

Money transfers to Brazil linked to migration (2010-2011)
Millions of U.S. dollars



The categorization of these three types of flows is not only important for statistical and reporting purposes, but it is also important because each of these flows has different implications at the public policy level and for the private sector. The more precise definition of remittance flows –circumscribed to workers' remittances- facilitates the understanding of the dimensions of the client segment of the market for remittance-linked financial products and services. For example, senders of migrant transfers often conduct single transactions –not frequent or regular transfers like remittance senders- when migrants are seeking to transfer their savings or invest in their countries of origin. Transfers categorized as compensation of employees show relatively unstable patterns or follow seasonal cycles and are often conducted by seasonal or temporary foreign workers for whom targeted micro-insurance or credit products may be appropriate to address occasional drops in revenue. On the other hand, remittance customers, studied in greater depth in this report, show a more stable and frequent pattern of sending and can be well-suited to targeted financial products and services, including credit or savings products.

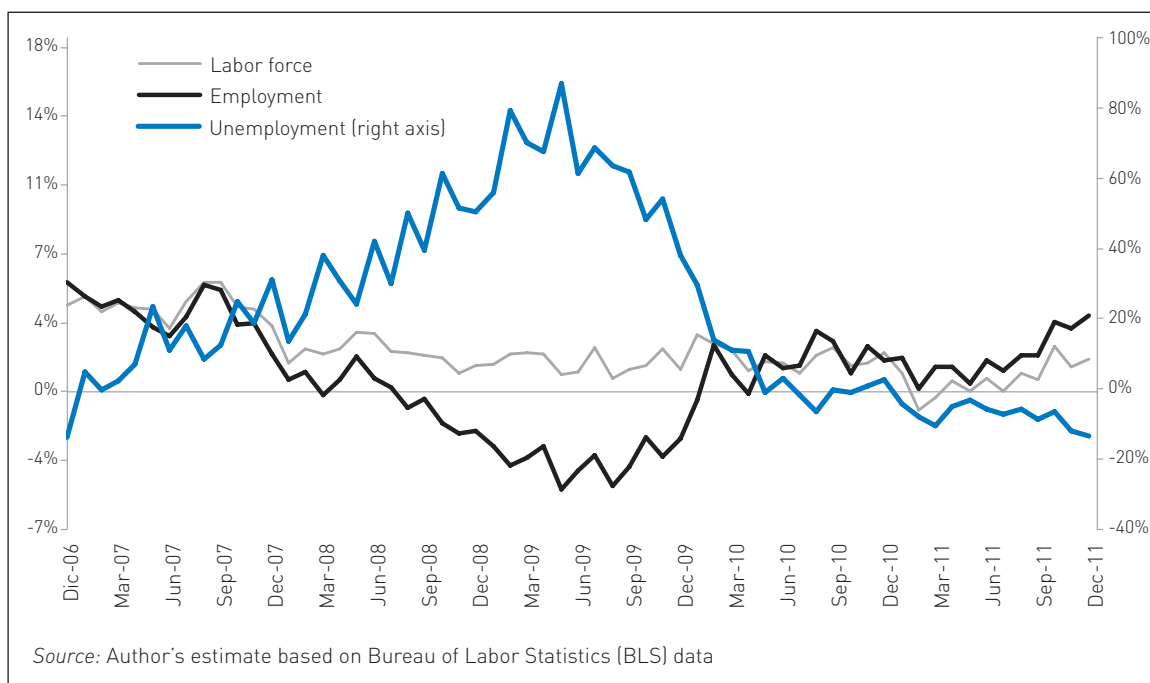
Sending Countries' Effect on Remittance Flows

The economic performance of the countries where migrants live and work largely determines their ability to obtain employment and generate income, and as a result, the economic growth in the sending country can profoundly affect the volume of remittances migrants are able to send each year. Migrants' salaries, and employment and unemployment rates in host countries are indicators that help explain the evolution of remittance flows to the region.

United States. According to labor market data, in 2009 the U.S. employment rate among Latin American migrants had fallen by -3.7%. In 2010 there was a recovery of 1.7%, which was insufficient to offset the jobs lost the previous year. During the first three quarters of 2011, the employment rate

for Latin American migrants maintained the positive trend from the previous year at an average of 1.3%, while in the last quarter, the employment rate reached 3.5%, reinforcing the upward trend of remittance flows to LAC from the United States.

Figure 5: Latin American Employment and Labor Force in the U.S. (2007-2011)
Year-over-Year Growth



The unemployment rate for Latin American migrants in the U.S. has increasingly improved its outlook since the second half of 2009. Over the course of 2011, unemployment decreased by -7.4% on average. The size of the LAC migrant labor force shows only small increases since 2009, and grew in 2011 by 0.6%, which likely played a role in the reduction of migrant unemployment rate.

Overall, the employment prospects for LAC migrants in the United States appear positive for 2012. In fact, data from January 2012 shows an increase in employment of 7% and a continued decrease in the unemployment rate of -8%.

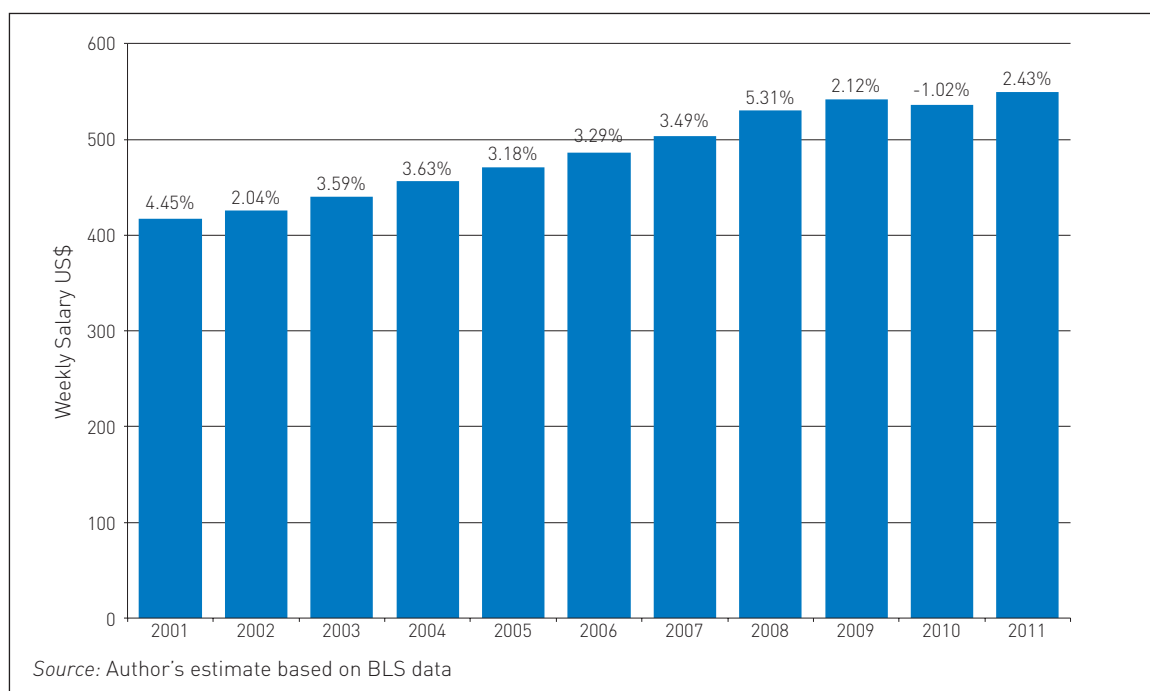
In addition, average weekly salaries grew by 2.43% during 2011, reaching US\$ 549 per week, in contrast to the decrease recorded in 2010 of -1%. This increase, coupled with the improvement in the employment outlook for migrants, largely explains the rebound in remittance flows to the region.

Spain. Despite the economic uncertainty faced by European countries, Spain remains the second largest source of remittances to LAC, particularly for many countries in South America. In fact, in the case of Bolivia, remittances from Spain in 2011 exceeded remittances from the United States.

Spain is home to 12.8% of migrants from across the region, especially from the Andean countries. Male Latin American migrants mainly work in the construction (27.3%), services (54.1%) and industry (12%) sectors, while migrant women from the region are employed almost exclusively in the services sector (93.6%).

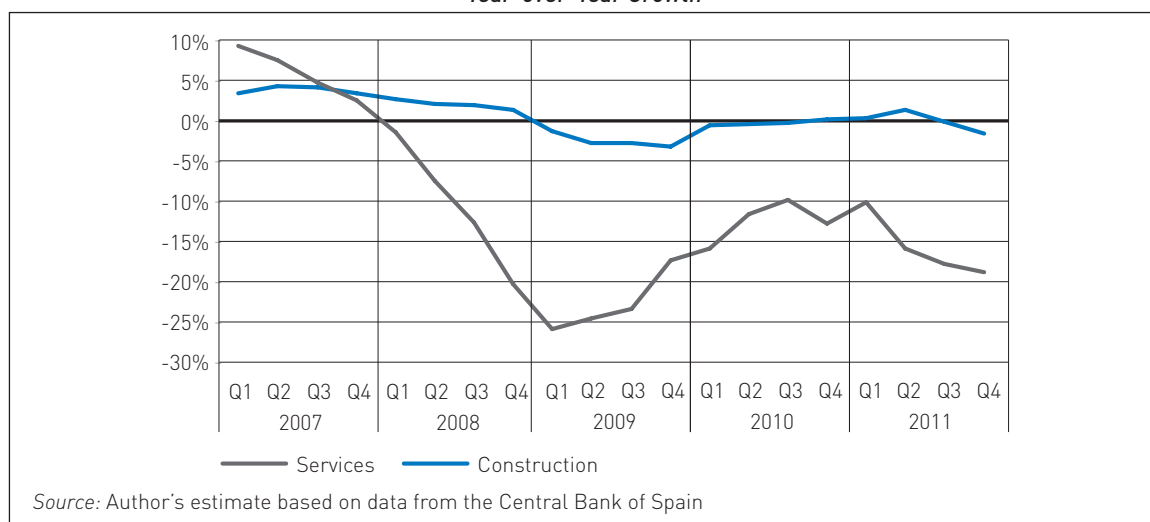
Figure 6: Weighted Average of Weekly Salaries of Latin American and Caribbean Workers in the U.S. (2001-2011)

Total in U.S. Dollars and Annual Growth Rates



Of these principal sectors of employment for the migrant population in Spain, the construction sector has been hardest hit by the economic crisis, with employment declines starting already in early 2008 and reaching their lowest level of -25.9% in early 2009. Despite signs of a bottoming-out in 2010, the rates of decline were stronger in 2011 than the year before. On the other hand, the service sector was affected to a lesser extent, registering negative growth starting in early 2009, but maintaining a growth rate near zero since 2010.

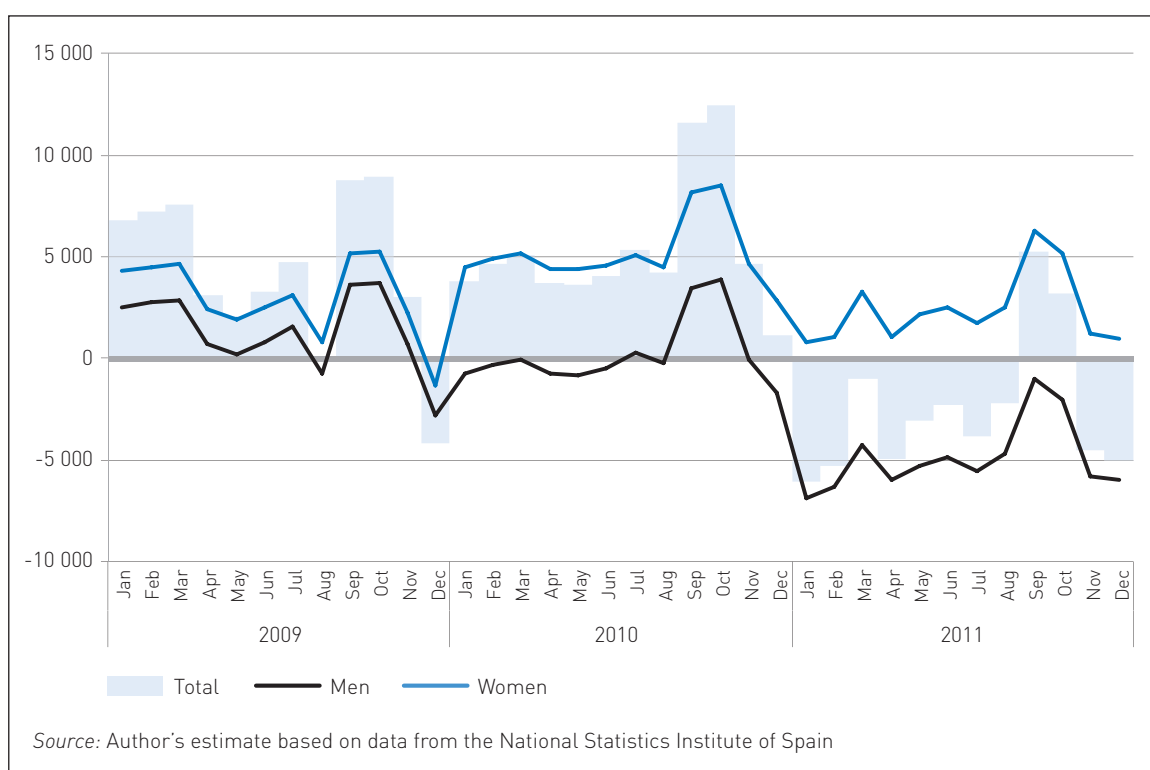
Figure 7: Employment in Spain by Sector (2007-2011)
Year-over-Year Growth



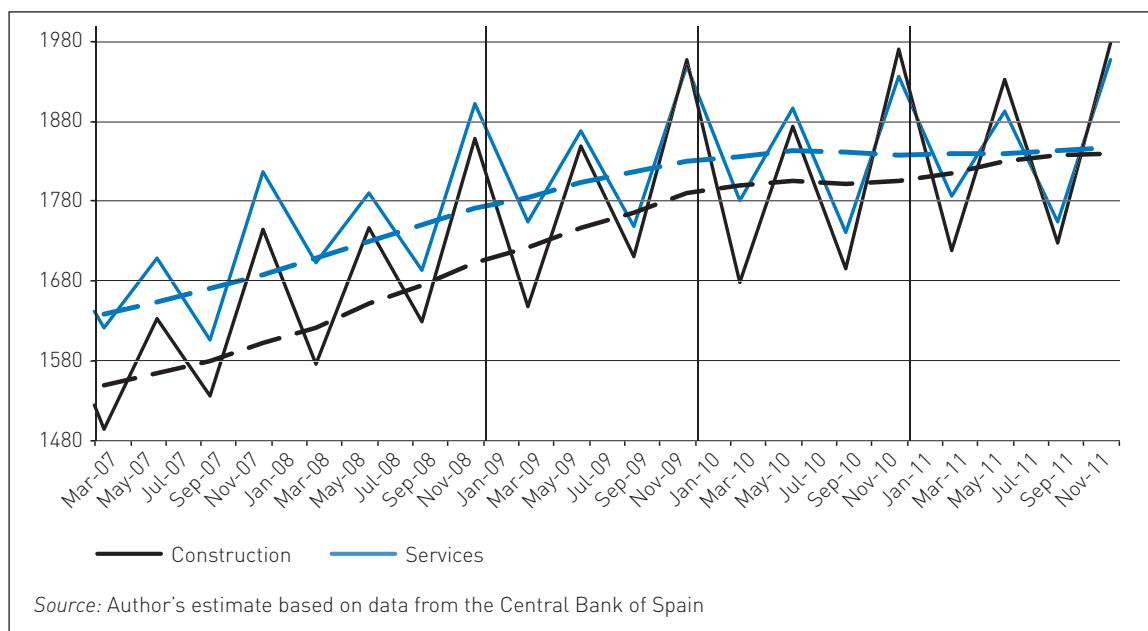
The performance of these sectors in Spain in recent years has reconfigured the composition of migrants in Spain, and it has also altered the migration flows from LAC to this country. Migration data recording the number of migrants entering and leaving Spain showed a negative monthly migration balance over the course of 2011, with the exception of the months of October and September. In other words, for much of 2011, the number of migrants who emigrated from Spain was greater than the number of migrants who immigrated to the country. Overall, the size of the migrant population in Spain fell by an estimated -1% to -2%.

The decline in the construction sector and the following reduction in the demand for labor in that sector likely explain the drops in the size of the male migrant population in Spain. According to the monthly migration balance data in Figure 8, the number of migrant men in Spain fell in 2011, consistently showing a greater number of men emigrating than immigrating each month. On the other hand, the size of the female migrant population in Spain increased as they are employed in the services sector, which has remained more stable. Nevertheless, this increase was not large enough to compensate for the number of men leaving the country.

Figure 8: Monthly Migration Balance (2009-2011)
Number of People



As for the income generation of employed migrants, the salaries of those employed both in the construction and service sectors have stagnated since 2010. This trend, in addition to the drops in employment and migration flows, explain to a large extent the decrease in the remittances to the countries of South America, especially to the Andean countries, for which the transfers from Spain represent approximately one third of total remittance inflows.

Figure 9: Wage levels by Sector in Spain (2007-2011)*Euros per Month*

Recipient Countries' Effects on Remittance Flows

While the volume of remittance flows largely depend on economic conditions in sending countries and how these affect migrants' incomes, there are other factors that migrants take into account that are specific to the context on the receiving side of the transfer. Other deciding factors include the value of the remittance once received and the economic growth of their countries of origin. These can play a significant role in the decision of how much to send, or even, as data suggests in the case of many Brazilian migrants (Box 1), whether to return home.

Value of the remittance received. Since in the majority of cases remittances cover immediate expenses for recipient families, migrants seek to send enough euros or dollars to maintain the purchasing power of the remittances, once received. In this context, both the exchange rates between the local currency and the sending currency, and the rate of inflation in the home countries can influence the value of the remittances sent, once paid out to the recipient in the migrants' countries of origin.

In 2011, while the local currencies of the LAC region lost value with respect to the dollar by 4.5% on average, exchange rates varied significantly depending on the country, as shown in Box 2.⁵ Cases where local currencies lost value with respect to the dollar were favorable to migrants whose dollars or euros were worth more in local currency terms than previous years. In contrast, exchange rates proved to be a disadvantage for migrants in cases where local currencies gained value vis a vis the dollar.

In addition, inflation rates in the LAC region increased by an average of 4.8% in 2011, which diminished the value of remittance receipts on the whole. There were noteworthy differences in the inflation rates reported across the different sub-regions, with more marked increases in the Caribbean (6.2%), Central American (5.7%), and South American countries (5.2%), than in Mexico (3.4%).⁶

When aggregated at the regional level, the effects of exchange rate fluctuations and inflation increases do not appear to have affected the value of remittance receipts. However, at the sub-regional and country levels, there are important gains and losses in the value of remittances sent, depending on the case. For example, in South America, despite a 4% increase in dollars sent, the value of remittances received dropped -3.6%. In Central America, a 7% increase in dollars sent translated to a slight increase in value of 0.4%; in Caribbean countries, the 5.9% increase in remittances sent resulted in an increase in value of only 0.8%. In Mexico, in contrast, the 6.9% increase in dollars sent in 2011 represented a 17.5% increase in value for remittance recipients.

Box 2: Remittances, Exchange Rate, and Inflation (2010-2011)
Millions of U.S. dollars and Annual Growth Rates

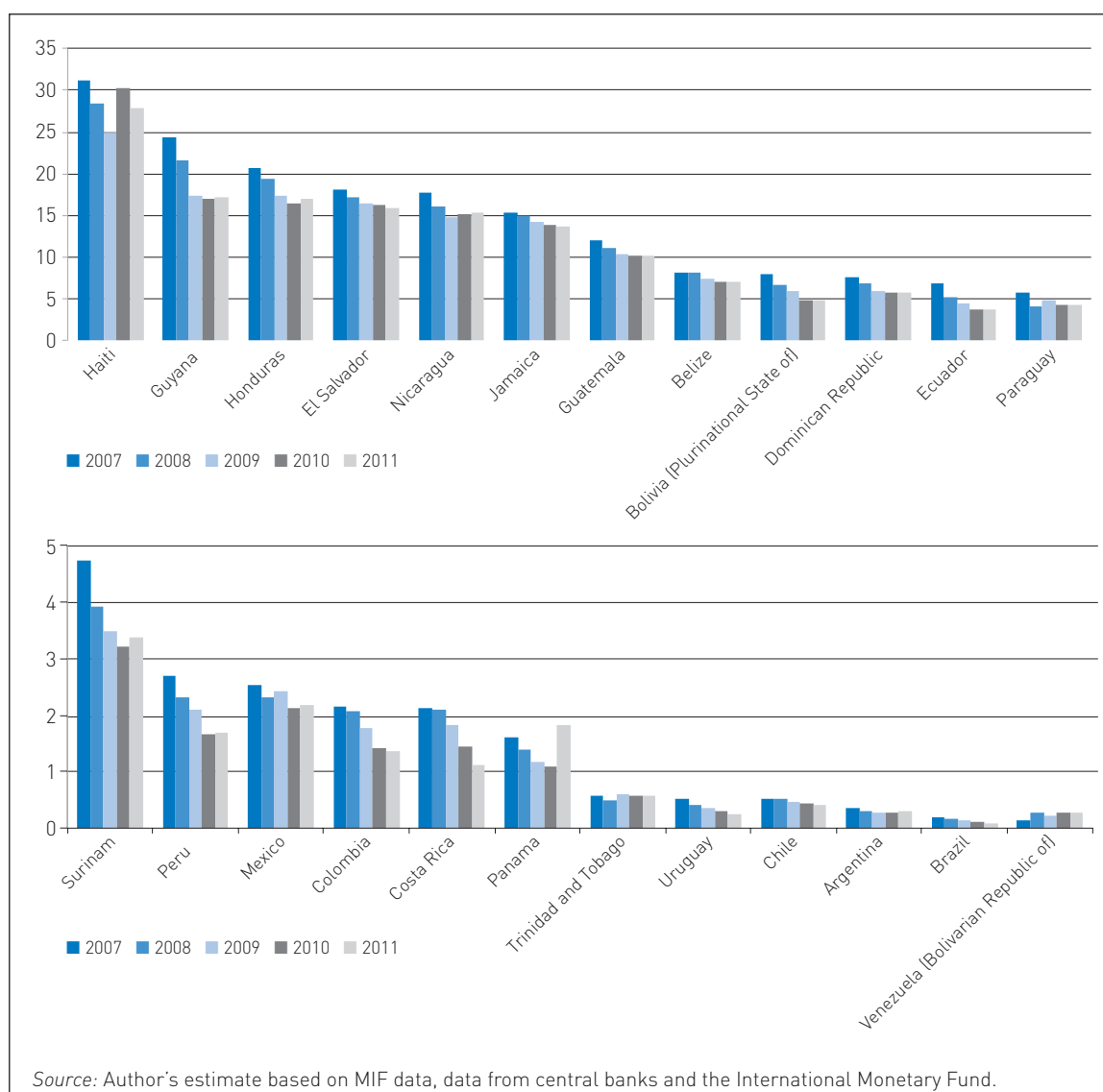
	Remittances in 2011 (millions of US\$)	Remittances in US\$	Growth rate: 2010-2011 (1)	
			In local currency	In local currency and adjusted for inflation
South America	16,707	4.0%	1.5%	-3.6%
Argentina	1,011	6.5%	12.5%	3.2%
Bolivia	1,012	7.8%	6.6%	-2.4%
Brazil	1,974	-4.9%	-9.9%	-15.0%
Chile	936	7.5%	1.8%	-1.0%
Colombia	4,168	3.6%	0.9%	-2.1%
Ecuador	2,673	3.2%	3.2%	-0.6%
Guyana	401	7.2%	3.6%	-2.2%
Paraguay	789	9.1%	-4.1%	-11.3%
Peru	2,697	6.4%	3.7%	0.7%
Surinam	114	7.5%	7.5%	7.5%
Uruguay	124	3.3%	-1.0%	-7.6%
Venezuela	809	7.0%	7.0%	-13.2%
Central America	13,171	7.0%	6.1%	0.4%
Belize	107	7.0%	8.2%	7.2%
Costa Rica	530	4.5%	0.9%	-3.5%
El Salvador	3,650	3.1%	3.1%	-1.7%
Guatemala	4,377	6.1%	2.4%	-3.2%
Honduras	2,862	13.2%	13.2%	6.4%
Nicaragua	1,053	9.0%	14.5%	6.9%
Panama	592	9.6%	9.6%	4.0%
Caribbean (2)	8,404	5.9%	7.0%	0.8%
Dominican Republic	3,131	7.7%	11.5%	3.8%
Haiti	2,057	4.4%	4.4%	-2.7%
Jamaica	2,025	6.0%	4.4%	-2.3%
Trinidad and Tobago	131	6.5%	6.6%	6.6%
Mexico	22,731	6.9%	20.9%	17.5%
LAC	61,013	6.0%	10.5%	5.7%

Source: Author's estimate based on MIF data and data from Central Banks.

- (1) Data aggregated at the sub-regional level is calculated by weighting individual variations proportionate to the country's share in overall remittance flows at the sub-regional level.
- (2) Sub-regional data for the Caribbean aggregates data from other countries in the sub-region.

Economic growth of recipient countries. Economic growth and the resulting increases in the demand for labor are important factors that affect the rate of out-migration, and it can also play a factor in increasing the rate of return for migrants living abroad. As economic conditions in remittance recipient countries improve, the incentive to migrate abroad decreases, and as in the case of Brazil (see Box 1), should the job market conditions prove sufficiently attractive relative to the host country, this can even represent an incentive for migrants to return home.

Figure 10: Remittances as a Share of GDP (2007–2011)



Despite the overall downward trend in the share of remittances relative to GDP levels in recent years, remittance flows maintain a significant importance in macroeconomic terms for many countries in the region. In approximately half of the countries in LAC, remittance flows represent more than 5% of GDP. In several countries -Haiti, Guyana, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Jamaica and Guatemala- these flows represent more than 10% of GDP.

But the importance of these flows also lies in the vital role they play for the livelihoods of millions of recipient families that depend on remittances for basic needs, even in countries with higher GDP levels. For recipient families, remittances cover the costs of expenses for consumer goods, education, health, housing, and in some cases investment in small businesses. In the absence of this regular source of income that these families receive from their family members abroad, many would fall below the poverty line.⁷

Box 3: Transparency in Remittance Costs

Given the importance of remittances for millions of senders and receivers, maintaining downward pressure on the cost of sending these resources is vital. Increased competition and transparency in this cross-border money transfer market can play an important role in remittance cost reduction. In this sense, it is important for senders and receivers to have full knowledge of the price of remittances and the different features of the money transfer services within their reach.

To work toward this goal, the Multilateral Investment Fund (MIF), a Member of the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) Group, together with the World Bank (WB), and the Center for Latin American Monetary Studies (CEMLA), have taken the initiative, in collaboration with the Central American Council for Consumer Protection (CONCADECO), to create Envía Centroamérica. The www.enviacentroamerica.org website provides free information, updated monthly on how much it costs to send US\$ 200 and US\$ 500 from the United States to Costa Rica, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama, Guatemala, Honduras, and the Dominican Republic, as well as in the intra-regional corridor between Costa Rica and Nicaragua. The information on remittances contained in this online platform is broken down by commission, exchange rate, type of service provider, speed of transfer service, payment currency, sending city, and available payment points.

Analyses of the data available on the “Envía Centroamérica” platform shows that the overall average cost of sending remittances of US\$ 200 to these countries as of December 2011 was 6%, including both, the commissions and the exchange rate fees, but the costs of sending varied significantly depending on the corridor, type of service provider, and method of transfer. Overall, in the fourth quarter of 2011, migrants from these countries paid US\$ 212 million to send over US\$ 15 billion to their families in Central America and the Dominican Republic. With the Envía Centroamérica tool, it is possible to compare prices being charged and features of the service offered to help migrants and their families choose the service that best fit their needs.

Conclusion and Outlook for 2012

For the remittance market in LAC, 2011 was a year of renewed growth after the 2008-2010 period, despite persistent economic uncertainty in Europe. As seen in previous years, the volume of remittances received by each country depended largely on the number of migrants working abroad, their income levels, and economic conditions in recipient countries.

The macroeconomic outlook for sending and recipient countries offers some elements to guide projections of future flows. The relatively positive outlook for the United States, source of approximately three quarters of the remittances sent to the region, is a positive indicator of remittance growth in 2012 at the aggregate regional level. Projections for growth in output and in employment

in the U.S. economy, and for decreases in unemployment rates, suggest that economic conditions for the coming year could benefit migrants living in the U.S. which may lead to an increase of the flow of outbound remittances, especially to Mexico and Central America.

The economic projections for European countries are still pessimistic, especially for Spain, where low output and employment levels, as well as high unemployment rates, are expected to persist over the course of the next year. For countries that receive a significant proportion of their remittances from migrants working in Spain, particularly the Andean countries, a slowdown in the growth rate of remittances is to be expected. Finally, many countries in the region itself are a destination for a growing number of LAC migrants. The possibility of growth of output and employment in many LAC countries, similar or slightly lower than last year, with unemployment rates similar to those of 2011, may continue to attract migrants from neighboring countries, leading to a potential increase in the flow of intra-regional remittances. In the case of South American countries that may see declines in remittances from Europe, intra-regional flows may compensate to some extent the drops in inflows from Europe, but they will not likely offset the overall expected declines. In sum, taking into account the various projected trends for the different countries of the region, it can be expected that in 2012 remittances received may achieve a growth rate between 6% and 7%, similar to that of 2011.

However, although the macroeconomic projections may suggest certain trends, they serve only as a starting point. As observed in previous years, remittance flows can be profoundly affected by other factors that influence both the ability of migrants to generate income, and the needs and the degree of urgency for migrants' families that depend on resources from abroad. Important efforts are underway, at both the multilateral and national levels, which aim to improve the understanding of remittance flows at the aggregate level, the market for remittance service providers, and the reality faced by remittance senders and receivers. Many of these initiatives aim to raise awareness of these flows and enhance their development potential. The millions of transactions involving migrants and their families each year have an aggregate value that exceeds official development assistance. They represent a tool for poverty alleviation and a vehicle for improving the quality of life for millions of low income families, in addition to serving as a gateway to financial services for the unbanked population in LAC. A better understanding of remittances will support efforts to establish a public policy framework that ensures competition, efficiency and safety in the remittance markets, and the development of innovative business models that will better serve the needs of millions of families who benefit from these flows.

Notes

1. Historical remittance data has been revised to reflect the narrow definition of remittances as defined in the Balance of Payments Manual of the International Monetary Fund for the case of Brazil, and to reflect updated data for Panama (2010) and Ecuador (2009 and 2010.) These adjustments are reflected in the regional totals in Figure 1 and in the analysis contained in this report.
2. Maldonado, R., Bajuk, N., Watson, G. "Remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean in 2009: The Effects of the Global Financial Crisis", Multilateral Investment Fund, Inter-American Development Bank. Washington D.C., 2010.
3. Orozco, M. "Understanding the Continuing Effect of the Economic Crisis on Remittances to Latin American and the Caribbean", Multilateral Investment Fund, Inter-American Development Bank. Washington D.C., 2009.

4. For the purposes of this report, the category of Andean countries (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela) represents a subset of the 12 South American countries.
5. Calculated by weighting the changes in the value in local currency, proportionate to the country's share in overall remittance flows at the regional and sub-regional level.
6. Regional and sub-regional inflation data is calculated by weighting the changes in the Consumer Price Index for each country proportionate to the country's share in overall remittance flows at the regional level.
7. Monge González, R., Torres, O., Vargas Aguilar, J. "South-South Remittances: Importance of the Costa Rica-Nicaragua Corridor". Academia de Centroamérica. 2009.

PART III

Country Notes

INTRODUCTION

This part of the publication consists of summary notes and statistical tables on each participating country of the Continuous Reporting System on International Migration in the Americas (known as SICREMI, its Spanish acronym). Each country note contains a brief history of international migration in the country since the country acquired its independence, as well as a summary of the regulatory framework governing entry and stay in the country, the acquisition of nationality, and, for some countries, measures regarding asylum and the recognition of refugee status as well as for the regularization of unauthorized immigrants.

The note for each country is based on a report submitted to the Organization of American States by the SICREMI national correspondent for the country.

The country note table contains an overview of statistics related to international migration for the country, including total inflows of immigrants, both permanent and temporary; flows by category of entry; outflows to OECD countries; the number of asylum seekers; components of population growth; the size of the immigrant population; GDP growth and GDP per capita; and labor force characteristics of the emigrant population, both men and women.

Sources for the statistics presented in the tables are as follows:

- Migration inflows – the national correspondents of the SICREMI network.
- Migration outflows to OECD countries – the OECD International Migration Database.
- Asylum seekers – UNHCR.
- Components of population growth – United Nations World Population Prospects (2010).
- The foreign-born population – United Nations Population Division, stocks of international migrants.
- GDP growth and GDP/capita – Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean; GDP figures are based on 2005 US constant dollars at purchasing power parities.
- Labor force outcomes in OECD countries – the European Labor Force Survey for European countries, the Current Population Survey for the United States.

More detailed information on statistical sources and on the definitions of the statistics presented can be found in the Statistical Annex of this publication.

Multi-year statistics are based on averages of the underlying annual data for the period shown. The abbreviation “na” means “not available”.

The term “nationality” as used in the country note refers to legal, administrative or passport nationality. It defines the link between a person and a particular legal system. This link of an individual with a State generates rights and reciprocal duties and depends on national legislation. Variants can be summarized in three legal principles: (a) *ius sanguinis*: the right of blood, where nationality is transmitted from the parents to their children, even when they are born abroad; (b) *ius soli*: the right of soil, where the nationality of a country is obtained on the basis of birth on the territory of the country, regardless of the nationality of the parents; (c) *ius domicili*: the right of domicile, where nationality is acquired on the basis of residence after a certain period of time or on the basis of other residence-related ties to the country of nationality (property, work, etc.). For the purpose of this report, the terms “citizenship” and “nationality” are used interchangeably.

ARGENTINA

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

After obtaining its independence from Spain at the beginning of the 19th century, Argentina adopted an open immigration policy and encouraged immigrants to adopt the country as their own. For a brief period of time at the end of the 1880s, the government subsidized passage tickets for immigrants. It is estimated that the country received more than seven million immigrants between 1870 and 1930, mainly from Spain and Italy (Jachimowicz, 1). The reasons for this mass exodus from Europe are numerous and include demographic expansion, liberalism, agricultural commercialization, industrialization and advances in transportation as well as armed and religious conflicts and economic crises of regional economies in some countries of the old continent (Moya, 44). Italian immigrants, for example, left behind an impoverished country where unemployment, overpopulation, and serious political conflicts prevailed.

Massive immigration from Europe responded in part to the offer of better wages. On average, a farm worker earned in four or five months of harvesting, between five and ten times more than what he/she earned in his/her country of origin (Veganzones, 52). Government programs also encouraged immigration. In 1862, the Argentine Congress authorized the hiring of immigrants to colonize national territories, specifically the regions outside of the constituted provinces that were governed from Buenos Aires. The Office of Migration (Dirección de Migraciones), at that time called Immigration Central Committee (Comisión Central de Inmigración) established in 1869, appointed agents in Europe to recruit colonists. The new arrivals enjoyed free accommodations, tax exemption on their possessions, and also, as time evolved, free rail transportation (Rock, 141). Many of the first immigrants achieved quick social mobility, although very few were able to acquire land.

In 1854, Buenos Aires had a population of 90,000 inhabitants; by 1895, the number had risen to 670,000 (Rock, 142). In 1914, the immigrant population represented 30% of the total population (Devoto, 49). In Buenos Aires, the immigrant population varied between 60% and 80% of the total population. Italian and Spanish communities continued dominating until the 1940s, with 42% and 38% of the total, respectively. During this period the presence of Russian (93,000) and ex-Ottoman Empire (65,000) immigrants is also noteworthy (Devoto, 294).

Overall immigration was essential for populating the country, adding approximately 4.2 million individuals to the overall population between 1881 and 1914 alone. The largest immigration waves occurred before World War I. In 1914, the number of immigrants reached its highest historical level in relative terms, making up 30% of the entire population.

In the 1920s, immigration to Argentina decreased due to an immigration policy which made it difficult for foreigners to enter the country. The fear of the governing classes of an immigrant revolt increased security measures at disembarkation ports (Devoto, 356). Meanwhile, in Europe, productivity and wages increased, which reduced the incentive to emigrate. The 1929 crisis put an end to the massive European immigration which had prevailed at the beginning of the century. The economic recession hit Argentina very hard, making its wages uncompetitive with wages in Europe (Veganzones, 52). With the exception of a brief period after World War II, European immigration continued to decrease. Immigration concentrated mostly between 1947 and 1951 and was more varied than in previous years. It included Germans, Russians, Yugoslavs, Armenians, Ukrainians, and other European ethnic groups, in addition to the customary Spaniards and Italians.

Throughout the 20th century, immigration towards Argentina diminished and lost its relative weight as of the 1947 national census. The volume of international migration decreased and there were changes in its composition. European migration was replaced by immigration from bordering countries. Overall although it was always present, it acquired visibility due to the reduction of European immigration. For a while, wages in Argentina were the highest in the region. Between 1950 and 1980, Paraguayan immigration represented between 40% and 65% of migration flows coming from bordering countries (Veganzones, 52). Brazil, Bolivia, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay also supplied migrants in the 1980s. Even though this regional migration was not historically significant for the population as a whole (it only represented between two and three percent of the total), with time it became considerable compared to immigration from non-bordering countries, with regional immigration accounting for a significant increase of the total foreign-born population.

Economic and political instability (especially in Paraguay and Chile) in neighboring countries appear to be the predominant push factors of this migration, as well as the country's high standard of human and economic development relative to the migrants' countries of origin. Labor migration from bordering countries was mainly concentrated in seasonal activities, housekeeping, construction, and commerce.

During the 1960s and 1970s, as well as the beginning of the 1980s, there was substantial emigration of Argentines to other Latin American countries (for example, Venezuela and Mexico) and also towards the United States, Canada, and Europe. Many of the emigrants were highly qualified professionals, technicians, and scientists. The main reasons for this out-migration were the economic decline and the open hostility of the military regime towards universities.

In recent years, a great number of Argentines have emigrated to Spain and the United States, among other destinations. This is associated with declines in GDP during the 1990s, a high unemployment rate, and a financial crisis (Solimano, 5). In Spain a strong demand for foreign labor and favorable naturalization policies (applicable to Argentines with Spanish ancestry) partially explains the increase in flows to that country. Since 2003, the trend of Argentine nationals exiting their country has decelerated. Presently, a reversal of flows seems to be underway due to the return of Argentineans affected by the economic crisis in Europe that particularly affects Spain.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The national Argentine Constitution establishes rights and guarantees that encompass all inhabitants, including non-citizens. It specifies equality for all under the law, including equal access to employment and non-discriminatory taxes and public charges.

Similarly, foreigners have the right to exercise their trade, business, and profession; to possess, purchase, and dispose of property; to navigate rivers and coasts; to exercise freedom of worship; to bequeath and marry pursuant to law, without obligation of admitting citizenship, nor to pay extraordinary forced contributions.

The current regulation of international migration in Argentina is based on the Argentine Migration Act (law 25.871, 2004). The law establishes the rights and obligations of foreigners, specifies the conditions of entry and stay in Argentina and incorporates as well provisions regarding nationals abroad. The instructions and regulations for execution of the law were issued in decree 616/2010.

The Migration Act reaffirms equal access of migrants to social services, public assets, health, education, justice, work, employment, and social security; establishes the right to be informed regarding rights and obligations; provides for the possibility to participate or to be consulted on decisions

related to the life and management of the communities in which they reside; establishes the right to family reunification; guarantees access to education and health, regardless of the foreigner's migration status.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

The law establishes three categories for foreigners who enter the country: a) permanent residents; b) temporary residents; and c) transitory residents. In exceptional cases, the authority may grant an authorization of "precarious residency" (*residencia precaria*), which can be revoked if the reasons for its being granted no longer exist.

Entry into the country by foreigners who do not meet the requirements stipulated by law and its regulations may be authorized when there exist exceptional reasons of humanitarian nature, public interest, or compliance with commitments acquired by Argentina.

Types of Residency

Permanent residency

A "permanent resident" is any foreigner, who with the purpose of establishing him- or herself permanently in Argentina, obtains from the National Office of Migration a permit that establishes him/her as such. Similarly, immigrants who are relatives (spouses, children, and parents) of Argentine citizens, natives, or by option, are understood as such, will also be considered permanent residents. Children of native Argentines who are born abroad to Argentine natives are recognized as having permanent residency.

Temporary residency

Temporary residents are all foreigners who have entered Argentine territory under one of the following sub-categories:

a) Migrant worker: an individual who enters to dedicate him/herself to the exercise of some licit, compensated activity, with authorization to remain in the country for a maximum of three (3) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits, and with a permit to work under a relationship of dependency;

b) Person of independent means: an individual who with steady income from their own resources or licit income from abroad, stays in Argentina. They may be granted a residency term of up to three (3) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits;

c) Retiree: an individual who for services provided abroad receives from a government, international organization, or private company, a pension in the amount that allows him/her a regular and permanent monetary income in Argentina. May be granted a residency term of up to three (3) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits;

d) Investor: an individual who contributes his/her own assets to perform economic activities of interest for the country. May be granted a residency term of up to three (3) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits;

e) Scientists and specialized personnel: an individual who is dedicated to scientific, research, technical, or consulting activities, hired by public or private entities to perform work in his/her specialty. May be granted a residency term of up to three (3) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits;

f) Athletes and artists: hired due to their specialty by individuals or legal entities that perform activities in Argentina. May be granted a residency term of up to three (3) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits;

g) Clergy of officially recognized cults: an individual with legal entity status issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, International Trade and Culture, that enter Argentine territory to perform activities exclusively related to their religion. May be granted a residency term of up to three (3) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits;

h) Patients undergoing medical treatments: to treat their health issues in public or private health institutions, with authorization to remain in Argentina for one (1) year, extendable, with multiple entries and exits. In the case of minors, disabled, or sick persons that, given the significance of their pathology, must remain with escorts, this authorization will be extended to direct family members, a legal representative or guardian;

i) Academics: an individual who enters Argentina by virtue of academic agreements executed between higher education institutions in specialized areas, under the responsibility of the contracting center of higher education. Its validity will be for a term of up to one (1) year, extendable for an identical period, with authorization for multiple entries and exits;

j) Students: who enter the country to undertake high school, tertiary, university, or specialized recognized studies, as regular students at officially recognized public or private establishments, with authorization to remain in the country for two (2) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits. The interested party must provide proof of enrolment at the educational institution in which he/she will study and, for further renewals, certification of his/her status as a regular student.

k) Asylum persons and refugees: those recognized as refugees or asylum seekers will be granted authorization to reside in Argentina for a term of two (2) years, extendable for as many times as deemed necessary by the authority in matters of asylum and refuge, addressing the circumstances as determined in legislation in effect on such matters;

l) Nationality: citizens native to Member States of MERCOSUR¹, Chile, and Bolivia, with authorization to remain in the country for two (2) years, extendable, with multiple entries and exits;

m) Humanitarian: foreigners that invoke humanitarian reasons that justify a special treatment by the National Office of Migration;

n) Special: those that enter the country for reasons not provided for in previous paragraphs, and considered to be of interest by the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, International Trade and Culture.

Transitory residency

Applicable to those that enter the country as tourists, passengers in transit, neighboring border transit, international transportation crews, seasonal migrant workers, academics, those undergoing medical treatment, and those that invoke reasons that are deemed justified of special treatment by the National Office of Migrations.

Acquisition of Nationality

The rules regarding nationality are regulated in the National Constitution, laws 346, 16801, 20835, 24.533 and 24.951 and Decree 1601/2004.

The following are the means by which Argentine nationality can be acquired and the persons or situations covered by each method of acquisition:

By birth

- All Argentines born or to be born in the territory of the Republic.
- The children of native Argentines that having been born in a foreign country who opt for the citizenship of origin.
- Those born in legations and on warships of the republic.
- Those born in the republics that were part of the united provinces of the Río de la Plata before their emancipation, and have resided in the territory of the nation expressing their will to be Argentine.

By naturalization

- Foreigners older than eighteen years of age who reside in the Republic for two consecutive years, and express before federal judges of section their will to become Argentineans.
- Foreigners that are accredited before judges to have provided, whatever the time of residency, some of the following services:
 - Performed with honesty jobs of the nation or provinces, within or outside the Republic.
 - Served in the army, navy, or assisted in a war effort in defense of the Nation.
 - Established in the country a new industry, or introduced a useful invention.
 - Be a railroad investor or builder in any of the provinces.
 - Be a resident of established colonies, or those hereinafter to be established.
 - Live or populate national territories along current borders or outside of them.
 - Be married to an Argentine spouse or have children born in any of the Argentinean provinces.
 - Be a faculty member of any of the education branches or as teaching staff of industry.

By option

Children of native Argentines born in a foreign country may opt for the citizenship of origin of one or both parents. They must have no criminal record.

Refugees

In November 2006, Argentina adopted its first Refugees Act (Ley de Refugiados) or Law 26165, titled General Act for Refugee Acknowledgment and Protection

This new law was enacted in accordance with the principles of no return, including prohibition of rejection at the border, non-discrimination, non-prosecution for illegal entry, family unity, confidentiality, most favorable treatment or interpretation of the human being, or the *pro homine* principle. Such principles apply both to the recognized refugee and to the applicant of such recognition (claimant).

Regularization of Status

One of the major changes established by the new Migration Act is the possibility to regularize unauthorized immigrants. The new law introduced the concept of MERCOSUR nationality for the entry of foreigners who are nationals of any Member State or Associate of MERCOSUR (Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela). In this spirit, the new law included a series of standards aimed at regularizing the status of persons of MERCOSUR nationality residing in Argentina with irregular status.

Along the same lines, a migration status regularization program for citizens from countries outside of MERCOSUR and its Associated States was put in place, applying to persons residing within Argentine national territory on June 30, 2004. This measure resulted in a large number of regularization requests by Asian citizens. During this period, Argentina suspended expulsion measures for foreigners eligible for regularization.

The migration regularization of foreigners, natives of MERCOSUR Member States and its Associated States became known as the “Patria Grande – MERCOSUR program”. Under this program, applicants received a certificate of precarious residency allowing them to work legally (and to study, enter and exit the country when desired, etc.). In the second phase, temporary residency is granted for two years, after which a change to permanent residency is possible. The Patria Grande program is a program based on a permanent criterion which will remain in effect for nationals of MERCOSUR and its Associated States who reside in Argentine territory, and for those who enter in the future.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Argentina						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	1.3	2.0	2.4	2.4	2.0	96 072
Temporary	2.2	3.6	2.9	2.0	2.7	82 076
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	11	1	0.0	0.0		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	53 821	40 896	55.9	42.6		
International agreements	39 970	52 620	41.5	54.8		
Others	2 482	2 555	2.6	2.7		
Total	96 284	96 072	100.0	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	3 306	3 646	2.8	4.4		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	2 177	1 792	1.8	2.2		
International study	991	1 149	0.8	1.4		
International agreements	108 675	74 124	92.3	90.3		
Humanitarian	127	128	0.1	0.2		
Retired	108	79	0.1	0.1		
Others	2 356	1 158	2.0	1.4		
Total	117 740	82 076	100.0	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)		Persons				
From unstandardised destination country data		2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10
to OECD countries		35 760	32 360	24 890	21 990	28 750
of which to Spain		21 460	17 150	9 240	7 570	13 860
United States		5 650	5 350	5 780	4 400	5 300
Chile		3 020	3 750	3 850	3 810	3 610
Mexico		500	920	1 380	1 440	1 060
						23 440
						8 410
						5 090
						3 830
						1 410
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	14	22	19	20	19	796
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	14.5	13.1	11.6	9.3	8.8	
Natural increase	13.8	13.1	11.8	10.2	9.8	
Net migration	0.8	0.0	-0.3	-1.0	-1.0	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	5.1	4.6	4.2	3.9	4.5	1 806
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	- 0.8	9.2	0.9	9.2	2.3	
GDP/per capita	- 1.9	8.1	- 0.2	8.1	1.4	6 229
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					Percentages	
					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				70.0	72.0
	Employment rate				62.6	60.2
	Unemployment rate				10.5	16.4
Men	Participation rate				88.5	88.3
	Employment rate				83.2	73.7
	Unemployment rate				6.0	16.6

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NOTES

1. Based on the Residency for Nationals of the States parties of MERCOSUR, Bolivia, and Chile Agreement, 2002; Migration Act 25871 art 23 inc. I and its Regulation Decree 616/2010.

BARBADOS

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Barbados, in its early developing years, saw the arrival of many settlers. The cultivation of cane brought prosperity to the English colony, which became known as the “richest colony in English America,” becoming a magnet for new settlers (Sutton and Makiesky, 1975). English proprietors, indentured servants, and planters all made their way to Barbadian shores, as well as slaves brought in from Africa to work on the sugar plantations. With the thriving sugar economy, the new colony was already densely populated only thirty years after its initial settlement in 1627, with a population density exceeding that of England’s by a factor of four at that time (Lowenthal, 1957). European migration to Barbados continued until the early 20th century, bringing in French, Germans, Greeks, Italians, Portuguese and Russians. The arrival of slaves continued until slavery was abolished in 1834.

Immigration

Following independence of many of the former British colonies, governments of the English-Speaking, Caribbean countries encouraged intra-regional movement through the Caribbean Free Trade Association (CARIFTA), which was organized to provide a link between the English-speaking countries after the dissolution of the West Indies Federation that had existed between 1958 and 1962. In 1973, with The Treaty of Chaguaramas, CARIFTA was superseded- by the Caribbean Community (CARICOM).

The free movement of persons within the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME) is provided for in the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas. The treaty accords to skilled community nationals, service providers, non-wage earners and investors, the right to carry on economic activities in any CARICOM member state.

According to the World Bank 10.9% of the population of Barbados in 2010 consisted of immigrants, coming mainly from Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Saint Lucia, United Kingdom and Guyane (World Bank, 2012).

Emigration

By the mid-nineteenth century, the population of Barbados was so abundant that the government passed legislation promoting emigration in an effort to relieve overcrowding and the social issues that accompanied it (Roberts, 1955). Some 30,000 left the island in the thirty years following 1861, principally for Trinidad, British Guiana, and Surinam. Even with the decline in the rate of population increase brought on by emigration, the total population continued to grow rapidly. By the end of the nineteenth century, there were more than 1,000 people to the square mile (Lowenthal, 1957).

With the advent of the twentieth century, Barbados’ population began to experience a reversal in trend, mostly in response to large-scale contracting by United States firms, hiring the labor needed for the construction of the Panama Canal. Within a decade, at least 20,000 Barbadians signed advance contracts for work in the Canal Zone, and thousands of others went without contracts. After 1914, when the Canal was completed, Barbadian emigrants began emigrating towards the United States. Between the years of 1904-1921, at least 70,000 people left Barbados. This emigration caused the birth rate to decline as most of the emigrants were young people (Lowenthal, 1957).

By the mid-twentieth century, however, with the decline of major opportunities for work abroad, emigration had decreased (Gmelch, 1987) and the population resumed its upward climb.

During the fifties and sixties, West Indians, including Barbadians, migrated to Britain, Canada and the United States of America. Many Barbadians departed for Britain and North America after the end of World War II, some to attend universities, others to seek and engage in employment. Men departed for Britain in order to work in the post office and in public transport, while women went mainly to be trained and engage in nursing.

By the late 1960s, migration to Britain slowed after Britain passed the Commonwealth Immigration Act (1965), which regulated the number of persons entering Britain. However Barbadians migrated in large numbers to Canada and the United States until those countries introduced further restrictions in their immigration policies.

Migration played a part in raising the standard of living in Barbados through the avenue of remittances sent by Barbadians residing in the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States and Panama. According to the World Bank, in 2010 41.0% of persons born in Barbados were living abroad, mainly in the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada and Trinidad and Tobago (World Bank, 2011).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The principal legal framework on matters of immigration in Barbados is the Constitution of Barbados (1966), the Immigration Act, Cap. 190 (2 February 1976) and the Barbados Citizenship Act, Cap. 186 (30 November 1966).

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Only citizens or permanent residents have the right to enter Barbados. All others may be permitted to enter, upon application. There are two categories of permitted entrants; the first consists of:

- Diplomatic or consular officers of a country other than Barbados;
- Representatives or officials of The United Nations or any of its agencies or sub-agencies, or any governmental organization in which Barbados participates, entering Barbados to carry out official duties or in transit, and members of the suites or families of such persons;
- Persons entering Barbados to attend as students at an educational or training institution approved by the Minister for the purposes of this Act; or a university or college authorized by law to confer degrees or to offer training in holy orders;
- Persons entering Barbados for the purposes of employment, trade or business;
- Persons entering Barbados for other purposes approved by the Minister;

The second category of entrants, whose stay is limited to 6 months, consists of:

- Passengers in transit through Barbados.
- Visitors.
- Persons entering Barbados for medical treatment.
- Members of crews of vessels entering Barbados for shore leave.

- Some other legitimate and temporary purpose.
- Persons entering Barbados for the purpose of engaging in sport or in dramatic, artistic or other cultural activities.

Immigrant status

Immigrant status can be granted to persons who qualify, education, investment capabilities and family reunification being key elements in the assessment.

A permitted entrant can become an immigrant if he/she:

- By reason of his/her education, occupational qualifications, personal history, employment record, training, skills or other special qualifications,
 - is in employment on a full time basis in the public service, the service of a statutory board or a government agency,
 - has established himself successfully in Barbados in a profession, trade, business or agricultural enterprise,
 - is likely to establish himself successfully in Barbados in profession, trade, business or agricultural enterprise and has sufficient means to support and maintain himself and his dependants in Barbados until he has done so.
- If he is a child under the age of 18 years whose father or mother is a permanent resident or a citizen of Barbados residing in Barbados, establishes parenthood of that child to the satisfaction of the Minister, and is willing and able to provide for that child's care and maintenance;
- If he is not a citizen, but is the parent or grandparent of a citizen who resides in Barbados and is willing and able to provide for the care and maintenance of that parent or grandparent;
- If he desires to reside in retirement in Barbados and has sufficient means of support to maintain himself and his dependants.

Permanent residence

The following persons are entitled, upon application, to be registered as permanent residents:

- A person married to a citizen of Barbados.
- A permitted entrant who applies for and is granted by the Minister the status of immigrant and after becoming an immigrant, resides in Barbados for a period of at least 5 years
- A permitted entrant who is the husband of a citizen by birth or by descent.
- Any person who, before the commencement of the Immigration (Amendment) Act, 1979, was granted the status of resident shall be deemed to have been granted the status of permanent resident.

Caricom skilled national status

The member states of CARICOM who to date have agreed to the free movement of persons are Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, St. Kitts & Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname and Trinidad & Tobago .

Skilled CARICOM nationals are entitled to seek and to engage in gainful employment in any of the CARICOM member states without the need to obtain a work permit in that member state.

Persons who are eligible for the free movement of skills must engage in legitimate economic activity.

There are currently no rights regarding free movement of persons solely for the purpose of residence. Movement is tied to economic activity in one of the countries. A person who wishes to emigrate from one CARICOM state to another without engaging in employment or some permitted form of economic activity must apply for some other status such as immigrant status, permanent residence or citizenship, in the same manner as non-CARICOM nationals.

A CARICOM national wishing to establish a business in one of the member states may do so (if all requirements have been met). The applicant is granted a definite period of time to establish the business. When the business is satisfactorily established, the applicant is granted indefinite stay as long as the business subsists.

Work permits

Non-nationals wishing to engage in employment in Barbados are required to obtain a work permit prior to commencing employment, with the exception of immigrants, permanent residents, persons who have been granted permission to reside and work or CARICOM nationals.

The types of permits available are:

- Short-term /training attachment: valid for a period of up to eleven months.
- Long-term: valid for a period of up to 5 years.

Students

Persons who wish to attend an educational institution in Barbados must apply for and obtain a student visa before entering Barbados. A student visa is valid for one year.

When the course of study is of longer duration than one year, the visa can be renewed at the end of the year. Special Entry Permits

These permits are typically granted to non-national retirees who own residential property in Barbados And are able to support themselves.

Acquisition of Nationality

Barbadian nationality is acquired through birth, descent, registration or naturalization.

Nationality by birth

Every person who, having been born in Barbados, was on 29th November, 1966 a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies, is deemed to be a citizen at birth of Barbados. In addition,

every person born in Barbados after 29th November 1966 is a citizen of Barbados at the date of his birth.

Nationality by descent

- A person born outside Barbados after November 29th 1966 is a citizen of Barbados at the date of his birth if at that date his father is a citizen of Barbados.
- A person who, having been born outside Barbados, and being on November 29th, 1966 a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies, if, if his father becomes a citizen of Barbados on November 30th, 1966, also a citizen.
- A person born outside Barbados after 29th November 1966 is a citizen of Barbados at the date of his birth if at the date of the birth at least one of his parents is a citizen of Barbados who was born in Barbados.
- Finally a person born outside Barbados after 29th November 1966 shall be deemed to be a citizen of Barbados at the date of his birth if he is born to a citizen of Barbados who at the date of the birth was in the service of Barbados in a diplomatic or consular capacity.

Nationality by registration or naturalization

The following persons can obtain Barbadian nationality by registration or naturalization:

- 1) Any person who on 29th November 1966 is a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies,
- 2) Any woman who on 29th November was or has been married to a citizen of Barbados or one entitled to be a citizen of Barbados before dying.
- 3) Any person who is a Commonwealth citizen (otherwise than by virtue of being a citizen of Barbados) and who has been a resident in Barbados continuously for a period of seven years or more at any time before 30th November 1966
- 4) Any woman who on 29th November 1966 is or has been married to a person who subsequently becomes a citizen of Barbados by registration is entitled, upon making application, and, if she is a British protected person or an alien, upon taking the oath of allegiance, to be registered as a citizen of Barbados.
- 5) A person who has been ordinarily resident in Barbados throughout the period of ten years (or a prescribed longer period) immediately preceding the person's application;
- 6) A person who has been married to a citizen of Barbados, and has cohabited with that citizen, for a prescribed period immediately preceding the person's application.

Regularization of Status

From June 1, 2009, undocumented CARICOM nationals who entered Barbados prior to December 31, 2005 and remained undocumented for a period of eight years or more were given the opportunity by the government of Barbados to have their status regularized. If they enter less than eight years prior to December 31, 2005, they were granted permission to reside and work so long as they were of good character.

These provisions offered a significant number of CARICOM nationals the opportunity to regularize their status and become established in the country.

Unauthorized immigrants can also regularize their stay by applying for any of the standard permitted entrant categories, provided they qualify.

Refugees

Barbados is not a signatory to the 1951 Convention and the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees. When asylum cases are identified, the UNCHR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees) examines and decides on the claims (UNHCR, 2012). According to UNCHR, there are no asylum seekers or refugees in Barbados at the current time and there have been no refugee or asylum cases reported in recent years.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Barbados						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	2007	2008	2009	2010		
Permanent	0.9	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.0	336
Temporary	42.7	38.2	28.2	22.0	32.8	6 010
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	181	108	56.4	32.1		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	1	58	0.3	17.3		
Others	139	170	43.3	50.6		
Total	321	336	100.0	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	5 061	3 535	65.7	58.8		
International study	2 602	2 458	33.8	40.9		
Others	37	17	0.5	0.3		
Total	7 700	6 010	100.0	101.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	860	770	770	620	760	700
of which to the United States	690	590	600	470	590	540
Canada	140	140	130	130	140	130
Japan	10	10	10	10	10	10
Germany	10	10	10	10	10	10
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	...	...	...	...	...	...
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	4.0	3.0	3.1	2.2	2.1	
Natural increase	8.2	7.3	4.5	2.2	2.1	
Net migration	-4.2	-4.3	-1.4	0.0	0.0	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	8.2	8.9	9.7	10.4	10.9	28
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	2.3	4.0	- 3.7	0.2	1.1	
GDP/per capita	1.9	3.6	- 4.1	0.2	0.9	14 895
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				72.9	80.5
	Employment rate				71.1	77.4
	Unemployment rate				2.5	3.7
Men	Participation rate				73.5	85.8
	Employment rate				68.4	76.2
	Unemployment rate				6.9	11.2

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BELIZE

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Belize is the only country in Central America where English is the official language. It was a British colony until 1964 when it was granted self-government by Great Britain, and became fully independent in 1981. Apart from its heterogeneity, a consequence of European colonization, the introduction of African slavery and the migration of numerous other cultural communities over the last 200 years, one of Belize's most prominent features is its small population in relation to its geographic size. According to the 2010 census, the total population is 322,453 of which 14.2% constitutes foreigners. In relative terms, Belize is the Central American country that has received the largest foreign population since 1983 (IOM, 2010). These factors have caused a massive shift in Belize's socio-cultural landscape over the last three decades as a massive influx of persons from neighboring Central American countries has coincided with past large emigration rates.

Immigration and Emigration

By the time Belize gained its independence, emigration was already a central characteristic of Belizean society. The first large-scale emigration occurred during the 1940s and 1950s, when over 1,000 Belizean men were recruited for work in agriculture and industry during World War II because of labor shortages in the United States. Many others also left to work in the Panama Canal Zone (Miller, 1993). In 1961, natural disaster further encouraged large-scale emigration when Hurricane Hattie devastated large swaths of the country (Babcock and Conway, 2000). The 1970s were a continued period of emigration, especially for women who earned their living as live-in domestics or were attracted by the (low-wage) service sector in the United States (Babcock and Conway, 2000). The yearly rate of emigration averaged approximately 3,000 per year in the 1980s and about 2,100 per year in the 1990s (Mahler and Ugrina, 2006). On average, eighty-four percent left for the United States, while five percent went to other Central American countries (Mahler and Ugrina, 2006). This significant emigration of Belizeans which occurred in the 1980's and early 1990s was largely in response to the economic crisis following independence (Barry, 1995).

The well documented political unrest in the Central American region during the 1970's and 1980's also led to mass migratory influxes particularly from Guatemala, Honduras, and El Salvador. Accurate numbers have been difficult to ascertain as many entered illegally and have settled in rural rather than urban areas. The UNHCR, however, in 1993 estimated that there were some 31,000 immigrants from Central America in Belize. At that time this represented 13% of the total population. Of this amount 35% were legal refugees, 25% legal migrants, and 40% were undocumented. Again, in 1996 UNHCR estimated that there were some 10,000 undocumented Central Americans living in Belize (Murillo, 2005)

The relationship between the large-scale movement out of the country and the influx of Central Americans is complex. For one, these movements have resulted in a replacement of the once largely English-speaking population with Spanish-speaking persons, a process now referred to as 'latinization'. Secondly, 'latinization' was accompanied by economic displacement, because the newcomers were willing to work for lower wages (Moberg, 1993). Owing to both immigration and emigration, a major demographic shift has occurred, causing a change in the socio-cultural landscape of Belize. By the mid 1980's it was estimated that one-fourth of all persons born in Belize resided in the United States (Pastor, 1985), however, much of this lost population has been replaced with Central Americans from neighboring countries.

The nineties also brought on an influx of immigrants from Taiwan and Mainland China as well as Chinese from Hong Kong. Much of this influx was in response to the now defunct Belize Economic Citizenship Investment Program (BEICP), under which many invested in a Belizean citizenship via a contribution of US\$ 25,000 per family to the BEICP fund (Immigration Department, 2012). Between 1990 and 1994, 8,578 permanent residency papers were approved for Asian immigrants (Immigration and Nationality Service, 1995) (which corresponds to about 4 percent of an estimated 1996 total population of 222,000 (Statistical Institute of Belize).

The net effect of migration contributed to a population increase at a rate of 2.6% per year. The 2010 Census recorded approximately 46,000 foreign-born, a 35 percent increase from the 2000 census. Central Americans represent almost three-quarters of these foreigners, 41 percent of whom were from Guatemala, 15 percent from El Salvador, and 15 percent from Honduras (2010 Census). The percentage of foreign-born in the total population reached a high point in 1995, with international immigrants comprising almost 18 percent of the total population. This number dropped to 14.5 percent in the year 2000 with recent statistics still showing a downward trend (Census 2010).

Although the emigration rate has fallen, educated Belizeans are still at the forefront of those leaving the country. As noted in the country's official 2000 census report, half of emigrants held high school degrees while the percentage with post-high school education exiting the country was 64 percent above the rate recorded in 1991 (Mahler and Ugrina, 2006).

However, while losses attributed to skilled emigration may translate into a 'brain drain' on the labor force and the dangers of an export economy remain a real threat; immigration to Belize has proven to have considerable impact on Belize's socio-economic development.

Finally, due to emigration, remittances are also a growing factor in the country's development. Remittances, the transfer of money by a foreign worker to his or her home country, account for 5.4 % of GDP (gross domestic product). The total amount of remittances in 2010 reached 76 million US dollars. These remittances amount to approximately a third of the income generated from tourism and 30% more than the combined value of two of the country's main export products: shrimp and sugar (Central Bank of Belize, 2012).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Belize has a parliamentary democracy and is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. The structure of government is based on the British parliamentary system, and the legal system is modeled on the Common Law of England.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

The law regulating entry, stay and exit is the Belizean Immigration Act (Chapter 156).¹

There are several ways to legally visit or live in Belize, all with different benefits and challenges and with different requirements.

Visitor permit

Tourists, temporary visitors or expatriates who do not yet qualify for residency will require a permit or visa.

A person entering Belize as a visitor is required to have visas issued by a diplomatic or consular officer of Belize or by the country that acts on behalf of Belize in the country of issue, except: citizens

of Commonwealth countries; nationals of countries with which Belize has concluded visa abolition agreements; citizens of the United States of America entering Belize for a period of less than six months; persons who are passengers on tourist vessels and who intend to remain in Belize only during the stay of the vessel by which they arrived and to depart by the same; transit passengers, provided that such passengers do not intend to remain in Belize for more than seven days and are in possession of a ticket and of such valid documents as will permit them to enter the country of their destination; nationals of the European Union (EU).

Retired persons incentive program

Anyone forty-five years and older can qualify for the program. A person who qualifies can also include his or her dependents in the program. Dependents include spouses and children under the age of eighteen. However, the program can include children up to the age of twenty-three if they are enrolled in a university.

To be designated a Qualified Retired Person under the program; applicants must receive a monthly income of not less than U.S. dollars of \$2,000 through a pension or annuity that has been generated outside of Belize. A Qualified Retired Person shall be exempt from the payment of all taxes and duties on all income or receipts, which accrue to him or her from a source outside of Belize whether that income is generated from work performed or from an investment.

Belize permanent residency

Applications for Belize Permanent Residence are made to the Belize Immigration Department in the City Of Belmopan after residing continuously in Belize for one year and not leaving the territory for a period of 14 consecutive days during this time.

The requirements to apply for the permanent resident status include: 1) the required Permanent Residency Application form, 2) an HIV test, 3) a recent police certificate of no criminal convictions, and 4) two recommendations from individuals who have known the applicant for at least one year. These individuals are usually ministers of religion, registered medical practitioners, attorneys, Heads of a Government Departments or Justices of the Peace.

Work permit

According to Chapter 29 of the Labor Act of 2000, employment of foreign citizens is possible under certain circumstances. There are two types of work permit applications in Belize:

a) Application for permission to employ a foreigner:

Any foreign citizen who wishes to work in Belize must be a legal resident (have resided in Belize for at least six months) with proper visas and/or permits issued by the Immigration Department. At the same time, the Labor officer must be satisfied that all efforts to employ a national have been exhausted. This includes providing proof that the vacant position was advertised locally for at least three weeks, following which no suitable applicant was found.

b) Application for Temporary Self-Employment:

This category would apply to foreign investors, among others. All applicants must be in the country legally, with proper visas and/or permits issued by the Immigration Department. They are required to produce proof of reasonably sufficient funds for their proposed venture (i.e.: local bank statement of account). Applicants must also obtain a reference from the relevant Ministry or Local Organization concerned with the category of work involved. In such situations, the six-month residency

requirement is waived, and it is assumed that the venture will lead to creation of employment for nationals in the future.

Acquisition of Nationality

Belizean nationality by birth

Belizean citizenship is acquired by *jus soli* (right by soil) or by *jus sanguinis* (right by blood) According to section 23 of the Constitution of Belize every person is a national i) if they were born in Belize immediately before Independence Day ii) if they were born in Belize but were citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies before Independence Day, iii) if they were born outside Belize but at the date of their birth, their father or mother were citizens of Belize.

Nationals of Belize by birth or descent who acquire the citizenship of any other country may, if the laws of the other country so permit retain their Belize citizenship.

Belizean nationality by naturalization

Many people choose to remain permanent residents and do not apply for nationality status. But for those who want to become a Belizean citizen, thus gaining the right to vote, the rules are relatively straightforward. The documents required are very similar to those needed to acquire permanent residency. The applicant must be a permanent resident for five years before applying and will have to pass a citizenship test. If the applicant is a spouse or dependent of a citizen, the application can be made after one year of residency, instead of five.

Regularization of status

In recognition of its constitution as a state of cultural and ethnic diversity and in a bid to reduce the number of workers outside the formal economy, the Government of Belize in 1999 embarked on a program to regularize the situation of immigrants by granting temporary work permits and citizenship, as applicable, to Central American immigrants.

Beneficiaries of the amnesty included individuals with no legal status who had resided in Belize for at least four years, families with children born in Belize and persons married to a Belizean citizen. These categories include significant numbers of refugees from neighboring Central American countries who entered Belize in the 1980s and early 1990s but never regularized their stay. Approximately 4,709 migrants benefited from the program (Moore and Williams, 2008).

Refugees

Legal provisions for refugees in Belize are regulated by the Belize Refugees Act of 2000 in accordance with the provisions set by the Convention on the Status of Refugees of 1951. The law provides that people seeking refugee status are entitled to remain in Belize until their applications have been heard, and if their applications have not been approved, they can remain until all avenues of appeal have been exhausted, up to three months after the close of appeals if the decision was not reversed. This provision allows refugees to make adequate arrangements to depart Belize. Under the said Act, every recognized refugee shall be accorded the rights of a resident, and as per the Convention, be subject to all laws in force in Belize. They shall also be afforded reasonable opportunity to work and to contribute to the development of Belize.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Belize						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Permanent	na	na	na	2.5	2.5	na
Temporary	6.1	9.7	na	na	7.9	2 912
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
	na	na	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	2 912	na	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	1 150	1 230	1 210	1 190	1 200	1 200
of which to the United States	1 070	1 080	1 040	970	1 040	1 010
Mexico		40	70	110	60	90
Canada	30	50	40	40	40	40
Japan	10	20	20	30	20	30
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	7	23	79	80	47	25
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	27.5	29.3	25.7	22.9	20.7	
Natural increase	32.8	31.2	27.3	23.6	21.4	
Net migration	-5.3	-1.9	-1.7	-0.7	-0.7	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	16	17.5	14.5	14.4	15.0	47
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	- 0.8	9.2	0.0	9.2	2.3	
GDP/per capita	9.2	0.8	- 2.0	0.6	3.1	4 041
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				70.8	68.3
	Employment rate				69.8	59.3
	Unemployment rate				1.4	13.1
Men	Participation rate				80.4	80.3
	Employment rate				68.9	73.1
	Unemployment rate				14.4	8.9

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BOLIVIA

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The region that is now known as Bolivia has been constantly occupied for over 2,000 years. The Tiwanaku and Moxo peoples developed advanced architectural and agricultural techniques before disappearing in the thirteenth century. Around 1450, the Quechua-speaking Incas entered the area of modern highland Bolivia and added it to their empire, which they controlled until the Spanish conquest in 1525 (Global Edge, 2012).

During most of the Spanish colonial period, Bolivian silver mines produced much of the Spanish empire's wealth. In fact the silver-mining city of Potosí, for many years, was the richest and largest city in the Americas. It had 160,000 residents in 1660. Since imported African slaves often died doing strenuous mining work in cold and high altitudes, indigenous populations did much of the mining. However, African slaves became an Aymara-speaking subculture in the Yungas, which they colonized for coca cultivation (Global Edge, 2012 and Hudson and Hanratty, 1989).

Independence was proclaimed in 1809. Sixteen years of struggle followed before the establishment of the republic on August 6, 1825. In the late 1800s, an increase in world silver prices brought Bolivia prosperity and political stability, but tin eventually replaced silver as the country's most important source of wealth during the early part of the 20th century. Successive governments controlled by economic and social elites followed (Global Edge, 2012).

Immigration

While Bolivia, in more contemporary times, has been characterized as a country of emigration, the Bolivian State has at different periods of its history promoted international migration with the goal of populating its lands, especially those in the eastern part of the country (Hudson and Hanratty, 1989). The groups that came during the 20th century were mostly Jews, Mennonites, and Japanese (IOM, 2012).

From its beginnings, the country adopted a policy of openness towards immigrants. Through the First Law by Antonio José de Sucre on May 24, 1826, it was established that "men of all peoples and nations are invited to come to Bolivia, where their civil liberties have the full guarantees of Bolivian law" (Torales, González and Pérez Vichich, 2003). "One of the greater duties of the country is to increase the population, which would make Bolivia a far wealthier country and to do so the country has to motivate migration". (Pereira, 2011).

The growth of the Bolivian population was constant but slow, with the exception of a significant decrease experienced in 1900. This historical event, in many ways, laid the foundation for Bolivia's immigration policy. In an effort to protect national territory, Bolivia actively recruited immigrants to populate vast parts of the country as well as to avoid invasion from neighboring countries that might result in further loss of territory (USA International Business Publication, 2005).

In 1926, the Bolivian State passed a law that exempted from taxation those immigrants who settled in the national territory with productive ends (National Report from Bolivia, 2012). This law alluded for the first time to the administration and regulation of labor migration flows, establishing that employers who wish to hire immigrants must obtain authorization from the Office of Immigration. The Bolivian State also had a policy of promoting immigration through selective and planned immi-

gration, directed especially to rural areas. During the decades that followed, the country received small groups of immigrants. Beginning in the 1920s nearly 800 Arabs arrived, and between 1938 and 1941, between 10,000 and 15,000 Jews entered the country (Jemio and Pacheco, 2008).

Furthermore, in response to the significant exodus of Bolivian workers during the 1930s, the Bolivian State required that emigrants obtain an authorization. Failure to do so resulted in sanctions, mainly fines for violators. The regulations in this area prohibited consular representatives abroad from registering or offering any help to Bolivians who failed to meet this requirement. An executive order established repatriation insurance, which had to be provided by an employer to guarantee the return of Bolivian workers.

In 1950, a law was passed granting lands to settlers and authorizing the competent authority to issue a free title deed for up to 400 hectares of fiscal lands to every family of national or foreign settlers who would conduct agricultural or industrial activities in the departments of Chuquisaca and Tarija. Those who settled in the territory of Santa Cruz would enjoy tax exemptions and credit facilities.

Beginning in the 1950s, international migration gained momentum. Japanese immigration, promoted through an agreement between the Governments of Japan and Bolivia, led to the settling of 1,085 families (6,165 persons) in the territory of Santa Cruz between 1956 and 1977. At the beginning of the 1980s, however, the number of Japanese had declined to 1,400 people as many chose to leave for Brazil and Argentina and some to return to Japan. Mennonite immigrants, also settled in Santa Cruz, organized in eleven colonies. They, like the Japanese, experienced problems of adaptation, and because of their isolation, many left the country.

In 1976, a Law of Immigration was enacted which recognized immigration as an instrument of demographic policy, especially intended to create or drive population growth and achieve an increase in the country's agricultural production.

In accordance with this policy, there was an attempt to attract Salvadoran immigrant farmers, but it failed. Towards 1979, a group of Russian immigrants, coming from Brazil, settled in Santa Cruz. During the same period, entry was allowed to Chinese and Koreans involved in trade and minor industries, especially in the cities.

The total number of immigrants throughout the 20th century never amounted to a significant number, representing around 1% percent of the population between the censuses of 1976 and 2001 and never surpassing 100 thousand people. Bordering countries were the principal sources of immigration to Bolivian territory. As such, Argentines, Brazilians, and Peruvians have been the most numerous foreign communities to settle in the country, mainly to Santa Cruz, La Paz, and Cochabamba, places that have been characterized by greater economic development (CELADE-IOM, 1998).

Emigration

Emigration flows of Bolivian nationals abroad are rising in number. According to the latest National Census of Population and Housing 2001, the population stood at more than 8 million people, a figure that was projected to reach more than 10 million by 2010. According to information provided by consular delegations, it was estimated in 2009 that more than 20% percent of the Bolivian population lived outside the country. According to the same source, 60% percent of the approximately 2.1 million Bolivians residing abroad were in Argentina, 16% percent in Spain, and 12% percent in the United States, these being the three principal destinations for Bolivians (MRE Bolivia and General Directorate of Consular Affairs, 2009).

Argentina has been a traditional destination for Bolivian emigration. Data show that a Bolivian community has existed since the 19th century and has grown in size in recent decades, mainly beginning in the 1960s: 1) because of the economic crisis Bolivia experienced and 2) because of the demand for labor in productive activities such as sugar cane and tobacco cultivation in border areas (Maguid, 1995).

In recent decades, Spain too has become an important destination for Bolivians who wish to emigrate. This is a consequence of two basic facts: 1) the economic crisis that affected the Republic of Argentina towards the end of the year 2000 and 2) tightening of immigration measures for gaining entry to the United States.

According to the National Statistics Institute (INE) in Spain, in the 2001 Census¹ there were approximately 2791 thousand Bolivians in Spain. For its part, the Ministry of Foreign Relations of Bolivia has put forth the figure of more than 340 thousand Bolivians in Spanish territory, the five preferred destinations being Madrid, Barcelona, Valencia, Murcia, and Seville (INE 2001 and National Report from Bolivia 2012).

Emigration flows to the United States began in the 1970s and acquired greater momentum in the 1980s. A non-official estimate is that around 200 to 250 thousand people of Bolivian nationality are in United States territory. In fact, the Bolivian community is the second most important Hispanic community in the Washington D.C. Metropolitan Area (District of Columbia, Virginia and Maryland). There are also smaller-scale Bolivian communities in San Francisco, Los Angeles, New York, Miami, and Chicago (National Report from Bolivia, 2012).

The National Development Plan of Bolivia 2006-2010 established that the assistance and documentation of a Bolivian citizen abroad was a guarantee, protected by the State. A Consular Agency for Bolivians living abroad was created, with the mandate of providing emigrants with documents issued by public civil registries, such as birth, marriage and death certificates; police or criminal records; completion of academic studies; authentications; and others.

Remittances sent by Bolivian migrants to families left behind constitute some 5% per cent of the country's Gross National Product (GNP). Although the volume of remittances has decreased in the past two years due to the current international crisis, in 2010 they stood at USD \$937.2 million (IOM, 2012).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The principal legal framework on matters of immigration in Bolivia is the Political Constitution of the State of Bolivia and the Supreme Executive Order 24423, "Legal Immigration Regime," or "Immigration Law" (November 29, 1996).

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Three classes of immigration are recognized in Bolivia: 1) Spontaneous Immigration, b) Planned Immigration and c) Selective Immigration.

Spontaneous Immigration refers to entry made by foreigners into the country through their own initiative and resources.

Planned Immigration is directed by the State, whether directly or through government agents abroad, the intervention of foreign agents or international organizations, or through foreign governments or international non-governmental entities interested in immigration programs.

Selective Immigration provides for the settlement of investors, professionals, industrial or agricultural specialists, and skilled laborers.

Visas

In addition to tourist and transit visas, there are five types of entry visas:

- **Diplomatic and official** visas are issued to foreigners who hold a diplomatic or official passport by the Ministry of Foreign Relations of Bolivia. High-level state and international organization officials, as well as cultural and religious personalities, are the beneficiaries of a courtesy visa.
- A **visa for a specific purpose** is an authorization granted to foreigners who present proof of their specific purpose in the national territory or a work contract, whether of a cultural, artistic or athletic kind. It is valid, depending on the activity to be pursued, for up to 30 days, extendable twice for the same time period through prior approval by Immigration Authorities.
- The **student visa** allows a temporary stay of 60 days, extendable for up to one year, and requires proof of enrollment in an educational institution. It may be renewed for similar time periods, until the completion of studies, by presenting proof of performance at each request for renewal (certificates of study and grades), as well as proof of economic solvency, a current home address and good health in the form of a certificate of health.
- A **multiple-entry** visa is an authorization issued to foreigners because of justified business activities that require frequent entry into Bolivian territory. The visa has a duration of five years.
- **The courtesy visa** is issued to high-level State and international organization officials, as well as cultural and religious personalities.

Residence

There are three classes of residence: a) temporary, b) permanent, and c) for political or refugee reasons.

Temporary residence

Temporary residence authorizes a person to reside in the country for up to a maximum of two years, with the possibility of renewal. It may be issued upon request for those who have legally entered the national territory and may be extended to spouses and children.

Permanent residence

Permanent Residence authorizes foreigners to remain in the country indefinitely. It may be extended to the beneficiary's spouse and children. The following persons may be granted Permanent Residence:

- Foreigners who can prove they own real estate or stable investments in the country and professional experts who conduct independent activities that are of interest to the community and who have settled in the national territory and become integrated into Bolivian society.

- Those who have obtained an academic diploma in a Bolivian university or a Bolivian national title for exercising their profession.
- Retirees, rentiers, or pensioners who receive enough income from abroad to provide for themselves and their immediate family members and who wish to enter Bolivian territory in order to reside there permanently.
- Those with Bolivian children.
- Immigrants included in the immigration classes described above, namely 1) spontaneous, 2) planned and 3) selective.
- The spouse and children of those described above.

Residence for political refugees and refugees

Foreigners who have been granted political asylum by the government, as well as those who have been recognized as refugees by the appropriate national organizations, are issued a one-year residency, renewable indefinitely for a similar amount of time on each occasion until the causes underlying the need for refuge or asylum disappear. Residency is granted once refugees and asylees have registered with the Registry of Foreigners,

Foreigners who hold the right of temporary or permanent residence, as well as political and other refugees, are allowed to work in Bolivia as independently workers or for a third party. However, they must obtain a Work Permit, which is valid for the same period of time as the authorized residency and must be renewed upon expiration.

Acquisition of Nationality

Bolivian nationality is acquired by birth or through naturalization.

Acquisition of nationality by birth

Bolivians by birth are persons born in Bolivian territory, with the exception of the children of foreign personnel on a diplomatic mission as well as persons born abroad to a Bolivian mother or father.

Acquisition of nationality through naturalization

Foreigners may acquire Bolivian citizenship through naturalization if they 1) have legal status, 2) have been living in the country, without interruption, for more than three years, under supervision by the State and 3) have a desire to become Bolivian citizens.

The required period of residency will be reduced to two years in the case of foreigners who are in one of the following situations:

- Have a Bolivian spouse, Bolivian children or Bolivian adoptive parents. Foreigners who acquire citizenship through marriage with a Bolivian citizen will not lose it in case of widowhood or divorce.
- Have served in the Bolivian military at the required age and in accordance with the law.

- Have, through service to the country, been granted Bolivian nationality by the Plurinational Legislative Assembly.

In keeping with the principle of *plurinationality*, persons belonging to the diverse indigenous-native-peasant nations and peoples have the right to register their cultural identity alongside Bolivian citizenship in their identity documents.

Regularization of Status

Citizens of the Republics of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Chile who were residing in Bolivian territory on April 11, 2011, may regularize their immigration status by first obtaining a Temporary Residence of 2 years and later Permanent Residence.

This procedure will be applied regardless of the conditions of immigration in which applicants entered Bolivian territory and will involve an exemption from paying fees or other administrative sanctions regarding immigration status.

Documents required need not be authenticated. The certification issued by the applicant's Consular Agent of Origin is sufficient.

Refugees

Bolivia has adhered to international commitments on matters of refuge, in particular the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol.

As noted earlier, foreigners recognized as having refugee status will be granted temporary residence for one year, renewable indefinitely for the same amount of time until the causes underlying the need for asylum or refuge disappear.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Bolivia						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	na	na	0.3	0.2	0.2	2 278
Temporary	na	na	1.5	1.8	1.7	17 508
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	2009	Persons 2010	% distribution 2009 2010			
Work	97	150	3.9	6.6		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	1 078	1129	43.3	49.6		
International agreements	25	71	1.0	3.1		
Others	1 287	928	51.7	40.7		
Total	2 487	2 278	100.0	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	2009	Persons 2010	% distribution 2009 2010			
Work	3 697	4 118	24.5	23.5		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	53	386	0.4	2.2		
International study	6 386	7 026	42.4	40.1		
International agreements	181	2 126	1.2	12.1		
Others	4 750	3 852	31.5	22.0		
Total	15 067	17 508	100.0	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	62 570	23 660	19 090	20 570	31 470	19 830
of which to Spain	51 800	14 120	9 480	7 390	20 700	8 440
Chile	6 040	4 530	3 640	5 840	5 010	4 740
Italy	840	1 140	1 630	3 360	1 740	2 500
United States	2 590	2 440	2 840	2 250	2 530	2 550
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	19	5	4	5	8	48
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	22.2	23.0	21.2	19.2	16.4	
Natural increase	25.4	25.8	23.7	22.2	19.9	
Net migration	-3.2	-2.8	-2.5	-3.0	-3.5	
Foreign-born population	1990	Percentage of the total population 1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.5	146
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	2.5	4.4	3.4	4.1	3.1	
GDP/per capita	0.4	2.5	1.6	2.4	1.1	1 192
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					Percentages 2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				80.1	86.0
	Employment rate				71.8	73.2
	Unemployment rate				10.3	14.8
Men	Participation rate				91.1	90.9
	Employment rate				79.8	69.1
	Unemployment rate				12.4	23.9

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Ministerial Resolution 026/2011 (11 abril 2011)

Political Constitution of the State of Bolivia (February 7, 2009)

Supreme Executive Order 24423 (November 29, 1996)

NOTES

1. In 2013 the results from the 2011 Census will be released, which will present the updated numbers of Bolivians in Spain.

BRAZIL

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Historically, Brazil has been an attractive destination for immigrants. Since the time of colonization, this attractiveness has strongly influenced the demographic profile of the Brazilian population, which is characterized by great ethnic diversity. Beginning in the second half of the 20th century, the country has also experienced significant emigration due to an economic crisis as well as political instability that led to a military coup d'état in 1964 (Hudson, 1997). Both events accelerated rural-urban migration as well as international migration.

Immigration

The largest group of immigrants in Brazil, aside from the Portuguese colonizers, came as slaves from Sub-Saharan Africa. Between the 16th and 19th centuries, millions of blacks were forced to cross the Atlantic Ocean bound for Brazil, to work as slave labor. According to the Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística (IBGE), the total number of Africans transported to Brazil was approximately 4 million persons (IBGE, 2000).

The arrival of voluntary immigrants started *en masse* after the country's independence in 1822.

The Brazilian monarchy, established after independence from Portugal, promoted policies to attract immigrants to the country's southern region, offering land parcels so they could settle as farm owners. It is estimated that between 1824 and 1924 more than 3.5 million Europeans immigrated to Brazil (Morner, 1978). The first to arrive were the Germans, and after 1870, the Italians. These two groups became representative majorities in the regions of Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul.

Notwithstanding, the greatest migration movement began in the mid-1880s and showed significant differences in comparison with movements from previous decades. The objective was no longer mainly to attract families who would become small landowners but also to obtain farm labor for the cultivation of coffee, which was greatly expanding in the state of São Paulo. Mass immigration replaced black slave workers during a crisis in the slave system and its subsequent abolition in 1888 (Hudson, 1997).

The nineteenth century was the beginning of a period of large repeated migration waves from European countries to the previously colonized countries, a huge transoceanic movement which continued until the start of the First World War. After the first wave of migration, information about opportunities was transmitted by the first migrants back to the home countries, which fuelled further movements. New arrivals were often assisted by already established relatives providing accommodation and employment. This phenomenon, known as chain migration, played a key role in the Americas (Moch, 2003). The United States, Argentina and Brazil, in that order, were the main receivers of immigrants in the hemisphere (Fausto, 2004).

Between 1872 and 1930, the number of immigrants to Brazil reached 4.1 million, mainly from Portugal, Italy, Japan, and Germany (Levy, 1973). It is worth noting that during this period, immigrants from the Arab world, largely of Syrian-Lebanese origin and involved mostly in trade and commerce, also arrived in the country, fleeing economic difficulties (Fausto, 2004). During the coffee industry crisis (1903-1904), however, net migration into Brazil actually turned negative. Before the crisis, until 1923, one of the distinctive traits of immigration in São Paulo was the fact that in many cases it had been subsidized by the State, especially in the early years.¹ After state programs to support coffee prices went bankrupt in 1930, this practice changed (Hudson, 1997).

Beginning in the 1930s, mass immigration abated, since the national policies of some European countries began to place obstacles to migration to Latin America, a typical case being Italy after Mussolini assumed office. In Brazil, the demand for a labor force for industrial development began to be satisfied, more and more, through internal migration. Residents in the northeast of the country and the state of Minas Gerais abandoned their regions in search of better living conditions in the country's southeast. During this same decade, only Japanese tied to micro farming continued to arrive in great numbers in São Paulo (Fausto, 2004). When the Italian government restricted subsidized emigration to Brazil, the Japanese filled the gap.

In recent years immigration to Brazil has become significantly diverse in qualitative terms. New nationalities have joined older ones. For example, persons of European nationalities have arrived along with immigrants from Brazil's neighboring countries: Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Bolivia, etc. Recently, Koreans also have become part of the city of São Paulo, due to the city's economic boom, multiplying restaurants and clothing stores (IDB, 2004).

Emigration

At the same time, Brazilian emigration became a strong force, beginning in the 1980s, reaching considerable levels in subsequent decades. It has been estimated that between 1 and 3 million Brazilians live outside their country of birth. Nevertheless, even taking into account the largest of these estimates, 3 million, this is less than 2% of the country's total population. The most common destination countries among Brazilian emigrants are the United States, Paraguay, Japan, the United Kingdom, and Portugal. The most important region of origin of these emigrants has been principally the southeast of Brazil, where there is a significant presence of settlements formed by the original immigrants and their descendants and, more recently, by North Americans. Family ties to the countries of origin and the presence of the migration experience in the culture of Brazil facilitate the decision to migrate (IOM, 2010).

In recent years, thanks to economic stability, the country has again become attractive to immigrants. Today, immigration to Brazil shows, as in the past, great diversity. Current policy is focused on the growing immigration phenomenon, which, however, remains at modest levels relative to the population of the country.

Despite the emergence of new movements of migrants, the main influx of foreigners into the national territory is driven by the recruitment of temporary workers (Brazil National Report for the SICREMI). These jobs are generally tied to the opening of multinational enterprises, the restructuring of public enterprises which that have been privatized, the launching of global projects, and the development of regional trade strategies.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Immigration to Brazil is addressed in the context of the Foreigner Statute (*Estatuto do Estrangeiro*), under Law no. 6.815/80, which is regulated by Decree no. 86.715/80.

Before the Federal Constitution, enacted in 1988, immigration law was developed with the intent of protecting national security and of protecting the labor market for Brazilian professionals. According to resolutions in recent years of the National Immigration Council (*Conselho Nacional de Imigração - CNIG*) – a board integrated by representatives of diverse sectors of the Public Administration and Federal Class Entities, new immigration policy is required to address the current migration patterns within the regional and national socio-economic context (National Report from Brazil).

A Draft Bill of the New Law of Foreigners (*Nova Lei de Estrangeiros*) is currently being considered by the National Congress for incorporation into the Brazilian legal system. The law is intended, among others, to regularize situations and procedures which, although not directly provided for in the current regulation, have become common practice by the country's immigration authorities and officers. The State objective is to provide the administrative tools that would allow for the documented implementation of the policy of immigration, with the goal of providing greater legal security to the administration and the public.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Current entry of foreigners varies with the visa obtained. Visas are granted abroad through the Consulate of Brazil at a particular place of issuance, except in the case of international agreements on visa extensions.

Types of visas

1. Transit – Applies to all foreigners passing through Brazil whose final destination is another country, so they may leave the airport transit zone. Allows a single entry into national territory, with a maximum stay of ten (10) days and is not extendable.

2. Tourist – Applies to all foreigners entering Brazil with the objective of visiting or seeking recreation but not intending to immigrate. The visa allows a maximum stay of ninety (90) days in the national territory, renewable once, for the same period and valid for up to five (5) years, depending on the reciprocity with the applicant's country of nationality. The visa offers the possibility of multiple entries into the country.

Tourist visas may not become permanent and holders are not allowed to exercise any kind of paid activity.

3. Temporary -

I- Cultural trip or study mission - Applies to all foreigners who wish to conduct research activities or conferences on some specific subject. The visa is valid for up to two (2) years, renewable for the same period, as long as the conditions that led to the granting of the visa are maintained.

II – Business trip - (Law no. 6.815/80, article 13, paragraph II): Applies to any professional traveling to Brazil with the purpose of doing business, without the intent to immigrate. The visa is valid for up to five (5) years, depending on reciprocity with the applicant's country of nationality; however, it allows a stay of only ninety (90) days, which may be extended once for the same period of time.

III - Artists and Athletes - The visa may be granted to artists and athletes, without employment in Brazil, for the purpose of attending events. The visa is valid for a maximum period of ninety (90) days per year and may be extended for the same period through the Federal Police Department before the visa expires.

IV – Student - The visa may be granted to students of regular courses (elementary, middle and high school, college, and postgraduate). The visa is valid for up to one (1) year and may be extended for the same amount of time, repeatedly, for the duration of the course(s).

V – Work - The visa is designed for those foreigners who travel to Brazil to conduct work activities with a business, with or without employment in Brazil. The business responsible for the entry and stay of foreigners in Brazil must first request a corresponding work authorization to the Ministry of Labor and Employment. The work permit will be granted for

a maximum of two (2) years, with the possibility of a single extension, so long as it does not exceed the previous term or is in the process of becoming permanent. Either case is subject to the regulations of current Brazilian law.

VI – Journalist - Applies to all newspaper, magazine, radio, television, and news agency correspondents paid by a foreign enterprise. The visa allows for a maximum stay of four (4) years and may be extended for the same period, through prior request to the Ministry of Justice, and before its expiration.

VII – Religious mission - The visa is designed for those who travel to Brazil with the status of a religious minister or who belong to an institute of consecrated life, a congregation or other religious order. The visa is valid for a maximum of one (1) year, and may be extended for the same period through prior request to the Ministry of Justice, before the expiration of the period of original stay. The visa offers the possibility of becoming permanent through a request to the Ministry of Justice.

4. Permanent - A permanent resident visa is intended for foreigners who wish to settle definitively in Brazil. The visa is granted by the Brazilian consulate jurisdiction in the country of origin or nationality of those who seek to settle in Brazil, under the terms of Law no. 6.815/80 as well as the Resolutions of the National Immigration Council (*Resoluções do Conselho Nacional de Imigração*, CNIg).

5. Courtesy – To be granted to the domestic employees of heads of diplomatic missions, diplomatic and consular officials accredited before the government of Brazil as well as foreign authorities, and the respective dependents of the holders of official or diplomatic visas (living partner, spouse or children).

6. Official - To be granted to the employees of international organizations, embassies and consulates, who are on official mission in Brazil and lack diplomatic status, as well as their respective spouses and children under eighteen (18) years. Allows a stay of up to two (2) years, or for the duration of the mission, following the principle of reciprocity.

7. Diplomatic - Intended for all diplomats, embassy officials who maintain a diplomatic status, the heads of offices of international organizations, as well as their spouses and children under 18 (eighteen) years.

Adjustment of migration status

Holders of Diplomatic, Official, Temporary V (with work contract) and Temporary VII (religious mission) visas may request a change of status to permanent. Furthermore, holders of diplomatic and official visas may obtain a change to Temporary I (cultural trip or study mission), IV (student), V (work), and VI (journalist).

Granting of permanent residency in Brazil

In a strict sense, only a foreigner with regular immigration status in Brazil may request permanent residency. It differs from the rule of regular stay only in cases in which a foreigner is protected by the principle of non-deportability (because he/she is the parent or spouse of a Brazilian).²

Stay in Brazil is granted based on the rules and regulations of Law no. 6.815/80 and the Normative Resolutions of the National Immigration Council (CNIg), which establish the criteria for the granting of permanent residency in Brazil.

In addition to the Foreigner Statute and the CNlg Resolutions, some already active international agreements signed by Brazil allow the granting of permanent residency in Brazil. Most of these instruments regulate the granting of stay through a prior change of residency from temporary to permanent. These are:

Agreement on Residency for Nationals of States Party to MERCOSUR and Associates

The signatories of the Agreement are Brazil, Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay, Bolivia, and Chile.

It establishes the granting of residence to Mercosur³ nationals who wish to establish their residency in another member State or associate bloc, in two ways:

- a. If residing abroad: One must request through the consular authorities of the country in which one wishes to reside the issuance of a permanent visa, to be granted abroad before entering the territory of the other State.
- b. If already in the country where one wishes to reside: One must request temporary residence, valid for two years, with the immigration authorities of the country of residence. The Agreement beneficiaries may request its conversion to permanent residency within ninety (90) days before the expiration of the two-year period of temporary residence.

In Brazil, requests must be made through the Federal Police Unit closest to the person's residency, and the conversion of temporary to permanent residence will be decided by the Department of Foreign Relations.

Agreement on the Granting of Permanence to Holders of Temporary or Tourist Visas between Brazil and Argentina

Allows the granting of permanence to Argentine national holders of any visa or even with an unauthorized immigration status in Brazil.

Interested parties must present their request to the Federal Police Unit closest to their residence. After the procedure, the request will be sent to the Secretariat of Foreign Relations for its consideration and decision.

Acquisition of Nationality

With regard to the granting of citizenship based on Brazilian law, the tradition stems from a long historical trajectory that began in the Constitution of 1824, in the time of the monarchy. In subsequent constitutions, like that of 1924 and even the current one, enacted in 1988, there were several changes to the granting of citizenship. The most important one was with the Constitutional Reform of 1969, which modified the Constitution of 1967 that gave rise to Law no. 6815 of 1980, which currently prevails. The law regulates the procedures for the granting, acquiring and loss of Brazilian citizenship.

A person's nationality may be original or acquired. The first is the result of birth and the second of modification or the acquisition of another nationality.

Nationality of origin

Brazil adopts the mixed system of attribution of original nationality, under the criteria of *jus soli* and *jus sanguinis*. Brazilian natives are defined to be those individuals who: a) were born in the Federative Republic of Brazil, even to foreign parents, so long as the parents were not in the service of their country, b) were born abroad, to a Brazilian father or mother, so long as either of them was in

the service of the Federative Republic of Brazil; c) were born abroad to a Brazilian father or mother, so long as they were registered in the proper Brazilian jurisdiction or reside in the Federative Republic of Brazil and chose Brazilian nationality at any time after reaching adult age.

Secondary or acquired nationality

An individual is considered to have secondary or acquired nationality when he or she becomes a citizen of a State through the expression of his or her will and not by birth.

The acquisition of secondary nationality may occur through naturalization, which in Brazil may be requested when the individual is the holder of a permanent record in Brazilian territory, and simultaneously meets with the following requirements of the Law:

- a) For foreigners from Portuguese-speaking countries must have one-year uninterrupted residence and proof of moral integrity;
- b) For foreigners from any nationality, must prove residence in the Federative Republic of Brazil for more than 15 uninterrupted years and be without a criminal record.

Types of Naturalization:

1) Common or ordinary: may be granted to foreigners residing in Brazil for four years, so long as civil capacity requirements are met in accordance with Brazilian law. They must also be registered in Brazil with permanent and continuous residence for a minimum of four years immediately preceding the request for naturalization. At the same time, the foreigner must know how to read and write in Portuguese, exercise a profession or own sufficient assets to maintain self and family, and be free of any accusations, charges or sentencing in Brazil or abroad for a serious crime that would normally require a minimum prison sentence, abstractly considered, of more than one (1) year.

2) Extraordinary: Intended for any foreigner residing in Brazil for more than fifteen consecutive years and having an interest in acquiring Brazilian nationality. The individual must also meet the requirements of the permanent registry and be without any criminal background.

3) Provisional: This type of naturalization is intended for temporary foreigners admitted to Brazil during the first five (5) years and who have settled definitively in national territory. In the case of undegraded persons upon reaching legal adult age, which in Brazil corresponds to eighteen (18) years, they may, - through their legal representatives - request provisional naturalization or permanent naturalization.

Regularization of Status

Brazil has adopted measures of an essentially humanitarian character for the purpose of facilitating the movement of persons and integration into Brazilian society.

Amnesty

Because thousands of foreigners have unauthorized migration status in Brazil, another measure is the regularization of stay of persons with unauthorized status — through the commonly known “amnesty” of the highest humanitarian character.

The last three amnesties granted to foreigners were conducted in the framework of the current Foreigner Statute. Between 1981 and 1984, approximately 27,000 unauthorized immigrants were registered with

the Federal Police, under the condition of “temporary” with the goal of obtaining permanent residency. Subsequently on December 2, 1988, was enacted, the provisional registry of unauthorized foreigners in national territory was established, and despite its limited spread, some 37,000 foreigners came to settle.

Finally, in 1998, Congress enacted a new amnesty for unauthorized foreigners. The law implemented the same parameters cited in the 1988 Law. Despite its visibility and the dissemination efforts which were made, including the use of institutional publicity in print media, radio and television, only 39,000 foreigners came forth. Many others, especially those belonging to lower socio-economic families, found it difficult to pay the high fees and remained in a unauthorized status.

To correct for a number of these deficiencies, a new law was proposed. Known popularly as “Amnesty,” the law allows the granting of Brazilian residency to unauthorized foreigners who entered the country on or before February 1, 2009. The “Amnesty” procedure was to grant without delay, through the Federal Police Department, a record that would guarantee the regularity of the applicant’s stay while obtaining an identity card for foreigners (*Carteira de identidade de Estrangeiros* – CIE), which is valid for two years of temporary residence.

This measure has regularized more than 45,000 immigrants, with the main beneficiaries being from Bolivia, China, Peru, Paraguay, and Korea.

Based on the data obtained from the “Amnesty”, it was possible to define the profile of unauthorized immigrants, who for the most part were men and women between the ages of 19 and 30.

The new law also provides for a change from temporary to permanent residency granted under the protection of new law. *Haitians*

The immigration of Haitians to Brazil rose after the earthquake of January 12, 2010. It is estimated that some 3,000 Haitians entered Brazil in 2011, most of whom went to the states of Acre and Amazonas.

Haitians seeking refuge in Brazil may be conferred regular stay until a final decision is made on their application, so they may benefit from government support, though the status of refugee is not recognized for people displaced by natural disasters. For this group, the government of Brazil ruled that requests failing to meet the requirements for refugee status could be considered as requests for residency with a humanitarian character.

Refugees

A refugee in Brazil has the right, in agreement with the Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees of 1951, to an identity card which proves his or her legal status as well as work and travel documents. The person under refugee status is subject to the duties of the foreigner in Brazil, in particular the obligation to obey the laws, regulations and measures adopted to maintain public order.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Brazil						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	17 060
Temporary	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	43 526
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	647	658	1.1	3.9		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	8 525	9 623	15.0	56.4		
International agreements	1 570	3 896	2.8	22.8		
International study	2	7	0.0	0.0		
Regularisation	45 880	2 838	80.7	16.6		
Others	227	38	0.4	0.2		
Total	56 850	17 060	100.0	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	37 374	43 526	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	107 070	87 960	63 200	63 040	80 320	63 120
of which to the United States	14 300	12 200	14 700	12 260	13 370	13 480
Spain	36 130	27 320	14 400	11 880	22 430	13 140
Italy	11 860	12 650	9 660	8 570	10 690	9 120
Germany	6 380	6 290	6 390	6 130	6 300	6 260
Per million inhabitants						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Inflows of asylum seekers	3	3	2	6	3	1 087
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	18.8	15.7	15.0	12.8	9.4	
Natural increase	18.9	15.8	15.1	13.4	9.9	
Net migration	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.6	-0.5	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	688
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	4.3	3.2	- 0.3	7.5	2.8	
GDP/per capita	2.8	1.9	- 1.2	6.6	1.4	5 610
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					Percentages	
					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				71.8	70.6
	Employment rate				65.8	60.9
	Unemployment rate				8.5	13.7
Men	Participation rate				88.5	87.2
	Employment rate				83.5	78.0
	Unemployment rate				5.7	10.6

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Laws and regulations

Political Constitution (1988)

Law no. 6.815/80 (1980)

Decree no. 86.715/80 (1980)

NOTES

1. The subsidy involved paying the family group's transportation by sea and to the haciendas, which was a way of attracting poor immigrants to a country with a climate and sanitary conditions that were not deemed attractive.
2. Through a constitutional mandate to protect the family unit (Article 75, II, “b” e “c”, of the Law 6.815/80).
3. Mercosur or Mercosul (Spanish: Mercado Común del Sur, Portuguese: Mercado Comum do Sul, English: Southern Common Market) is an economic and political agreement among Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay. Venezuela is in the process of becoming a permanent member state. Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru are associated member states. Founded in 1991 by the Treaty of Asunción, which was later amended and updated by the 1994 Treaty of Ouro Preto. Its purpose is to promote free trade and the fluid movement of goods, people, and currency.

CANADA

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

In 1867, the Confederation of Canada was formed as a federal dominion with the union of three British North American colonies, namely the Province of Canada (which was subdivided into the provinces of Quebec and Ontario), New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. This began a process of addition to the Dominion by the joining of new provinces and territories, creating in the process an increasing autonomy from the British Empire.

Immigration became a burgeoning force in the 19th century with a demand for labor by different industries, the railroad sector serving as an important example. It increased significantly towards the turn of the 20th century, as about half a million people immigrated to Canada in eleven years, from 1891 to 1902 (Carrothers, 1948).

Canada's population increased by almost 70% during these years, and in the first two decades of the twentieth century, the population doubled from 5.4 million to 10.4 million (Brune, 2010). Several push/pull factors continued to make immigration an attractive enterprise. Among these were: overcrowding and religious discrimination in Europe; perceived land shortages in the United States; the absence of a rigid social class structure in Canada; and The Dominion Lands Act in which the government gave free land (160 acres) to newly arriving immigrants (Brune, 2010).

Beginning in the late 19th century, Canada started to adopt policy measures to manage immigration. From relatively free entry between 1867 and 1895, this open policy progressively changed. A host of Orders-in-Council, the Immigration Acts of 1910, 1919 and 1952, and the Chinese Immigration Act of 1923 formalized the immigration system and, in the process, restricted admission to British, European, and American applicants, largely excluding migrants who could not trace their ethnic origins to Europe (Ray, 2005).

Beginning in 1962, regulatory changes were introduced that overturned many of these initial immigration policies. The Canadian economy was booming and was facing a serious labor shortage. As a result, between 1961 and 1971, many ethnic groups increased considerably in size.

It was not until the Immigration Act of 1976, however, that Canada ushered in a new era of immigration based on occupation rather than national origin. While Canada did admit refugees on an individual ad hoc basis, it did not immediately accede to either the 1951 United Nations Convention or the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees. Only in 1969 did Canada begin to institutionalize this international agreement with regards to the treatment of refugees, and in 1976, Canada adopted an open commitment (Ray, 2005).

As racial and national restrictions were removed from the immigration regulations, Asian and South Asian immigration mushroomed. It also became much more culturally diverse; a large proportion of immigrants in the 1950s were the Sikh relatives of pioneer South Asian settlers. However, the 1960s saw sharp increases in immigration from other parts of India and from Pakistan (Justus and Iturralde, 2011). Also important to note is the professional nature of this group of immigrants. In the 1960s, two-thirds of South Asian immigrant men were professionals - teachers, doctors, university professors and scientists. The 1970s, however, marked the beginning of migration from Fiji, Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago and Mauritius and the expansion of the temporary migration programs that had begun in the 1960s (Buchignani, 2010).

The United States represented the second largest source (after the United Kingdom) of immigrants during the seventies, accounting for about 20 percent of all immigrants to Canada during this time period. Of the more than 400,000 Americans who took up Canadian residency between 1968 and 1978, an estimated 50,000 were draft-age men and an unknown number of others, including family members of draft resisters, who emigrated as a direct response to the Vietnam War and other foreign policies (Kobayashi and Ray, 2005).

During the sixties and seventies, Canada also accommodated thousands of Cuban and Chilean refugees escaping regime changes at home (Justus and Iturralde, 2011). Canada's gates would soon be opened to Central American peoples over the next two decades as political and economic turmoil swept the region.

Between 1983 and 1996, about 700,000 Chinese (mostly from Hong Kong) came to settle in Vancouver and, to a lesser extent, Toronto. They brought billions of dollars worth of investment funds with them. The increased volume of Chinese immigration to Canada in the 1980s and 1990s contributed substantially to the growth of the Chinese-Canadian population, which rose from approximately 289,000 in 1981 to approximately 634,000 in 1991 (Li, 1998), and further to almost 1 million in 2001 (Statistics Canada, 2003). In contrast to earlier trends, since 1995, Mainland China has surpassed Hong Kong as the greatest source of migrants to Canada.

In the 1980s and early 1990s, a large number of Convention Refugees (i.e., people who were unable or unwilling to return to their country of nationality or habitual residence because of a well-founded fear of persecution) arrived from countries of the Arab world, notably Somalia, Lebanon and Iraq. During this period, approximately 13,000 investors and entrepreneurs came largely from Lebanon, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates but with also a strong representation from Egypt, Iraq, Jordan and Syria. Like the Hong Kong immigrants, they belonged to the "business class" and reshaped the highly concentrated Arab communities that came before them (Abu-Laban, 2010).

African immigration to Canada also began to pick up momentum during the 1980s and 1990s. These immigrants included well-educated professionals and refugees fleeing political and economic hardship. The majority of these African immigrants came from South Africa, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Kenya, Ghana, Uganda and Nigeria (Justus and Iturralde, 2011).

By the 1990s, an average of 220,000 immigrants came to Canada each year, well above the annual average of the 1980s (125,000 per year). The most recent data suggests an increase to 240,000 per year since the year 2000, but generally speaking, the pattern has been the same. Over the last three decades there has been a shift in immigrant source countries, a factor that is reshaping the Canadian social, political and economic landscape. To put it in perspective, between 1956 and 1976, about 64 percent of immigrants came from the United Kingdom and the rest of Europe and only about 12 percent from Asia. By 2004, however, the flows had completely reversed, with only about 18 percent of immigrants coming from Europe and about 49 percent from Asia. An additional 20 percent of immigrants came from Africa and the Middle East, about 9 percent from South and Central America and the Caribbean, and approximately 3 percent from the United States (Ray, 2005).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Canada has a comprehensive compendium of laws and programs that regulate immigration. The cornerstone of the Canadian immigration system is the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act (IRPA), which became law on June 28, 2002.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Canada has a two-track migration regime, the first for persons coming to Canada on a temporary basis to carry out certain time-limited activities (study, work, training, etc.), the second for persons wishing to settle in Canada for good. Historically, attempts were made to keep the two regimes separate, to avoid the use of the temporary regime as a springboard for the permanent one. However, this was never fully possible because of, for example, marriages of international students to Canadian citizens. In recent years, special measures have been introduced to favour the permanent migration of persons already in Canada on a temporary basis.

The two regimes will be presented below. The temporary regime allows for the entry of visitors, temporary workers (which include a number of special categories) and international students.

Visitors and visa requirements

Generally, there are two categories of visitors, those who require a visa and those who do not. The particular category depends on the country of origin. The distinction applies to temporary workers and students as well as tourists. Persons wishing to stay on to work or study will need to obtain work or study permits after arrival.

Parents and Grandparents Super Visa: Parents and grandparents of Canadian citizens and permanent residents have a new option. As of December 1, 2011, they may be eligible to apply for the Parent and Grandparent Super Visa and visit for up to two years.

Temporary workers

The current temporary foreign worker program can be broken down into two broad segments. The first and most commonly recognized segment of the program deals with those who respond directly to employer needs including those with a validated labor-market opinion (LMO) from Human Resources and Skills Development Canada (HRSDC) and other foreign nationals in Canada tied specifically to the labor market. The second segment of the Foreign Work Program can be described as “facilitative” in nature and is not associated with a specific job or employer. Foreign nationals who enter Canada under the “facilitative” segment do not require a LMO from HRSDC and are not tied to a specific segment of the labor market. In addition, all temporary workers must meet the general requirements for entering the country and for staying (sufficient means, good health, no criminal record, etc.) as well as a work permit (see exceptions below).

There are four main categories of temporary foreign workers who require labor market opinion's from HRSDC:

- **Live-in Caregivers** - Live-in caregivers are individuals who are qualified to provide care for children, elderly persons or persons with disabilities in private homes without supervision. Live-in caregivers must live in the private home where they work in Canada and are eligible to apply for permanent residence after two years of full-time work.
- **Seasonal Agricultural Workers Program (SAWP)** - The SAWP allows for the entry of agricultural workers from Mexico and the Caribbean to assist in the harvesting of Canadian crops. The program provides a supplementary source of reliable and qualified seasonal labor to ensure that Canada's crops are planted and harvested in a timely fashion. The majority of workers are admitted in the second and third quarters of every year, reflecting the growing and harvesting seasons in Canada.

- Pilot Project for Occupations Requiring Lower Levels of Formal Training – An employer may be allowed to hire temporary foreign workers for a maximum of 24 months when there is a demonstrable shortage of Canadian citizens and permanent residents. In Canada, lower levels of formal training are defined as occupations that usually require at most a high school diploma or a maximum of two (2) years of job-specific training.
- Other.

People in the following categories need a work permit but do not need a labor market opinion from HRSDC.

- Workers covered under international agreements - Professionals, traders, investors and business people coming to Canada to work under certain international agreements.
- Under the *North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)* citizens of Canada, the United States and Mexico can gain quicker, easier temporary entry into the three countries to conduct business or investment activities or to be hired by an employer in certain specified occupations. The job offer is not subject to review and the visa can be obtained upon arrival.
- *Additional Free Trade Agreements (FTAs)*: the Canada-Chile FTA and the Canada-Peru FTA are modeled after the NAFTA and make it easier for business persons from one country to temporarily enter the other country. The rules and requirements are similar to those under NAFTA.
- *General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)*: Under GATS, Canada has committed to making it easier for certain business people who are foreign service providers in certain sectors to access the Canadian market. The commitments apply to service providers from more than 140 World Trade Organization member countries and in particular to intra-corporate transfers.
- Workers, their spouses/common-law partners or their dependants who are eligible for a work permit through an active pilot project - Through agreements between the Government of Canada and provincial/territorial governments, some workers, as well as their spouses, common-law partners and dependants, may be eligible for a work permit through an active pilot project. These temporary initiatives are designed to attract particular workers that the province or territory needs. Currently, there is only one active pilot project aimed at the software industry. To fill critical shortages in Canada's software industry, Canada has a simplified entry process for workers whose skills are in high demand in that industry, which does not require a review of the job offer.
- Workers nominated by a province for permanent residence - Generally, a person who has been nominated by a province for permanent residence and has a job offer from an employer based in that province
- Some provinces (Ontario and Quebec) have specific initiatives for individuals on their way to Permanent Residence.
- Entrepreneurs and intra-company transferees - Some types of entrepreneurs, workers transferring within a company and other types of workers who will provide significant benefit to Canadians or permanent residents by working in Canada.
- Participants in exchange programs - People whose employment in Canada will provide similar employment to Canadians abroad, such as participants in youth exchange pro-

grams, teacher exchange programs or other reciprocal programs.

- **Co-op students** - Foreign students who are studying in Canada and who need to do co-op work placements as part of their program of study.
- **Spouses** - Spouses and common-law partners of certain foreign students who are studying full-time. This exemption applies to spouses who are not themselves enrolled in full-time studies. Spouses and common-law partners of certain skilled foreign workers.
- **Academics and students** - Certain academics and students.
- **Religious workers** - People doing charitable or religious work.
- **Others** - Certain people who need to support themselves while they are in Canada for other reasons such as the refugee determination process.

Finally, there are some temporary workers in Canada for whom no Work Permit is required. These include:

- **Business visitors:** Business visitors” are foreign national who plans to visit Canada temporarily to look for new business opportunities, to invest or to advance existing business relationships. Their stay is limited to six months.
- **Foreign representatives:** Diplomats and official representatives of other countries or the United Nations and their staff.
- **Family members of foreign representatives:** A foreign representative’s spouse, son or daughter.
- **Military personnel:** Members of an armed force from another country can work in Canada without a work permit if they have movement orders stating that they are entering Canada under the terms of the *Visiting Forces Act*.
- **Foreign government officers:** Canada has exchange agreements with some countries for officials to work in each other’s government departments. Government officials coming to work in Canada do not need a work permit to work in Canada, but they must bring a formal letter of agreement if they will be working here for longer than three months.
- **Students working on campus:** Full-time foreign students can work without a work permit on the campus of the institution where they are studying.
- **Performing artists:** Foreign artists and their essential support staff, the people that are integral to the performance, can work in Canada without a permit under certain conditions that does not lead to them entering Canada’s labor market
- **Athletes and coaches:** Foreign teams, athletes and coaches who are competing.
- **News reporters, film and media crews:** An employee of a foreign news company who reports on events in Canada.
- **Public speakers:** Guest speakers, commercial speakers or seminar leaders can speak or deliver training in Canada without a work permit as long as the event is no longer than five days.

- **Convention organizers:** Organizers and administrative staff of international meetings or conventions. However, people providing “hands on” services at these events must have a work permit.
- **Clergy:** People working as ordained ministers, lay persons or members of a religious order whose duties may include preaching doctrine, presiding at liturgical functions or providing spiritual counseling.
- **Judges, referees and similar officials:** Officials at international amateur competitions who judge or officiate. This includes judges or adjudicators of artistic or cultural events such as music and dance festivals, judges for animal shows, and judges of agricultural competitions.
- **Examiners and evaluators:** Professors and academic experts who evaluate or supervise academic projects, research proposals or university theses. This applies to Canadian research organizations as well as to academic institutions.
- **Expert witnesses or investigators:** Experts who give evidence before a regulatory body, tribunal or court of law.
- **Health-care students:** Foreign health-care students can do their clinical clerkships or work in Canada short-term without a work permit if:
 - the main purpose of the work is to acquire training,
 - they have a written approval from the Canadian regulatory board responsible for their occupation
 - their normal training practicum does not exceed four months.
- **Civil aviation inspectors:** Inspectors who inspect the flight operations or cabin safety of commercial airlines doing international flights
- **Aviation accident or incident investigators:** Accredited representatives or advisers who work on an aviation accident or incident investigation conducted under the authority of the *Transportation Accident Investigation and Safety Board Act* do not need a work permit.
- **Crew members:** Foreign crew members, such as truck drivers, bus drivers, shipping and airline personnel who are engaged primarily in the international transport of cargo and passengers.
- **Emergency service providers:** People coming to Canada to help out in an emergency do not need a work permit if they are coming here to help preserve life or property. Examples of emergencies would be natural disasters, such as floods or earthquakes, or industrial accidents threatening the environment.

International students

In most cases, a study permit is necessary and the applicant has to meet the general requirements for entering the country and for staying (Depending on country of origin, this may mean obtaining a temporary residence visa). Also, before you can apply for a study permit, you must have been accepted at a recognized school, university or college in Canada.

Permanent residence

Skilled workers and professionals: Skilled workers are selected as permanent residents based on their education, work experience, knowledge of English and/or French, and other criteria that have been shown to help migrants become economically established in Canada. The province of Quebec is responsible for selecting its own skilled workers.

Canadian Experience Class: A temporary foreign worker or a foreign student who graduated in Canada may want to transition from temporary to permanent residence. This class of persons is considered to have familiarity with Canadian society and, consequently, to have the possibility of quickly contributing to the Canadian economy. Persons in this group should have knowledge of English or French and qualifying work experience.

Investors, entrepreneurs and self-employed persons: The Business Immigration Program seeks to attract experienced business people to Canada. Business immigrants are expected to make a \$CAN 800,000 investment or to own and manage businesses in Canada, and must meet certain experience and/or net worth criteria.

Provincial Nominee Program: Persons who immigrate to Canada under the Provincial Nominee Program have the skills, education and work experience needed to make an immediate economic contribution to the province or territory that nominates them. They are ready to establish themselves successfully as permanent residents in Canada. To apply under the Provincial Nominee Program, applicants must be nominated by a Canadian province or territory. Persons in this category are not subject to the selection criteria normally applied in the skilled worker programme. They must have a job offer, which need not be high-skilled and are generally required to have successfully completed secondary education.

Sponsorship: A Canadian citizen or a permanent resident of Canada can sponsor a spouse, common-law partner, conjugal partner, dependent child (including adopted child) or other eligible relative to become a permanent resident.

Acquisition of Nationality

Citizenship is granted to those born on Canadian soil, and it is extended to permanent residents who are older than 18 years and meet the requirements. Also, the law gives Canadian citizenship to certain people who lost it and to those who were born outside Canada that request it, but only by descent through the first generation.

Acquisition of nationality by birth

A person is a citizen of Canada by birth if:

- the person was born in Canada after February 14, 1977¹;
- the person was born outside Canada after February 14, 1977, and at the time of his birth, one of his parents, other than a parent who adopted him, was a citizen;

¹ Under the Citizenship Act, 1947, a person born outside of Canada in wedlock to a Canadian citizen mother and a non-Canadian father was not a citizen by birth. In 1977, the Citizenship Act was amended to allow -the person born outside Canada- to apply for a grant of Canadian citizenship for a limited time, until August 14th, 2004. After August 14th, 2004, if such an individual did not apply for citizenship, then that individual was not a citizen.

- the person was born outside Canada before February 15, 1977 to a parent who was a citizen at the time of the birth and the person did not, before the coming into force of this regulation, become a citizen;
- the person has been granted or acquired citizenship and, in the case of a person who is fourteen years of age or over on the day that he is granted citizenship, he/she has taken the oath of citizenship;
- the person was a citizen immediately before February 15, 1977;
- the person was entitled, immediately before February 15, 1977, to become a citizen under paragraph 5(1)(b) of the former Act;
- before the coming into force of this regulation, the person ceased to be a citizen;
- the person was granted citizenship under section 5, as it read before the coming into force of this regulation;
- under prior legislation, the person had been a citizen, other than by way of grant, ceased to be a citizen.

Eligibility

To be eligible to become a Canadian citizen, a person must meet the requirements of 1) age, 2) permanent resident status, 3) time lived in Canada, 4) language abilities, 5) criminal history and 6) knowledge of Canada.

Refugees

The refugee protection system in Canada is based on the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act.

The Canadian immigration system recognizes two kinds of refugees: 1) persons making refugee protection claims from within Canada, and 2) people seeking protection from outside Canada. Through both these programs, Canada generally accepts more than 25,000 refugees a year.

Through the domestic asylum system, a claim for refugee protection can be made at a port of entry or at a Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) office in Canada. Once an officer decides that a refugee protection claimant is eligible to be referred, the claim is sent to the Immigration and Refugee Board (IRB) for a decision on it.

Canada provides protection if the IRB determines that the claimant is a Convention Refugee (i.e., someone who is unable or unwilling to return to their country of nationality or habitual residence because of a well-founded fear of persecution) or a person in need of protection (i.e., someone whose removal to their country of nationality or former habitual residence would subject them to the probability of torture, risk to life, or risk of cruel and unusual treatment or punishment).

These “protected persons” may apply for permanent residence within Canada. In order to facilitate family reunification, applications for permanent residence for the family members are processed concurrently with the application of the protected person in Canada.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Canada						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	7.2	7.4	7.5	8.3	7.6	280 675
Temporary	10.8	12.0	11.3	11.3	11.4	383 920
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	64 005	76 565	25.4	27.3		
Accompanying family	89 460	110 350	35.5	39.3		
Family	65 205	60 220	25.9	21.5		
Humanitarian	22 850	24 695	9.1	8.8		
Others	10 620	8 845	4.2	3.2		
Total	252 140	280 675	100.0	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	178 265	182 285	46.7	47.5		
International study	85 190	96 140	22.3	25.0		
Humanitarian	34 230	24 840	9.0	6.5		
Others	84 440	80 655	22.1	21.0		
Total	382 125	383 920	100.0	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	35 350	43 760	36 940	41 910	39 490	39 430
of which to the United States	15 500	15 110	16 140	13 330	15 020	14 740
Korea	5 980	6 400	6 490	6 510	6 350	6 500
United Kingdom	nr	7 000	nr	6 000	6 500	6 000
Germany	2 830	2 860	2 650	2 890	2 810	2 770
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	859	1044	1009	663	894	22 543
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	13.9	11.2	9.1	10.3	10.5	
Natural increase	7.2	6.7	4.2	3.4	3.8	
Net migration	6.6	4.5	4.9	6.9	6.6	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	16.2	17.2	18.1	19.5	19.9	6 778
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	5.2	3.0	- 2.5	3.4	2.6	
GDP/per capita	4.3	2.0	- 4.0	2.0	1.5	35 223
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					Percentages	
					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				70.0	69.6
	Employment rate				66.8	65.8
	Unemployment rate				4.5	5.4
Men	Participation rate				85.4	84.4
	Employment rate				82.6	77.6
	Unemployment rate				3.2	8.0

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CHILE

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

In 1541, Pedro de Valdivia, founded Santiago, the capital of Chile, and for almost three centuries, the country was a Spanish colony. The country developed slowly, because it did not contain the wealth, gold and silver deposits which attracted Spanish investments nor was the indigenous population willing to labor for the colonizers. Chile's centers of colonization were far from the main centers of Spanish colonization in Peru. Over time, farming in the Central Valley of Chile became the chief occupation (Rector, 2005 and Hudson, 1994).

Black slaves made up a minority of the population in colonial Chile and had a special status due to their high cost of import and maintenance. However, slavery was abolished soon after the country declared its independence from Spain in 1818. The Amerindian population and the continuous influx of Spaniards from the mid-sixteenth century to the end of the colonial period defined the main body of the Chilean population at the time of independence—a mixture of native American and Spanish blood, but one in which the Spanish element was more important than in other Andean mestizo populations, largely because Chile was more isolated and less in need of forced labor than the other colonies. The economy was essentially a seasonal agricultural one (Caistor, 2005 and Hudson, 1994).

The political picture of the time, as well as the need to consolidate the independence and reaffirm the sovereignty over the national territory, took over the vital interests of the Chilean Government during those years. However, the last mentioned factor drove the Government to outline a timid and selective legislation on immigration matters, especially since the arrival of foreigners seemed to be a solution to the demands posed by the global economic development model, and also because it was perceived as a way to populate the vast territory over which it had nominal sovereignty (Ulianova and Norambuena 2009). Chile thus developed an immigration policy incorporating ideas of civilization, progress, and agricultural utopia.

Europe's demand for American commodities generated a growing need for labor to boost exporting economies in the region. (Ulianova and Norambuena, 2009). The thought was that in these countries of slow population growth, it was necessary to increase the population through a massive immigration program. It was considered that this population increase was the measure of a country's progress. In sum, there was land to cultivate, industries to develop and people to play a civilizing role.

The campaign to attract European migrants had two objectives, first that they populate empty spaces of land and second that they contribute to agricultural and industrial development plans (Ulianova and Norambuena, 2009).

Throughout the nineteenth century, Europe revealed an immigration avalanche difficult to attribute to an specific condition. Among the more general, due to the impact they had throughout Europe, the expansion of liberalism from 1830, the expansion of the Industrial Revolution and its immediate social consequences; the considerable political transformation due to agriculture modernization and the resulting changes in the demographic structure (Ulianova and Norambuena, 2009).

Immigration

During the mid-nineteenth century, foreigners residing in Chile did not exceed 20,000 (Pérez, Sanhueza and González, 2011). The newly independent government sought to stimulate European im-

migration, and beginning in 1845, it had some success in attracting primarily German migrants to the Chilean south. Foreigners from England and Scotland also came, and some established export-import businesses. Other European immigrants, especially northern Italians, French, Swiss, and Croats, came at the end of the nineteenth century (Caistor, 2005 and Hudson, 1994).

Towards the beginning of the twentieth century, the number of foreign-born reached 132,000, decreasing to a little over 60,000 by the 1982 census. In the last two censuses (1992 and 2002), the number of foreign residents has exceeded 100,000, reaching just over 184,000 foreigners in 2002, a figure double the number observed twenty years earlier.¹

In relative terms, the percentage of foreigners in Chile increased from 1854 until 1907 when the percentage peaked. At this time, about four out of every one hundred persons in the population were born abroad. In 1907 the percentage of foreigners decreased gradually until turning around in the 1990s when the share of foreign-born still represented less than 1% percent of the total population. Since then it has increased only slightly to above 2% in 2010. With regard to gender, the percentage of foreign-born men was greater than that of foreign-born women in the census data taken from 1907 to 1972, yet, the trend, during this time, illustrated an overall decrease in the ratio of men to women. While the 1982 and 1992 censuses observed a similar ratio of foreign men to women in the country, in 2002, the number of women slightly exceeded the number of men.

Immigration to Chile has historically come from its neighboring countries, namely Argentina, Bolivia and Peru, and from some European countries, Germany, Spain, and Italy (Census Data and Rector, 2005). Lately, immigration from Colombia and Ecuador has increased.

Considering the immigrants in Chile by continent, between 1907 and 1970, immigration from Europe prevailed as the dominant source region. It was not until the 1982 census that a change in the countries of origin was observed; at this point, immigrants from South Africa made up the largest share. It is worth pointing out that, according to the 2002 census, 53% percent of immigrants came from countries that shared a border with Chile (Census Data and Pérez, Sanhueza and González, 2011).

The Spaniards were the most populous group of immigrants between the 1920s and 1950s with percentages that oscillated around 22% percent. However, that relative Spanish dominance decreased as of the 1960s, dwindling to 5% percent of the total immigrant population in the 2002 census.

According to the 1907 census, approximately 21% percent of immigrants residing in the country were Peruvian. However, subsequent censuses show a substantial drop in this percentage, only to recover to the same level a century later. On the other hand, a decreasing trend of immigration from Bolivia to Chile is evident, going from 15% in 1907 to 6% in 2002. The opposite situation, however, is observed among Argentine immigrants, who, throughout several censuses, have demonstrated that they are a growing group. Although their numbers decreased somewhat in the 2002 census, Argentine immigrants have maintained their dominance, reaching up to 30% of the total immigrant population according to the 1992 census figures.

Overall, immigration has had a minor influence on the total population of the country. In terms of percentages, the foreign-born population has fluctuated between 0.7% and 4.1% of the national total. At the time of the lowest presence of immigrants (1982), there was one immigrant for every 100 inhabitants; at the time of the greatest presence (1907), there were approximately four immigrants for every 100 inhabitants.

Immigration to Chile, as documented throughout the years, is a result of economic and political stability; peak immigration rates can be observed at times in which the country went through

economic booms and social peace. According to data submitted by the INE (*National Statistical Institute*), during the saltpetre boom (1880-1910)², Chile had, in terms of percentage, the greatest amount of immigrants, a number that began to decrease with the 1982 economic and political crisis that followed the 1973 military coup and which did not increase again until the economic recovery of the 1990s.

The tracking of the most frequent immigrants throughout the censuses from countries that have supplied the greatest numbers of foreigners—mainly Argentina, Bolivia, Peru, Spain, and Germany—makes it possible to observe that in the first half of the 20th century men clearly predominated, with the exception of Peru in 1920 and Argentina in 1940 and 1952, years in which women predominated. Between the censuses of 1960 and 1970, men's predominance became weaker among foreign residents in Chile, and after the 1982 census there came to be a majority of female migrants in countries with the greatest number of migrants, with the exception of the Spanish and those born in the United States.

Chile, beginning in the second half of the 90s, has been experiencing a profound change in its immigration dynamics, becoming a host country for workers and their migrant families. According to recent data, some 350 thousand migrants live in Chile from countries of the South American region, mainly bordering countries (Peru, Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador and Colombia).

Today, it is possible to observe that migrants are more skilled than citizens in certain employment categories, make important contributions to the development of specific areas of economic activity, especially in areas where there is a crisis in the supply of labor. A good example is the situation of migrant workers—some of them undocumented—in the valleys of the interior of the Arica y Parinacota Region, in addition to the contributions of healthcare professionals in various parts of the country. This includes nationals trained abroad who, upon returning, have incorporated themselves into the work of the country.

The 2002 Census figures showed a percentage of foreigners in the country that barely reached 1.2% of the population, but with an increase of 75% compared to the 1992 Census. This is still some distance away from the rates shown in countries that have historically been population receivers such as Argentina (4%), and also from the 4% that Chile flaunted during the first half of the 20th century.

According to the 2002 Census, the largest percentages of foreigners in Chile based on their country of origin are from Argentina, Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador, Spain, the United States, Brazil, Germany, Venezuela and Colombia. Of the total of foreigners (184,464), 88,124 are men and 96,340 are women.

Emigration

Chile became a country of emigration following the 1973 military coup. Citizens departed for countries such as Argentina, Australia, Canada, Venezuela, and Sweden, several of which had open-door policies for refugees. During this period, more than 500,000 Chileans voluntarily left or were forced to flee the country (Doña-Reveco and Levinson, 2004 and Wright, 2004).

With the return to democracy after 1989, many Chileans and their families who had been living in exile returned, and between 1990 and 1993, the democratic government created a return program that attempted to attract former exiles and help them with their reintegration. Although this program was used by about 56,000 people, it also helped to establish contact with more than 100,000 Chileans living abroad (Doña-Reveco and Levinson, 2004 and Wright, 2004).

Additionally, during this time period, Chile began to experience increasing economic stability. This development, in conjunction with the deteriorating economic and political situation of other nations

in the region, made Chile an attractive alternative for immigrants. This attractiveness is reflected, in particular, by unauthorized migration flows. In 2001 it was estimated that there were anywhere between 15,000 and 20,000 unauthorized immigrants in the country, mainly visa overstayers (Doña-Reveco and Levinson, 2004 and Collier and Sater, 2004).

Currently, between 750,000 and 1 million Chileans live abroad (about 6% percent of the country's population), according to the latest governmental estimates in 2005. Despite its more recent draw for immigrants, Chile continues to have a negative net migration. Current governmental estimates show that for every one immigrant residing in the country, three Chileans are living abroad. The main receiving country has been historically Argentina, which has a strong demand for labor and has highly industrialized urban centers. Argentina has more than 429,000 first- and second-generation Chileans, the largest Chilean community abroad. Since the return to democracy in 1990, Chile has also seen growth in emigration to the United States and Europe, with Spain in particular being a large draw for Chileans seeking postgraduate studies (Doña-Reveco and Levinson, 2012).

The remittances from Chileans abroad are not very significant in the country's economy: by 2011 the remittances were about 936 million USD, which represented around 0.5% of the GDP according to the Inter-American Development Bank (Multilateral Investment Fund, IDB, 2011).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

In Chile, migration is regulated by a set of rules on immigration; Political Constitution of Chile; Law No. 1,094 of 1975 establishes the rules for foreigners in Chile. Supreme Decree No. 597 of 1984; Regulatory D.L. 1094; Supreme Decree No. 5142 of 1960, which sets the text of the laws on naturalization of foreigners. With regard to implementing them, the national system in charge of the immigration process is composed of several governmental agents that interact under the coordination of the Ministry of Interior through its Department of Immigration and Migration (Departamento de Extranjería y Migración).³

Currently one of the aspects highlighted in the field of immigration policy has been the process of discussion and elaboration of the foundation of a "New Immigration Policy" that takes into account the creation of a "New Immigration Law" with a "framework law" format to address the human rights of migrants, new immigration institutions, and the contribution of labor towards regional development.

This Bill would explain, among other things, new types of residency in the country, a new set of institutions with the creation of the Council on Immigration Policy, the creation of ties with nationals residing abroad, and procedures for recognizing titles obtained abroad. Similarly, it will seek to address the reality of immigration in border areas and the incorporation of migrants that perform work in the country under conditions of equality with national workers.

The objective of this Bill is to resolve the country's years-long immigration liabilities by offering regulation that positions and directs government and social activity toward the best management of immigration in Chile, based on the rights and duties of migrants and the responsibility of the State in immigration control.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

According to the current legislation, foreign citizens may enter Chile as tourists or as residents.

Tourists may remain in the country for a period not greater than 90 days, extendable for up to 90

more days, and, in exceptional circumstances, due to unavoidable occurrences, may be extendable on a one-time only basis, strictly for the necessary period of time. This category does not allow for the performance of compensated activities, except through special authorization.

The types of temporary residency established in the immigration legislation are:

- Subject to contract
- Temporary
- Student
- Refugee
- Official
- Crew members

Residents are those foreigners who enter Chile furnished with a temporary residency visa. They may remain in the country in this category for the period of the validity of the applicable visa that they have acquired en route to obtaining permanent status. They may or may not carry out compensated activities, depending on the type of residency visa they hold.

Having complied with certain requirements and periods, they may opt for a definitive permanent permit, which is granted to foreigners who wish to settle indefinitely in the country and perform any kind of activity, without other limitations than those established by legal provisions and regulations. This permit is granted by the Ministry of the Interior and requires one or two years of residency in Chile, according to the type of visa.

Change of category from tourist to resident

Foreigners who enter the country on a tourist visa may request the change from this migration category to that of a resident, particularly for a number of groups:

- Persons who have direct accredited family ties with Chileans (spouse, children, and ancestors) or with foreigners who have obtained residency in Chile;
- Professionals with a legalized title and accredited contracting;
- Persons on an official mission or who are claiming refugee status.

Acquisition of Nationality

Article 10 of the Political Constitution of the Republic of Chile dictates how nationality is acquired. It is determined by the place of birth in Chilean territory (*ius solis*) with the exceptions of children of foreigners in Chile at the service of their government as well as children of foreigners in transit.

The Chilean nationality can also be granted by right of blood (*ius sanguinis*) to children of a Chilean father or mother, born in a foreign territory.⁴

In addition, the Chilean nationality can be obtained by decree of the President of the Republic through a letter of nationalization. In order to obtain nationalization by decree in the form of a let-

ter, it is necessary 1) to be 21 years old; 2) to have resided continuously for five years in the territory of the Republic and 3) to hold a definitive permanent residency permit.

Finally, the Chilean nationality can be obtained by special grace, given by the Congress to those foreigners who have completed recognized services for the Republic of Chile.

Regularization of Status

During the past 20 years, institutions were developed for the regularization of unauthorized migration status or for those with a pending visa application. The last regularization process was carried out between October 2007 and February 2008. The regulation required foreigners to have entered the country before October 21, 2007.

Refugees

In 2010, the Republic of Chile adopted the “Refugee Protection Act” (Law No. 20.430). The law regulates the protection of refugees in Chile. It also addressed the international obligations contained in the “Convention on the Status of Refugees of 1951” and the “Protocol on the Status of Refugees of 1967.” Essentially, the “Refugee Protection Act” legislated the administrative procedure to apply for the recognition of refugee status; established causes for exclusion, cessation, and loss of recognition; and defined the organizations competent to determine the recognition of such status.

The regulation establishes the fundamental principles of protection to which a refugee has access, in which are highlighted the principles of non-refoulement, confidentiality, exception to expulsion, no sanction for irregular entry or residency, no discrimination, family reunification, the superior interest of the child, and freedom.

After petitioners file the application for the recognition of refugee status, the competent authority will issue the petitioner and the accompanying family members temporary resident visas for a period of eight months, renewable for the same duration.

Persons to whom the condition of refugees has been recognized and their families shall be entitled to a permanent residence permit, allowing them to enjoy all the rights that are granted by national laws and international conventions on this matter. The expiration or revocation of such permission does not entail the cessation of refugee status, which will survive as long as the conditions remain that gave origin to the status.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Chile						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	4.8	4.1	3.4	3.7	4.0	63 912
Permanent and temporary						
Permanent and temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons	% distribution				
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	35 381	3 267	62.0	5.1		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	6 885	8 419	12.1	13.2		
International agreements	2 420	9 474	4.2	14.8		
Retired	91	968	0.2	1.5		
International study	2 285	2 063	4.0	3.2		
Trainee	60	57	0.1	0.1		
Others	9 937	39 664	17.4	62.1		
Total	57 059	63 912	100.0	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	15 100	12 220	10 260	10 010	11 900	10 140
of which to Spain	9 630	6 720	4 260	3 830	6 110	4 050
United States	2 270	2 020	2 250	1 950	2 120	2 100
Germany	790	870	810	930	850	870
Mexico	120	250	390	430	300	410
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	45	52	..	15	38	260
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	17.1	17.7	13.6	11.1	9.7	
Natural increase	17.7	16.4	12.7	10.7	9.4	
Net migration	-0.6	1.3	0.8	0.4	0.4	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	16.2	17.2	18.1	19.5	19.9	6 778
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	4.5	5.6	- 1.0	6.1	4.2	
GDP/per capita	3.2	4.5	- 2.0	5.1	3.1	8 096
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States						
					2007-2008	Percentages 2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				69.7	72.1
	Employment rate				62.7	62.9
	Unemployment rate				10.1	12.7
Men	Participation rate				86.8	86.9
	Employment rate				76.5	75.3
	Unemployment rate				11.8	13.4

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Laws and Regulations

Supreme Decree No. 597 (1984)

Political Constitution of Chile (1980)

Law No. 1,094 (1975)

Regulatory D.L. 1094 (1975)

Supreme Decree No. 5142 (1960)

NOTES

1. The 2002 census was the last one taken in Chile, but between April and July 2012 a new census (*XVIII National Population and VII Housing Census*) is in process by the National Statistics Institute in Chile, which will update this information.
2. This compound was found in Northern Chile, a colorless or white crystalline compound used in gunpowders, pyrotechnics, fertilizers, and as a preservative for foods.
3. Decree Law No. 1,094 of 1975 establishes the rules for foreigners in Chile. Supreme Decree No. 597 of 1984; Regulatory D.L. 1094; Supreme Decree No. 5142 of 1960, which sets the text of the laws on nationalization of foreigners; Supreme Decree No. 125 of 1979, which delegates the allocation to authorize the departure of tourists irregular authorities indicated; the Decree No. 2043 of 1981, which delegates authority to change the status of the tourists; Decree No. 818 of July 13, 1983, which delegates authorities of the Interior Government powers regarding aliens; the Supreme Decree No. 296 of 1995 which determines the amount of duties payable for administrative actions relating to the granting of residence permits; Law No. 19,581 of 1998, which creates the income category in the borders, so that those who are in this situation can get a "local border card" by which they are given the ease of ingress and egress of Chile with just presenting it; and Law No. 20,050 of 2005, amending the Constitution of 1980. The amendments are made in order to recognize the Chilean's children that were born abroad and others who have direct interference in the regulation of migration in the country.
4. Overall, it is required that anyone of their direct line or second degree ancestors have acquired Chilean nationality by virtue of what has been established in sections 1, 3, or 4 of Article 10 of the Constitution.

COLOMBIA

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Colombia is a country of net emigration. Apart from the initial influx of Spaniards during the era of the New Kingdom of Granada (Spanish imperial territory from the sixteenth to the early nineteenth century that is now closely aligned with the territory of modern Colombia), international immigration towards Colombia has been traditionally rather low. This has occurred largely because of unattractive economic conditions as well as periods of conflict and political instability. Consequently, immigration has been scarce, representing less than one percent of the Colombian population, and has tended to be regional in character, primarily with migration flows from Venezuela and Ecuador (Orduz, Vallejo, and Melo, 2011).

While immigration to the country has been typically low, the history of Colombia has been marked by the internal movement of persons as well as out-migration. During colonization, for example, there were large internal movements, and then beginning in 1940, there was an emphasis on urbanization, with considerable migration from the countryside to the growing cities. Later on, migration was characterized by a permanent emigration abroad in search of better economic opportunities. Despite these changes, Colombia has continued to be a diverse nation, home to several ethnic groups and more than eighty native languages (Orduz, Vallejo, and Melo, 2011).

Immigration

With the exception of Spanish immigration and the introduction of African slaves (close to 30,000, according to some estimates) between the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries, Colombia was not a significant receiver of immigrants (Pinzón, 2001)

After its independence in 1819, the lack of economic appeal and successive civil wars offered few incentives for immigration. In contrast to other large countries in Latin America, such as Argentina and Brazil, between the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, Colombia did not encourage large-scale immigration. During this period, the country received limited flows of European immigrants from Spain, Germany, Italy, France, as well as the United States, Syria, Lebanon, and China. Each of these groups, however, influenced specific economic sectors depending on the region. Germans, for example, exercised an important influence on the economy, particularly activities associated with coffee, tobacco, transportation, and the banking system in a variety of regions such as Santander, the Atlantic coastal region, and Antioquia. Additionally, during this period, an intensification of Jewish and Arabic participation in several commercial sectors was also observed (Pinzón, 2001).

After World War II, Colombian policies promoted the immigration of qualified European technicians and agricultural experts, which attracted a large number of German citizens. In 1953, the Institute of Colonization and Immigration was created to direct the colonization of underdeveloped regions, and in 1958, the procedures for admission of refugees were specified. However, these measures were not put in motion since the country was immersed in a civil war known as “*La Violencia*” (The Violence), which took place between 1948 and 1966 (Hanratty and Meditz, 1988).

Since the 1960s, immigration has been primarily regional, with workers who come primarily from Venezuela and Ecuador. Despite the policies of 1993 and 2005 developed to facilitate the entry and acquisition of work visas, however, the flow of regional immigrants has not increased (Bérubé, 2005).

According to the 1993 population census, a little more than 100,000 foreigners resided in Colombia, which represented almost .30% percent of 37 million inhabitants. The majority of foreigners came from Venezuela, 41% percent or close to 43,300 persons, while Ecuador represented 8.5% percent or close to 9,000 persons. These immigrants found employment in commercial activities and also in the service sector as well as in agriculture and manufacturing. The rest of the foreign population came in much smaller numbers from countries such as the United States, Spain, Peru, Germany, Argentina, Italy, Panama, and Lebanon (Bérubé, 2005).

The 2005 census registered few changes, and the number of foreigners in Colombia only rose to a little more than 122,000. This same census showed that the total foreign-born population represented a reduced fraction of the total population. As of 2009, the most recent projections put the foreign-born at close to 0.2% percent of the total population (United Nations, 2009).

Emigration

Despite immigration trends towards Colombia being historically low, the flow of Colombians within and outside its borders has been high. Throughout the last century, Colombia experienced a demographic transition characterized by 1) an increase in the growth rate of the population and 2) an important process of urbanization. It is estimated that between 1938 and 1951 close to one million people migrated from rural to urban areas due to internal conditions resulting from “*La Violencia*”. The urban population increased from 31% percent in 1938 to almost 69% percent in 1993. This process, however, was even more significant during the 1950s and 1960s, with an increase of urban population from 39% percent in 1951 to 52% percent in 1964 (Flórez, 2000).

Since the 1960s, political instability has contributed to Colombia’s having the second largest displaced population in the world, between 2 and 3 million (UNHCR, 2006). This figure has grown since the 1990s due to the threat posed by *narcoterrorism*, the attempts of narcotics traffickers to influence the policies of a government or a society through violence and intimidation, especially in areas where criminal groups have had a major influence.¹ That situation drove many Colombians to seek employment abroad; however, this activity has decreased over time due to democratic security and social action programs that have counteracted terrorism and recovered the rule of law, protecting the most vulnerable populations.

The May 2005–2006 census calculated that, of a total population of approximately 41 million, more than 3 million Colombians lived abroad; other projections put the figure at between 4 and 5 million, or more than one person out of every ten living outside Colombia’s borders (Garay Salamanca and Rodríguez, 2005). The United States Committee for Refugees and Immigrants (2005, p.11) estimated that at the end of 2004, there were a total of 263,000 Colombian refugees.

The most recent census data indicates that, of the total Colombians abroad, approximately 35% percent live in the United States, 23% percent in Spain, and almost 19% percent in Venezuela (Garay Salamanca and Rodríguez, 2005). The United Kingdom and Spain house the two largest Colombian communities in Europe although there are significant groups in France, Italy, and Germany. The magnitude of Colombia’s unauthorized emigrant population is unknown, but partial data from the United States and Spain show an increase in recent years (Garay Salamanca and Rodríguez, 2005).

Remittances from emigrants totaled \$3.86 billion dollars in 2006, exceeding the revenues generated by coffee and coal. Despite their decrease in 2009 as a result of the international economic crisis, they have continued to be important in the Colombian economy (Bérubé, 2005).

Although recent trends show a decline in emigration, this movement is still significant in Colombian society (Orduz, Vallejo, and Melo, 2011).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The Political Constitution of the State underlies the current migration policy. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs is responsible for implementing the state's migration policy and coordinating with official entities at any level that are in charge of participating in their execution, pursuant to the provisions of Decree 4000 of 2004.

At the national level, Law 48 regarding migration and immigration of November 1920, established the foundations for Decrees 2268/1995, Decree 4000/2004, and Decree 2622/2009, that stipulate provisions for the issuance of visas, control of foreigners, and other provisions related to migration matters according to the objectives of national and labor development of Colombian workers.

In 2011, Colombia implemented the National Migration System as a tool to ensure the adoption and implementation of public policies to address the transnational perspective of migration, such as promoting joint studies and promoting bilateral or multilateral agreements between countries of origin, reception and transit.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Immigration planning in Colombia is based on global or industry development plans, both public and private. This determines the activities, professions, installation areas, and contributions of capital and of other nature applicable to foreigners wishing to immigrate.

The classes and categories of visas are organized in the following manner:

Classes

- *Courtesy:* All foreigners who wish to enter Colombian territory up to one (1) year and by diplomatic missions or consular posts to the term of ninety (90) days, with multiple entries and exits. This class covers foreigners who come to the country under the auspices of the International Organization for Migration; students, trainees, teachers and language assistants who enter under Cooperation Agreements signed by the Government; officials, experts, technicians or employees of international organizations under an international convention or agreement; among others.
- *Business:* Foreigners 1) who are the legal representatives, directors or officers of foreign commercial companies, industries or services that have economic links with a national or a foreign company in Colombia and 2) who can develop management activities for the business(es) relating to the interests they represent. These foreigners may be granted a period of residence for up to four (4) years with six (6) months per entry and with multiple entries and exits.
- *Crew:* Foreigners who are crew or members of an international means of transport or fishing boats entering the country. The crew's stay is authorized by the time of the conveyance in the country, but the validity of this visa cannot exceed one (1) year.

- *Temporary*: All foreigners who have entered Colombian territory to perform any of the following activities listed below. Their visas will be terminated if they are absent from the territory for a term exceeding one hundred eighty (180) calendar days.
- *Workers*: Foreigners entering to engage in the exercise of any lawful activity, paid, with authorization to remain in the country for a maximum of two (2) years with multiple entries and exits and with permission to work as employees of companies domiciled in Colombia.
- *Spouses or permanent partner of Colombian national*: for a period of up to two (2) years to the foreigner married with a Colombian national, or to the one who meets the requirements to be considered as a permanent partner, in accordance with national legislation
- Foreigners who are parents of Colombian nationals with authorization to remain in the country for up to three (3) years with multiple entries and exits.
- *Religious Workers*: Foreigners who are part of the hierarchy of a church, confession, religious denomination, federation, confederation or association of ministers, duly recognized by the competent authority or record certified by the Archdiocese, and who wish to enter the country to develop activities for their worship. The visa may be granted for a period of residence of up to two (2) years with multiple entries and exits.
- *Students*: Those entering the country to study at public or private educational institutions, recognized by the national government, with an enrollment of at least ten (10) hours per week or under student exchange programs. This class has authorization to remain in the country for one (1) year, extendable, with multiple entries and exits.
- *Special*: All foreigners who wish to enter Colombian territory: a) for medical treatment, b) to intervene in administrative or judicial proceedings, c) as a partner or owner of a commercial establishment residing in Colombia, d) as a pensioner, e) as a renter, f) as a volunteer for a non-profit NGO, g) for adoption proceedings, and h) for other cases. The visa gives permission to stay in the country for one (1) year, except in certain cases, which may be granted for two (2) years. This visa allows for multiple entries and exits.
- *Refugee or Asylum*: Those who may be recognized as refugees or asylees are granted permission to reside in Colombia for a period of three (3) years, and must be in conformity with any treaties or agreements on the subject that have entered into force.

Categories

Resident: To be considered as residents, foreigners must intend to settle in the country permanently. The visa will be terminated if these foreigners leave the country for more than two (2) consecutive years.

- Family members of Colombian citizens
- Qualified: Qualified Residency may be granted to foreigners who have been temporary visa holders for five (5) continuous and uninterrupted years and who have been in the country regularly. Requesters must present their applications at least thirty (30) calendar days prior to the expiration of the visa held.

- **Investor:** Foreigners who contribute a direct foreign investment as provided for in the Statute of International Investment and concurrent regulations.

Visitor: Visitors are foreigners who entered Colombian territory under the categories of tourist visitors, temporary visitors or technical visitors.

- **Tourist:** All foreigners entering the country for the sole purpose of developing leisure activities or entertainment. They May be granted a maximum term of one hundred eighty (180) calendar days within the same year with multiple entries and exits.
- **Temporary Visitor:** Every foreigner entering the country for the sole purpose of: a) developing journalistic activities to cover a special event (as long as the foreigner is accredited in that capacity), b) making contacts for trade or business, c) participating in academic activities, or d) conducting other business (special cases). Foreigners in this category may be granted a term not exceeding forty-five (45) calendar days within the same year.
- **Technical Visitor:** All foreigners entering the country with the sole purpose of providing urgent technical services to public or private entities. This category may be granted for a term not exceeding forty-five (45) calendar days within the same year.

Acquisition of Nationality

Colombian nationality is the civil bond between individuals born in Colombia, those born outside of Colombia, the children of Colombian or foreign parents by adoption, and the Colombian State. Colombian nationality is regulated by Article 96 of the 1991 Constitution of Colombia and Legislative Act 1 of January 25, 2002.

Individuals are considered as *Colombian nationals by birth* as 1) those persons who are born in Colombian territory, or 2) individuals who are children of a Colombian father or mother, who are born in foreign territory and who later reside in Colombian territory or register at a consular office of the Republic.

Colombian nationals by adoption are 1) those foreigners who request and obtain a letter of naturalization pursuant to law; 2) Latin Americans and Caribbeans by birth, domiciled in Colombia, who with government authorization and according to the law and the principle of reciprocity and who ask to be registered as Colombians in the municipality where they have established themselves; and 3) those members of native peoples who share bordering territories, upon application of the principle of reciprocity according to public treaties.

Colombian law establishes that no Colombians by birth can be deprived of their nationality and that this status is not lost due to acquisition of another nationality. Nationals by adoption will not be forced to relinquish their nationality of origin or adoption. Those who have relinquished Colombian nationality may recover it pursuant to law.

Regularization of Status

Currently, Colombia does not have a program in force for the regularization of unauthorized immigrants in Colombia. The last regularization process was conducted in accordance with Decree 3970 of 14 October 2008, which covered all foreigners entering the country before April 1, 2008.

There were a total of 1,914 foreigners of whom 35% percent were from China, 34% percent were from Ecuador, 14% percent were from Peru and 17% were nationals from Cuba, Argentina, Venezuela, Brazil, Costa Rica, and Spain, among others.

Refugees

The Decree 2450/2002 establishes the procedure for the determination of refugee status and dictates the rules to the advisory committee which analyzes requests and grants refugee status.

The Colombian legislation regarding refugees is framed according to the principles established under the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees executed in Geneva in 1951.

Pending resolution of the refugee claim, petitioners who are in an unauthorized situation may apply to the competent authority for a pass that allows legal stay in Colombia for a period of three (3) months, renewable for the same period of time.

Once refugee status is recognized, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs will issue a Colombian Travel Document and will grant the corresponding visa. The refugee status also covers the spouse or permanent partner as well as children or those financially dependent. Each of these persons will also be issued the respective travel documents and visas.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Colombia						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Permanent	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	3 352
Temporary	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	15 878
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	2 339	3 352	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	13 863	15 878	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	89 270	89 780	71 940	63 030	78 510	67 490
of which to the United States	33 190	30 210	27 850	22 410	28 420	25 130
Spain	41 730	42 170	25 560	18 090	31 890	21 830
Chile	3 340	4 390	5 310	7 190	5 060	6 250
Canada	4 830	5 000	4 240	4 800	4 720	4 520
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	3	2	8	3	4	161
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	20.3	18.7	17.4	15.8	14.6	
Natural increase	21.8	20.1	18.2	16.4	15.1	
Net migration	-1.5	-1.4	-0.8	-0.6	-0.5	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	16.2	17.2	18.1	19.5	19.9	6 778
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	2.9	4.7	1.7	4.0	3.6	
GDP/per capita	1.2	3.1	0.2	2.6	2.0	3 956
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States						
					Percentages	
					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				70.6	74.8
	Employment rate				63.5	61.7
	Unemployment rate				10.1	17.5
Men	Participation rate				85.2	86.9
	Employment rate				76.9	70.1
	Unemployment rate				9.8	19.3

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NOTES

1. For official figures of forced movement in Colombia per year, see: <<http://www.accionsocial.gov.co/EstadisticasDesplazados/>>. Accessed on April 15, 2012.

COSTA RICA

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Costa Rica has a complex migration profile due to a long history of immigration, emigration and transit migration flows. In the year 2000, Costa Rica was one of the countries in the hemisphere with the highest percentage of immigrants (7.8% of its total population, according to the 2000 census). This immigrant population was essentially made up of people from Nicaragua (76%), followed by Colombians (4%), Panamanians (3.3%), Salvadorans (3%), and Americans (Moraless, 2008). Flows of immigrants rose considerably in the recent past due to economic and socio-political factors. First, significant forced migration was the direct consequence of military conflicts in the 1980s (Central America) and 1990s (Colombia), as well as the increased severity of poverty and inequality in the Central American region (ECLAC, 2000; Rivillas, 2008). Though still basically a destination country, flows from Costa Rica have increased since the end of the 1990s, especially to the United States.

Immigration

Costa Rica acquired its name when the Spanish, expecting to find an abundance of gold, named it “Rich Coast.” In 1502, Christopher Columbus arrived in Costa Rica during his fourth and last voyage to the New World. For three centuries, the Spanish ruled. However, as the indigenous population was rather small, the Spanish were unable to establish an extensive forced labor system. The African slave population was also relatively small when compared to that of other countries. Consequently, Costa Rica developed differently from other Latin American nations, producing a rather independent, individualist agrarian society (Foley and Cooke, 2008).

Costa Rica obtained its independence from Spain on September 15, 1821, without bloodshed, after other Central American colonies had fought to gain theirs. While Costa Rica joined the other Central American provinces in an 1821 joint declaration of independence from Spain, the confederation soon broke up as a result of border disputes among the countries (Foley and Cooke, 2008).

Two relevant events took place in the Caribbean region of Costa Rica that contributed to early immigration flows to Costa Rica: the construction of the railway (1871-1874) and later large-scale banana production at the hands of the transnational UFC (1899). The later event spurred the inflow of Chinese and, especially, of Jamaican immigrants (Bariatti, 1987).

Though the Constitution of 1871 did not impose any obstacles to foreign immigration, laws that restricted immigration were created over the following decades with the goal of giving the State a legal instrument to select immigrants (OAS, 1995). These laws sought specifically to obstruct the entry of particular ethnic groups. For example, in 1897 the entry of new Chinese immigrants was prohibited, and, in 1904, that of Arabs, Armenians, Turks, and Gypsies. In 1910 the latter groups were once again allowed to come in as long as they paid certain fees (Bariatti, 1987).

In the 20th century, there was a clear tendency for the migrant populations of other Central American countries to predominate (Nicaragua and Panama in first and second position, respectively) while the numerical importance of European immigration decreased steadily. In 1927, there were more than 6,000 Europeans; in 1973 their number had fallen to under 4,000; and by 1984 they represented less than 0.2% percent of the total population (Calderón and Bonilla, 2007).

On the other hand, by 1927 the Nicaraguan population represented approximately 2% of the Costa Rican population, and by 1984, due to a massive outflow of people fleeing the war, the number of Nicaraguan immigrants again rose considerably, increasing to almost 46,000 or approximately 2% percent of the total population (Calderón and Bonilla, 2007).

In addition, by 1927, the Jamaican population represented more than 3% percent of the Costa Rican population. However, it decreased continuously throughout the century, falling to 1% by 1950 and to 0.01% by 1984 (OAS, 1995).

While the last three censuses (1963, 1973, and 1984) have shown a reduction in the nationalities that make up the immigrant population, the Nicaraguan population has definitely asserted itself as the foreign-born majority, representing approximately half of the total number of immigrants (OAS, 1995). In 1984, Nicaraguan immigrants made up 52% of the total foreign population in Costa Rica, a figure that increased to 73% in 1997 (ECLAC, 2000). By the year 2005, Costa Rica was home to 335,000 Nicaraguans (close to 46% of total immigrants in that country), a figure higher than that of Nicaraguans in the United States for the same year (ECLAC, 2000).

During the last decades of the 20th century, the immigrant population in Costa Rica from the United States, Canada, and Europe showed constant but slow growth. These migrants are the so-called *amenity migrants* who are in the search for nice weather, nature, culture and affordable luxury for their retirement. Costa Rica also has friendly policies for acquiring visas, buying real estate and paying taxes. According to the 2000 national population census, more than 17,000 immigrants from these countries lived in Costa Rica. While in absolute terms Americans and Canadians (10,568) outweighed Europeans (6,711), relatively speaking, it was Europeans who showed greater rates of growth between the census rounds of 1990 and 2000 (Calderón and Bonilla, 2007).

Migration has been an integral part of Costa Rican development. Beginning especially in the 1980s, Costa Rica played a central role as a destination country for diverse migration flows in an increasingly merged Central American migration system (Voorend and Robles, 2010; Morales and Castro, 2006). At the same time, a small percentage of the Costa Rican population migrated to different countries within and outside the region (Caamaño Morúa, 2010; Sandoval, 2005).

Emigration

Because of economic stagnation in the Central American Region during the 1980s, emigration flows increased (Gatica, 2011). In 1980, more than 38,000 Costa Rican emigrants were registered as living abroad, and these shifts were basically directed outside the region (90%), with very little to Central American countries (10%) (De los Ángeles and Valverde, 2002). By 1990, a total of 57,000 Costa Ricans lived abroad, equivalent to 1.8% of the total population of approximately 3 million people, a similar proportion to that which existed ten years earlier (Calderón and Bonilla, 2007).

Emigration to the United States began in the decade of the 1980s, instigated by the fall in the global market price of coffee and the effects of structural adjustment policies in the Costa Rican agricultural sector (Caamaño, 2007). Costa Ricans, along with other Central American emigrants, found the U.S. to be an attractive destination, some in search of better economic opportunities and others for political and social refuge (Mahler and Ugrina, 2006).

According to the 1980 census, the United States (29,639) may be identified as the principal recipient of Costa Ricans, followed by Panama (3,359), Mexico (1,841), and Venezuela (1,713). By 1990, the number of Costa Ricans in the United States had grown in absolute and relative terms. Of the total of Costa Ricans outside Central America (approximately 44,800), the United States was home

to more than 39,000 of them, followed by Mexico (approximately 1,500). Both censuses (1980 and 1990) showed that extra-regional emigrants (living outside Central America) were of similar age and mostly women (De los Ángeles and Valverde, 2002).

In 2008 there were estimates of about 182,500 Costa Rican migrants, of which approximately 74% percent (134,800 people) was concentrated in North America, while the Central American region was home to almost 11% percent (19,800) of them, a figure lower than that of the rest of the destination countries (15%) (Estado de la Nación, 2008).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The current immigration laws of Costa Rica are to be found in the Political Constitution of the Republic of Costa Rica, published on November 7, 1949; the Exit Tax Act 8316; the Migration and Aliens Act 8764 and their regulations; Immigration Control Regulations; Aliens Regulations, Guarantee Fund Regulations; Special Police Regulations; Refugee Regulations; Business Regulations; Underage Persons Regulations; and Regulations for Granting Visas.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

The General Office exercises control of the entry and exit of migrants into and out of the national territory. Regulations governing the entering, leaving, and staying of foreigners requesting asylum or refugee status are ruled on in accordance with the Political Constitution, all ratified and current agreements in Costa Rica, and other current laws.

The General Office establishes the general guidelines of entry and stay visas for non-residents, foreign persons from specific countries or geographical areas, based on current country agreements and international treaties, and reasons of security, convenience, or opportunity for the Costa Rican State.

Non-resident immigration category

Foreign persons intending to enter under the non-resident immigration category will require a corresponding entry visa, with the exception of persons from countries which do not require a visa¹, those who require a consular visa² and those who require a restricted visa³.

Resident or legal stay immigration category

Legal stay is understood as the authorization to remain in Costa Rica, issued by the General Migration Office, according to the immigration categories, as well as the requirements and procedures established in the Migration and Aliens Act and their regulations. There are two classes of legal stay: permanent and temporary.

Foreigners with legal immigration stay under the category of residents and do not require a visa to enter Costa Rica, as long as they can prove their immigration status.

Permanent residents

Foreign persons that meet the following requirements may opt for the immigration category of permanent resident.

- Any foreigner, his or her spouse or first-degree blood relative that has enjoyed temporary residence for three consecutive years.
- Any foreigner that is a first-degree blood relative of a Costa Rican citizen, including parents, underage children or children of age with disabilities, and underage siblings or siblings of age with disabilities.
- Persons to whom the Commission of Restricted Visas and Refugee grants refugee status.

Temporary residents

An authorization of entry and stay for a specified amount of time, more than ninety days and for as long as two years, extendable for the same amount of time, can be obtained by persons in the following subcategories:

- The spouse of a Costa Rican citizen.
- Religious members of faiths that must be accredited before the Ministry of Foreign Relations and Religion.
- The executives, representatives, managers, and technical personnel of businesses established in the country, as well as their spouses and children. Specialists who on their own account or in relation to a third party are part of this business work and are thus required for the continued development of these businesses, in accordance with the Office of Migration.
- Investors.
- Scientists, professionals, interns and specialized technicians.
- Athletes, duly accredited before the National Council on Sports and Recreation.
- Correspondents and press agency personnel.
- Of the people mentioned above, whoever has cohabited with such a spouse or underage children or children of age with disabilities.
- Rentiers.
- Pensioners.

Temporary residents may conduct paid or lucrative activities on their own or in relation to a third party, only as authorized by the General Office. This authorization will take into account reports of recommendations made by the Ministry of Labor and Social Security, as well as other suitability and opportunity criteria. The dependents of such temporary residents may study or work, with previous authorization from the Office.

A temporary resident may change to another subcategory, within the same immigration category, if he or she meets the corresponding requirements, as well as to other immigration categories.

Acquisition of Nationality

Costa Rican nationality is the status or category given to every person who is born and resides in the country. Costa Rican nationality is acquired by birth and through naturalization.

Costa Rican nationality by birth

The following are nationals by birth:

- Children of a Costa Rican father or mother born in the territory of the Republic;
- Children of a Costa Rican father or mother by birth, born abroad, and registered as such in the Civil Registry, through the will of Costa Rican parents, while still underage, or through their own will, up until the age of twenty-five;
- Children of foreign parents born in Costa Rica who are registered as Costa Rican, through the will of either of their parents, while still underage, or through their own will, up until the age of twenty-five;
- Infants, of unknown parents, found in Costa Rica.

Costa Rican nationals through naturalization

The following are nationals through naturalization

- Those who have acquired nationality by virtue of previous laws;
- The nationals of other Central American countries, Spanish and Ibero-Americans by birth, who have officially resided in the country for five years and meet with the other requirements of the law;
- Central Americans, Spanish, and Ibero-Americans who are not so by birth and other foreigners that have officially resided in the country for seven years at least and meet the other requirements of the law;
- A foreign woman who upon marrying a Costa Rican loses her nationality;
- Foreign persons who upon marrying Costa Ricans lose their nationality or who after being married for two years with a Costa Rican and having resided in the country during that period express their wish to acquire Costa Rican nationality;
- Those who hold honorary nationality granted by the Legislative Assembly.

Those requesting naturalization must: 1) provide proof of good conduct, 2) show that they have an occupation or known way of making a living, 3) know how to speak, write, and read in Spanish, 4) take a comprehensive exam of the history of the country and its values, 5) promise that they will reside in the national territory with legal status and 6) swear that they will respect the constitutional order of the Republic (Article 15, Political Constitution).

The status of Costa Rican cannot be lost or renounced. The acquisition of nationality is passed on to underage children, in accordance with the regulations established by law.

Regularization of Status

On December 9, 1998, the decree of Executive Power 27457-G-RE was published. This regulation established the granting to all persons, native to any other Central American country, who were in Costa Rica as unauthorized immigrants, “the opportunity to normalize their legal immigration situation, with the purpose of preventing their deportation and the consequent worsening of the region’s current situation”.

The Immigration Exception System, also known as Immigration Amnesty, was implemented from 1999 to 2002 and was aimed at Central American immigrants residing in Costa Rica since before November 9, 1998. The benefit was granted in response to the societal problems caused by Hurricane Mitch, specifically for the population of the rest of the Central American region. It would, according to the evidence, favor mainly Nicaraguan citizens who constituted the majority of the foreign-born living in Costa Rica (FLACSO, 1999).

A total of 152,000 people, of which some 97% were Nicaraguan citizens and 1.5% Panamanian, made use of the exception system. In April 2000, 125,000 resolutions had been issued, of which 95% were favorable. The government conducted an amnesty dissemination campaign to encourage the unauthorized immigrant population to use the exception system. Non-governmental organizations also conducted other activities aimed at exhorting the migrant population to make use of this benefit (IACHR, 2002).

Refugees

The recognition of refugee status is subject to the regulations stipulated in approved international instruments on the matter, in force and ratified by the government of Costa Rica. Costa Rica is part of the Convention of 1951 and its 1967 Protocol. The term refugee will be applied to any foreign person recognized by the General Office as having that condition (Article 106, Migration and Aliens Act).

The General Office of Immigration will grant people duly recognized as refugees identity cards that prove their legal stay in the country. With this status, they may exercise any type of paid or lucrative work activity, on their own account or in relation to a third party, with strict adherence to what is contained in the legal order.

The procedure for recognizing the status of refugee or asylee or other persons protected by international instruments is established in the respective regulation. The body in charge of addressing requests for refugee status is the Commission of Restricted Visas and Refuge.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Costa Rica						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	1.3	1.8	2.1	1.6	1.7	7 513
Temporary	0.6	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.1	6 351
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	9 652	7 513	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	6 371	6 351	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	3 990	3 580	3 780	3 680	3 760	3 730
of which to the United States	2 540	2 090	2 380	2 160	2 290	2 270
Spain	560	510	370	380	460	380
Chile	160	180	240	220	200	230
Mexico	310	280	240	210	260	230
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	200	214	258	213	221	991
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	26.3	24.4	24.4	19.0	15.6	
Natural increase	24.5	20.6	17.5	14.9	12.2	
Net migration	1.7	3.8	6.9	4.1	3.4	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	..			7.5	8.0	374
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	1.8	5.9	- 1.0	4.7	4.1	
GDP/per capita	- 0.5	4.1	- 2.3	3.3	2.1	5 340
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				60.5	58.9
	Employment rate				57.2	54.8
	Unemployment rate				5.6	7.1
Men	Participation rate				89.3	92.3
	Employment rate				86.2	85.6
	Unemployment rate				3.5	7.2

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NOTES

1. Entry to Costa Rica is authorized, **without Consular Visa**, with a maximum stay of up to 90 natural days, to nationals of the following countries: Andorra, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bahamas, Barbados, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hellenic Republic (Greece), Holy See (Vatican), Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Mexico, Montenegro, Netherlands (Holland), New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Poland, Portugal, Principality of Monaco, Puerto Rico, Republic of South

Korea, Romania, San Marino, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Trinidad and Tobago, United States of America, Uruguay. Entry to the country is authorized, without Consular Visa, with a maximum stay of up to 30 natural days, to nationals of the following countries: Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Bolivia, Dominica, El Salvador, Fiji, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Honduras, Kingdom of Tonga, Kiribati, Maldives, Marshall Islands, Mauritius, Micronesia (Federated States), Nauru, Northern Mariana Islands, Palau, Philippines, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Saint Lucia, São Tomé and Príncipe, Samoa, Seychelles, Solomon Islands, Suriname, Turkey, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Venezuela.

2. In July 2012, the countries that needed a consular visa with a maximum stay of up to 30 natural days were: Albania, Algeria, Angola, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Belarus, Benin, Bhutan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brunei Darussalam, Burkina Faso (Upper Volta), Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Colombia, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo (formerly Zaire), Djibouti, Dominican Republic, East Timor, Ecuador, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, India, Indonesia, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kosovo, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Mali, Mauritania, Moldavia, Mongolia, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Nepal, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Peru, Qatar, Republic of Congo, Republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Rwanda, Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic (Western Sahara), Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Swaziland, Taiwan (Region), Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Tunisia, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Uzbekistan, Vietnam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
3. As of July 2012, citizens of the following countries are required to have restricted and consulted visa by the General Director of Migration and Aliens, who will submit it to the commission on restricted visas, with a stay of up to 30 natural days. Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Cuba, Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea), Eritrea, Ethiopia, Haiti, Iran, Iraq, Jamaica, Myanmar (Burma), Palestine, People's Republic of China (Continental China), Somalia, Sri Lanka, Syrian Arab Republic.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Currently, the Dominican Republic is a country of net emigration,¹ with nearly 13% percent of its population living abroad. Since the end of the 1980s, Dominicans have emigrated massively, principally to the United States and European countries such as Spain and Italy. On the other hand, the Dominican Republic has historically been the principal destination for Haitian immigrants (Castelletti, 2009).

Immigration

The island of Hispaniola, currently occupied by the nations of Haiti and Dominican Republic, was the first place where the Spanish formed a colony, shortly after Christopher Columbus sighted the island in 1492. As such, Santo Domingo, as the Spanish called the island, served as a logistics base for the conquest of the greater part of the Western Hemisphere, thus giving rise to the migration that would forever define the ethnic profile of the territory.

With the settlement of the Spanish and with the accompanying forced labor, abuse, exposure to illnesses, and the growth of the mestizo population, the Taíno population, the principal native group upon the arrival of the Spanish, was decimated. By 1548, the Taíno population had been reduced to approximately 500 people, and by 1550, only 150 natives lived on the island (Moya, 1977). The consequences of this loss were profound. One result was the need for a new labor force to work in expanding the cultivation of the sugar cane industry; this need motivated the importation of slave labor from Africa (Moya, 1977).

In 1822, after a fleeting period of independence from the Spanish, the Haitians occupied Santo Domingo, which eventually gave rise to the unification of the Island. After twelve years of war, on February 27, 1844, the Dominican Republic and the Republic of Haiti ceased hostilities, signing the *Treaty of Peace and Perpetual Friendship and Arbitration* in which the Dominican-Haitian border was traced (Haggerty, 1989).

The Dominican Republic received two basic immigration flows: initially, the arrival of temporary farm workers from the Antilles and then later business people, farmers, traders, and political refugees from neighboring islands and Europe.

Massive immigration of temporary farm workers from the Antilles was motivated by the need for cheap labor in public works and in the foreign-capital sugar industry, which started booming in the last third of the 19th century. Additionally, Haitian Labor immigration was stimulated during the United States occupation of the Dominican Republic (1916-24), an event which occurred in response to the sugar industry expansion under North American domination (Haggerty, 1989).

According to 1920 census data, there were 28,258 Haitians in the Dominican Republic, representing 59% percent of foreigners in the census and 3% percent of the country's inhabitants (Castillo, 1984). Due to the growing tensions surrounding the definition of the border between the two countries, an absence of labor in the Dominican Republic and the Dominican government's growing interest in the sugar plantations, a series of bilateral agreements were signed between Haiti and Dominican Republic (1937), allowing the entry of Haitians for specific periods. Gradually, permanent Haitian settlements became established around the sugar plantations (known as "bateyes").

The population that resided in them consisted of Dominicans and “Arrayana” (Dominican-Haitian), as well as of Haitian residents, Haitian immigrants, unauthorized Haitians, and immigrants from the Lesser Antilles (Blandino, 1990). By 1935, the number of Haitians in the Dominican Republic almost doubled, reaching 52,657, according to that year’s census. Yet, the census of 1950 showed a drop, only registering 29,500 Haitians (Canales, Vargas and Becerra 2009). The drop could be explained partially because during the presidency of Rafael Leonidas Trujillo (1930–61), a campaign against Haitian migrant workers was ordered, resulting in the persecution of Haitians living in the country (Ferguson, 2000). Currently, there are no official figures of the number of Haitians living in the country. However, according to some estimates, the figure lies between 380,000 and 500,000 (Wooding and Moseley-Williams, 2004).

A smaller secondary wave of immigrants was made up of business people, farmers, traders and political refugees. At first, most were political refugees and business people driven by the processes of independence in Cuba and Puerto Rico. Later, towards the end of the Spanish Civil War, in the last months of 1939 and into the mid-1940s, some 4,000 Spanish Republican exiles arrived in the Dominican Republic (Fernández, 2010). At the same time, the beginning of the Second World War attracted Spanish, Italian, and Germans to the island (especially of Jewish ancestry). Between 1938 and 1944, the Dominican Republic issued 5,000 visas to European Jews, though most of the recipients did not settle permanently in the national territory (Holocaust Encyclopedia, 2012).

Emigration

During the decade of 1960, political and economic instability led to an increase in Dominican emigration, especially towards the United States. During this period, Dominican emigrants used a series of channels to migrate, one being the new quotas and lifting of restrictions connected to the 1965 U.S. Immigration Law and another being the support extended to those requesting asylum and refugee status. Nevertheless, a large part of this flow of migration was unauthorized.

In the past three decades, the Dominican Republic has become a country of emigrants, a phenomenon that gathered speed beginning in 1980 when the economic crisis reached even greater depths under the Balaguer administration. The decade of 1980 also saw a reduction in the importance of sugar production to the Dominican economy, which led a great number of Haitian immigrants to move to other sectors such as construction, trade, manufacturing, and domestic service. Despite the continued presence of Haitians in the national territory, the country still has a negative net migration rate (-2.7), indicating that there are more people leaving the country than entering (UNDP, 2008; IOM, 2010).

Despite the sustained growth and political stability evidenced by the Dominican economy during the last decade, emigration has not decreased. A recent estimate indicates that there are 1.4 million Dominicans residing in the United States. Data from the 2010 United States Census indicates that in New York alone, there are some 675,000 Dominicans (United States Census Bureau, 2011). In addition to the continental United States, Dominicans have also established important communities in Spain, Italy, and Puerto Rico (Fergusson, 2000).

Remittances to the Dominican Republic topped US\$3.3 billion in 2011, or 7.7 percent more than 2010, according to an Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) study (*Dominican Today*, 2012).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Immigration in the Dominican Republic is principally regulated through the Political Constitution of the Dominican Republic; the General Law on Migration 285-04 (of August 15, 2004); the rules of

application of the General Law on Migration; Law 875 on visas; Law 285-04 (of August 15, 2004); Law 1683 on Naturalization (April 16 1948); Executive Order 1569 on refugees and its regulations; Law 200 (of March 21, 1964) on exit restrictions; and other laws in accordance with the Constitution

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Foreigners entering the Dominican Republic may do so under the categories of Resident and Non-resident.

Non-residents: A foreigner is considered a non-resident who—on account of activities to be conducted, his or her motive for traveling and/or conditions of travel—enters the country without the intent to settle.

Foreigners may be admitted as non-residents if they fall into one of the following subcategories:

- **Tourists:** Foreigners entering the country for the purpose of seeking recreation, entertainment, rest or diversion and who have sufficient monetary means for their stay. The period of stay is granted for up to 60 days and may be extended.
- **Business people:** Those visiting the country due to their business or commercial activities as well as to evaluate the development of such activities. The period of stay is granted for up to 60 days and may be extended.
- **Crew members and personnel aboard a mode of transport:** The period of stay is granted for the period of time that the international mode of transport is to remain in the country.
- **Passengers in transit to other destinations abroad:** The period of stay is granted up to 7 days.
- **Temporary workers:** To be understood as all foreigners entering the national territory to render their services for a specific amount of time and under contract, individually or as part of a contingent. The work positions must be in accordance with quota allocations and immigration policy plans elaborated by the National Migration Council. For the purposes of the current law, seasonal contracts in the sugar industry will be considered employment contracts for a specific amount of time. The period of stay is granted for up to a year and may be extended.
- **Border residents:** Those living in border communities and devoted to small business enterprises. This subcategory is understood as any foreigner residing in a border area adjacent to the national territory who enters the country within a perimeter of the border and who is duly authorized to conduct lawful and productive activities, returning daily to his or her place of residence. The period of stay is granted for a day and may be extended.
- **Members of groups on account of their athletic, artistic, academic or related activities.**
- **Foreigners entering the national territory with a residency visa and the intent to fulfill the procedures to formally obtain Dominican residency.** The period of stay is granted for up to 60 days and may be extended.
- **Students:** Those entering the country to pursue studies as regular students in officially recognized establishments.
- *Residents:* For the purposes of immigration, the category of Resident is divided into Permanent and Temporary:

- Foreigners are considered Permanent Residents who, on account of activities to be conducted and/or their conditions, enter the country with the intent to settle and reside permanently in Dominican territory.
- Foreigners are considered Temporary Residents who, on account of activities to be conducted and/or their conditions, enter the country with the intent to reside in Dominican territory for a specific period of time during the course of activities that gave rise to their admission.

Permanent Residents will have the right to reside indefinitely in the country. Temporary residents may remain in the country for a period of up to a year, renewable annually, and during the course of activities that gave rise to their admission.

Permanent resident

Foreigners who qualify as the following are to be admitted as Permanent Residents:

- **Immigrants:** Foreigners who have professional, trade or occupational qualifications required for the country's development or who fulfill personnel requirements unmet at the national level.
- **Investors:** Foreigners who bring their own goods to conduct activities that are of interest to the country, with a minimum amount to be established through regulations. For example, retirees, pensioners or rentiers, who show proof of receiving a regular and permanent income from outside sources, are allowed to live in the country, with a minimum amount to be established through regulations. Residency by way of investment constitutes a legal privilege established by Law that exempts the beneficiary from the procedure of obtaining prior Temporary Residence. The General Migration Directorate (known by its Spanish acronym, DGM) will implement administrative measures to facilitate and make viable the acquisition of residency to foreign investors included in the category of Permanent Residents.
- **Foreign relatives of Dominican nationals or of foreign permanent residents:** to this end, relatives are defined as the spouse and underage and/or unmarried children.

The General Migration Director, exceptionally and through the use of powers conferred upon him by the Law on Migration, may shorten the period of Temporary Residence required before applying for Permanent Residency. In such a case, the reduction of the period must be justified on the basis of the applicant being a professional, scientific, educational, technical or cultural resource (Regulations of the Law on Migration, article 51).

Temporary residence

- Temporary Residents are those foreigners who, on account of the activities they conduct and/or their conditions, enter the country with the intent to reside in Dominican territory for a specific period of time, during the course of the activities that gave rise to their admission.
- Temporary Residents may remain in the country for a period of up to one year, renewable annually, and for the duration of the activities that gave rise to their admission, according to article 29 of the Law on Migration.

Foreigners who fall within the following subcategories may be admitted as Temporary Residents:

- Scientists, professionals, journalists, specialized personnel, athletes and artists, hired by public or private institutions that conduct activities in the country.
- Business people, investors, traders, industrialists, and managerial personnel of national or foreign businesses established in the country who come to attend to their businesses or investments.
- Technicians, artisans, and highly skilled workers.
- Members of religious churches, orders, or congregations recognized in the country who come to pursue their own religious, teaching or welfare activities.
- Political Refugees in accordance with current legislation.
- Refugees in accordance with current legislation.
- The spouse and underage children of those mentioned in previous sections of this article.
- Foreigners who, without fitting exactly in the previous sections, were authorized exceptionally by the General Migration Director, after an evaluation of the activity to be conducted and the benefits that activity could generate for the country.
- Foreigners entering the national territory with a residency visa who assume the obligation of completing, once inside the country, the corresponding procedures to regularize their Dominican residency.
- A request for change of status to Permanent Residency may be made after five (5) years of having Temporary Residency.

The General Migration Director, exceptionally and through the use of powers conferred upon him by the Law on Migration, may shorten the period of Temporary Residence required before applying for Permanent Residency. In such a case, the reduction of said period must be justified on the basis of the applicant being a professional, scientific, educational, technical or cultural resource.

Acquisition of Nationality

Dominican nationals are:

- The children of a Dominican mother or father.
- Those with Dominican nationality before the implementation of this Constitution.
- People born in the national territory, with the exception of children of foreigners who are members of diplomatic or consular legations and of foreigners who are in transit or who are living unauthorized in Dominican territory.
- Those born abroad to a Dominican father or mother, despite having acquired, because of their place of birth, a different nationality than that of their parents. Once they have reached the age of 18, they may, before a competent authority, express their wish to assume double nationality or renounce one of them.

- Those contracting marriage to a Dominican citizen, as long as they opt for the nationality of their spouse and meet the requirements established by law.
- The direct descendants of Dominicans residing abroad.
- Naturalized persons, in accordance with the conditions and formalities required by law.

Naturalization

The requirements for naturalization are:

- Having an address in the Dominican Republic.
- Residing continuously in the country for at least two years
- Residing continuously in the country for at least six months, having started and maintained an urban or rural business or owning real estate in the country.
- Residing continuously in the country for at least six months, when being married to a Dominican.
- Having obtained a grant by the Executive Power for residing in the country.

Regularization of Status

The Law on Migration states that the Dominican Government must prepare a National Regularization Plan for foreigners residing in the country with unauthorized immigration status. This National Regularization Plan must consider the following criteria at a minimum: 1) foreigners' period of residence in the country, 2) their ties to society, 3) their work and socioeconomic conditions and 4) regularizations for individuals or families, not en masse. Furthermore, a registry of these foreigners must be established as well as the procedures for implementing the plan and the conditions for providing institutional and logistical support.

Refugees

Refugees will be treated in accordance with the Regulations of the Law on Migration and the Regulations of the National Commission for Refugees 2330, of September 10, 1984.

Foreigners wishing to apply for refugee status must do so before the authorities of the General Migration Directorate, whether at borders, ports, airports or in Santo Domingo, Capital of the Dominican Republic.

The National Office for Refugees, through prior approval of the Technical Subcommittee, will recommend to the General Migration Directorate that an applicant be issued an identity card to be able to remain in the country for a period of no greater than 60 days, renewable, until the National Commission for Refugees makes a final ruling on the request.

Refugees will be admitted as Temporary Residents (Law on Migration, article 35) and may request permanent residency once they have met the requirements of the law.²

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Dominican Republic						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)					Average	Persons
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2007-10	2010
Permanent	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	895
Temporary	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.3	4 800
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	2 889	895	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	3 397	4 800	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	50 060	54 740	66 320	68 720	59 960	67 520
of which to the United States	28 020	31 880	49 410	53 870	40 800	51 640
Spain	18 070	17 760	10 840	8 340	13 750	9 590
Italy	1 850	3 080	3 320	2 740	2 750	3 030
Chile	260	20	550	1 040	470	800
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	..	..	..	0	0	3
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	20.8	19.1	16.4	15.1	13.8	
Natural increase	24.3	22.5	19.7	18.4	16.7	
Net migration	-3.4	-3.4	-3.4	-3.3	-2.9	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	3.9	4	4	4.1	4.4	434
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	5.7	9.3	3.5	7.8	3.6	
GDP/per capita	4.0	7.7	2.1	6.3	2.0	4 773
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				66.7	68.7
	Employment rate				60.6	57.8
	Unemployment rate				9.2	15.8
Men	Participation rate				79.6	80.8
	Employment rate				71.4	66.3
	Unemployment rate				10.3	18.0

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Executive Order 1569 on refugees (of November 15, 1983)

Regulation of Executive Order 1569 on refugees

Law 875 on visas (of July 21, 1978)

Law 200 (of March 21, 1964)

Law 1683 on Naturalization (of April 16, 1948);

NOTES

1. The Dominican Republic's net migration rate was -2.01 migrant (s)/1,000 residents for the year 2011 (CIA World Factbook). See <http://www.indexmundi.com/es/republica_dominicana/tasa_de_migracion_neta.html>
2. Dominican Republic approved the UN Convention relating to the Status of Refugees in 2001.

ECUADOR

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Despite the demographic changes that Spanish conquest (16th-19th centuries) brought to the native population, migratory flows to and from Ecuador remained relatively stable until the second half of the twentieth century. It is only during the last fifty years that Ecuador has experienced large migratory movements, both within and outside its borders (Carrion and Ruiz, 2011). Emigration, for example, has increased to unprecedented levels in the context of intense urbanization, the poor performance of exports, and an acute financial crisis (Jokisch, 2007).

Immigration

Historically, the socioeconomic structure established during the colonial period has continued after independence, into the twentieth and twenty-first centuries (Carrión and Ruiz, 2011). Descendants of European families have maintained their land holdings and ownership of other natural resources and employ a large number of the peasantry. The highest socioeconomic stratum consists of large landowners of the Sierras (interior region with agricultural-livestock production, rubber, and oil) and those of the coast (coastal region with agricultural exports, such as cocoa and bananas) (Hanratty 1989).

Between the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, Ecuador's economy prospered based on the production of Panama hats¹ (*paja toquilla*) and cocoa exports. This "export boom" attracted another important group in Ecuadorian society, commonly known as "Lebanese", who escaped from Ottoman oppression in their country and rapidly integrated as shopkeepers and salespersons (Jokisch, 2007). The term "Lebanese" is applied in a broad manner to include persons of Arabic language, who were predominantly Christian immigrants of Syrian, Palestinian, or Lebanese origins (Roberts, 2000). While it is difficult to be specific about the numerical importance of this immigration, its social impact is broadly recognized because among its descendants are two Ecuadorian presidents as well as some families of high socio-economic standing (Roberts, 2000).

During the nineteenth century in response to Ecuador's export economy, other groups entered the country although on a smaller scale than the influx from previous years: Armenians, Basque, British, Greek, French, German, and Italians (Carrión and Ruiz, 2011). In general, the majority of families of European ancestry arrived in the capital and became part of the elite. The majority of marriages have tended to occur within the group.

An even smaller number of Chinese and Japanese migrants arrived during this time as well, generally to occupy jobs as miners, laborers, and fishermen (Carrión and Ruiz, 2011).

Emigration

In the first decades of the twentieth century, and driven in part by the surge in the banana and cocoa agro-industry, the highest socio-economic groups in Ecuador began to send their children to study abroad. Until the 1920s, the main destination was France. During the 1930s and 1940s, the trend changed, beginning an important flow towards the United States.

It was not until the 1950's that Ecuador started to have significant emigration. In this period, emigration was primarily linked to young men from the south Ecuadorian areas which produced Panama hats and where the crisis in production induced emigration to the United States, Canada and Venezuela (CEDHU, 1997). The majority of these emigrants did not return to the country, but created expatriate networks that stimulated further migration flows. During the same period, the indigenous population *kichwa otavalo* started to emigrate to the United States and certain European countries. Their emigration, however, was of a temporary commercial character related to the sale of their craftworks (CEDHU, 1997).

At the internal level, migration increased to the main cities of Quito and Guayaquil, which became centers of massive urbanization. The city of Guayaquil, for example, doubled its population in less than 12 years, from 1950 to 1962 (IOM, 2008).

During the 1970s, emigration continued but to a lesser degree. Emigrants from several communities of the Azuay and Cañar provinces (previously related to the trade of Panama hats) contacted and collaborated with clandestine migration networks which funneled persons towards Central America and Mexico, en route to the United States. A small number of Ecuadorians migrated to Venezuela, whose economy prospered because of the increase in oil prices during the 1970s (Jokisch, 2007).

During the 1980s, the oil boom slowed and oil prices dropped. Ecuador descended into recession, high inflation, and unemployment. Until the end of the 1990s, emigration had come primarily from the southern Andean region; many rural craftsmen of Azuay and Cañar emigrated to the United States. The majority of the men became temporary workers or found employment in the service industry, while women found jobs in the clothing industry, restaurants, or as housekeeping employees. The *kichwa otavalo* population continued its classical migration pattern, characterized by temporary migration and employment in the handicrafts trade. This period also witnessed an increase of immigration restrictions by the United States (CEDHU, 1997). At the beginning of the 1990s, and as a result of the military conflict with Peru (1995-1998), emigrant groups from the city of Loja went to Spain. This migration created the real first Ecuadorian migration network to Europe (Abott, 2000).

Due to an existing agreement that allowed Ecuadorians to enter the country as tourists, without the need of a visa, Spain proved to be an increasingly attractive destination. Spain also offered an abundance of low-skilled jobs in the informal economy. In addition, Ecuadorian immigrants spoke the country's language. This arrangement lasted until 2003, the year in which Spain introduced a visa requirement for Ecuadorians and made significant reforms to its Immigration Act which tended to further restrict the entry of foreigners.² Also, during this time period, Ecuadorians emigrated to Italy and Australia but to a much lesser extent.

In Ecuador, low prices of oil combined with frequent floods which affected crop exports added to political instability and financial crisis, causing a second economic disaster at the end of the 1990s. The national currency, the *sucre*, lost more than two-thirds of its value; unemployment rate rose to 15%; and the poverty rate reached 56% (Jokisch, 2007). In the year 2000, Ecuador suffered a political crisis that culminated in the overthrow of its head of state. The migration waves following these events affected all sectors of the society.

From 2000 to 2008, around one and a half million Ecuadorians left the country in response to the adverse conditions the country was experiencing. Many Ecuadorians went to countries within the European Union (IOM, 2008). Overall, however, the main destinations for Ecuadorians during this time were Spain, the United States, and Italy, and, to a lesser degree, France, the Netherlands,

Germany, United Kingdom, Belgium, Switzerland, Canada, Chile, and Venezuela. According to studies carried out by the CEIEME (Special Inter-Institutional Commission of Migrations Statistics in Ecuador - *Comisión Especial Interinstitucional de Estadísticas de Migraciones en el Ecuador* - approximately 11% of the total population and 30% of the economically active population lived abroad towards the end of 2007 (ECLAC, 2010).

Regarding immigration, Ecuador recently received significant flows from Peru and Colombia. The latter arrived in Ecuador seeking asylum because of the armed conflict in their country. The UNHCR estimated that, in 2008, between 130,000 to 140,000 Colombians lived in Ecuador (UNHCR, 2008). Peruvians were the second largest group, driven by the adverse economic circumstances existing in their country but also attracted by Ecuador's decision to 'dollarize' the economy in the year 2000. Estimates vary, but it is probable that, in 2007, between 60,000 and 120,000 Peruvians resided in Ecuador, the majority without permits (Jokisch, 2007). Other migratory groups recently attracted to Ecuador include citizens from China and the United States who have arrived in the country for business purposes or retirement. The presence of Cuban citizens also has risen. In 2009, an increase of approximately 4,000 Cubans was recorded (Arcentales, 2010).

Despite the differences existing regarding estimates on the number of Ecuadorians who have emigrated to other countries, the magnitude of the phenomenon – which accelerated at the end of the 1990s – has created a situation in which, as of the year 2008, approximately 18% of the population lives outside the borders of Ecuador. This is having a significant impact on the Ecuadorian social fabric.

According to the Central Bank of Ecuador (*Banco Central de Ecuador*), remittances sent by Ecuadorians to their families reached US\$2.324 million in 2010. Recently remittances have decreased as a result of the world economic crisis, which has affected the levels of employment and income of those who emigrated to countries such as Spain and the United States. However, remittances continue to provide significant resources to the Ecuadorian economy.

A part of the migration process is the return, element that has been one of the lines of analysis in the spaces sponsored by international organizations as well as by the European Union in the year 2012. As a result of these debates it has been identified that the return of migrants has not been massive, that migration to third countries has taken place and that migration to traditional destinations has not completely decreased. The return requires a treatment from the perspective of migrant's rights. Policies should be addressed differently according to their causes that are not only related to the economic crisis.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The legal migration framework in Ecuador follows the Constitution of the Republic of Ecuador (2008), the Migration Act (*Ley de Migración*) (1971), the Immigration Act (*Ley de Extranjería*) and its Rules (1971), the Travel Documents Act (*Ley de Documentos de Viaje*) (1989), and the Naturalization Act (*Ley de Naturalización*) and its Rules Decree R.O 66 14-04-1976.

The National Secretariat of the Migrant (Secretaría Nacional del Migrante) has prepared a draft proposal for a law on international migration, a document that is to be debated inside the institution, among other State institutions that address immigration and with civil society.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

The Migration Act³ concerns compliance regulations, in particular the organization and coordination of services related to the entry and exit of nationals or foreigners in Ecuador. This is done through the review and verification of documents and the monitoring of compliance with the legal provisions regarding the stay and activity of foreigners residing in Ecuadorian territory. The Immigration Act⁴ regulates the status of immigrants, assigning modalities and conditions to the various immigration statuses governing the stay of foreigners in Ecuador.

In the regulation governing entry and stay, the Immigration Act establishes the categories of **immigrant** and **non-immigrant**.

Immigrants

Foreigners who are admitted under the category of immigrants are those who move permanently to Ecuador.

- To live on their savings, income sources, or any income transferred to Ecuador;
- To invest their capital in real estate, certificates, titles or State bonds, or national credit institutions
- To invest in any branch of industry, agriculture, livestock, or export trade;
- To assume management, technical or specialization functions of companies, or exercise a profession;
- To be independent contractors or pursue a technical career;
- As spouses or relatives within the second degree of consanguinity or affinity with an Ecuadorian citizen or a foreign citizen with an immigrant status/visa other than this category;
- To carry out other legal activities not mentioned before.

Immigrants cannot be out of the country for more than 90 days for each of the first two years or more than 18 consecutive months at any time.

Non-immigrants

Foreigners and their closest family members are considered as non-immigrants when they enter Ecuador, legally and conditionally, without the intention to settle. The following non-immigrant categories are recognized:

- Diplomatic or consular officers, qualified international officers, and the representatives of special missions accredited by the Ecuadorian government and their family. (visa will last as long as the quality of the person will);
- High Level Government Officers with diplomatic passports and their family (visa will last as long as the diplomatic passport will);
- Private and domestic employees from the persons mentioned above and their family (visa will last as long as the working contract will).

- Persons displaced as a result of wars or political persecutions in their country of origin, to protect their life or freedom and their family;
- Students who wish to initiate, complete, or perfect their education in official or private institutions with governmental recognition and their family (the visa will last an academic year);
- High technical-level professionals or specialized workers summoned by companies, institutions, or persons, established in the country, to perform temporary jobs in their specialty or for industrial training purposes and their family (the visa will last the same time as the contract);
- Missionaries, volunteers, or members of a religious order belonging to organizations or orders recognized in their country of origin and in Ecuador, dedicated to assistance, educational, or ministry endeavors and their family (the visa will last for more than 6 months and less than 2 years);
- Persons assisted by national organizations, legally constituted, to develop cultural exchange programs and their family (the visa will last 1 year);
- Temporary visitors with licit purposes, such as for tourism, sports, health, study, science, and the arts or to carry out acts of commerce that do not involve the simultaneous import of property. This category may also include foreigners who, when not applicable to this article, their presence in the country is duly substantiated pursuant to a favorable opinion of the Consultative Council on Migration Policy which set the bylaws on the matter. (visa will last for more than 3 months and less than 6 months);
- Persons in Transit
 - Passengers who disembark in transit areas on the occasion of technical stopovers of maritime vessels or aircraft to continue their travel on the same vessel or another provided by the same company;
 - Persons who enter the national territory to reach the country of destination; to board a ship that will carry them outside or driving vehicles of international land transport services
 - Persons domiciled in foreign towns adjacent to Ecuadorian borders and who require daily transit to national bordering towns;
 - Temporary visitors with licit purposes, such as business, investment, company, commercial, industrial or professional activities who require multiple entries to Ecuadorian territory.

All foreigners subject to Ecuador's territorial jurisdiction who are older than eighteen years of age and have been admitted under the category of immigrant or non-immigrant – with the exception of non-immigrants in the category of passengers – must register in the Registry of Foreigners of the Consular Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs within thirty days of their arrival in Ecuador's territory.

Foreigners may ask for a change in their status, whether they are migrants or non-migrants, when fulfilling all the requirements established in the law.

It should be noted that the allocation of immigrant and nonimmigrant visas is now competence of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Commerce and Integration. Previously, the granting of immigrant visas (permanent residence) corresponded to the Ministry of the Interior.

Acquisition of Nationality

According to article 6 of Ecuador's National Constitution, the Ecuadorian nationality is the legal political bond persons have with the State, without prejudice of belonging to one of the indigenous nations that constitute the Plurinational Ecuador. Ecuadorian nationality is obtained by birth or by naturalization and is not lost by the acquisition of another nationality or by marriage with a foreigner or if the marriage dissolves.

A person is eligible to become **Ecuadorian by birth** if he/she is 1) born in Ecuador or 2) born abroad of a mother or father born in Ecuador and 3) a descendant of the first two categories up to the third degree of consanguinity. Further, people are considered Ecuadorians if they are members of communities, peoples, or nationalities recognized by Ecuador with presence in border areas.

A person can become **Ecuadorian by naturalization if he/she** 1) obtains a naturalization letter; 2) is of minor age and having been adopted by an Ecuadorian, voluntarily expresses his/her wish to acquire Ecuadorian nationality; 3) was born abroad by an Ecuadorian father or mother by naturalization and is of a minor age but wishes to preserve their Ecuadorian nationality; 4) is in a contract marriage or cohabits in fact with an Ecuadorian, according to the law; and 5) those who obtain Ecuadorian nationality for having performed relevant services to the country through their talent or individual effort.

Regularization of Status

In 2009, Ecuador with the Republic of Peru, adopted the *Ecuadorian-Peruvian permanent migration statute*. The agreement was ratified at the end of February 2011. It established the objective of regularizing unauthorized immigrant workers and curbing companies which illegally bring Peruvian labor forces into Ecuador to cover temporary labor needs.

To be eligible, Peruvian citizens in an irregular status must 1) register with the Ministry of Labor Affairs, and 2) after a six-month period, apply for a visa through a special process of migration regulation. The application of this measure is estimated to have regularized of 2,500 to 3,000 Peruvian citizens in Ecuador (External Relations, Commerce and Integration Ministry - *Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Comercio e Integración*, 2011)⁵.

After the 2009 earthquake that hit Haiti, the Ecuadorian State – in agreement with the migration policy based on the law established in Article 40 and 423, number 5, of the Constitution – undertook an extraordinary regularization process in favor of Haitian citizens in an irregular migration status in Ecuadorian territory. This measure⁶ allowed the regularization of 392 Haitian citizens, among them 289 men and 103 women, who took advantage of visa 12-XI for a five year duration.

Refugees

On the matter of refugees, Ecuador's policy states that refugees in Ecuador enjoy the same rights which the Constitution and the laws of the Republic extend to foreigners in general as well as enjoying the rights provided for them in the 1951 Geneva Convention.

In Ecuador, it is the responsibility of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to define the conditions for refugee status, for allowing entry onto the territory and for stay permits.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs is responsible for dispensing to refugees and family members of refugees 1) the proper visas, 2) the determination of their refugee status, and 3) identification cards or evidence of their refugee statuses. The special visa is renewable every year with the Directorate General for Foreign Affairs, Refugees and Asylum of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

For the acquisition of indefinite residence⁷ and subsequent naturalization, persons recognized as refugees must show continuous residence for three years with a refugee visa in Ecuador.

Regarding temporary stay and transit, Ecuador provides for the granting of a permit to any person whose application shall have been definitively denied. The person may stay in Ecuador for a reasonable period to seek and obtain admission into another country.

Furthermore, people who enter Ecuador or present themselves at its borders in order to transit through Ecuador to obtain admission as a refugee in a third country are authorized to enter Ecuador and/or transit with conditions determined by national authorities.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Ecuador						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.2	3.9	61 406
Temporary	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.1	33 859
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	22 263	22 360	38.5	36.4		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	33 707	37 083	58.3	60.4		
Others	1 832	1 963	3.2	3.2		
Total	57 802	61 406	100.0	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	17 938	18 989	56.0	56.1		
Humanitarian	919	798	2.9	2.4		
International study	2 340	2 460	7.3	7.3		
Visitors	8 167	8 999	25.5	26.6		
Others	2 679	2 613	8.4	7.7		
Total	32 043	33 859	100.0	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	51 920	61 840	42 000	34 180	47 490	38 090
of which to the United States	12 250	11 660	12 130	11 490	11 880	11 810
Spain	30 160	37 750	18 210	10 970	24 270	14 590
Italy	4 410	6 870	6 320	6 170	5 940	6 250
Chile	3 080	3 060	2 680	2 480	2 830	2 580
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	1086	1253	2490	2169	1749	31 369
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	24.2	20.8	16.2	16.8	14.9	
Natural increase	24.2	21.7	20.4	18.6	16.6	
Net migration	0.0	-0.9	-4.2	-1.9	-1.7	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.3	194
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	4.2	5.7	0.4	3.6	5.2	
GDP/per capita	2.7	4.6	- 0.7	2.5	4.0	3 196
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	Percentages 2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				75.8	77.5
	Employment rate				67.6	63.8
	Unemployment rate				10.9	17.6
Men	Participation rate				90.2	86.3
	Employment rate				81.8	65.9
	Unemployment rate				9.3	23.6

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Immigration Act Rules (1971)

NOTES

1. Ecuador's straw headwear ('paja toquilla') are erroneously called "Panama hats."
2. For example, Spain's Organic Law 4/2000 underwent modifications such as LO 11/2003 which allows expulsion of persons in custody who have committed crimes within the past six years. A third modification introduced in the month of October 2003, LO 14/2003 limits, among others, the rights of migrants to family reunification.
3. Migration Act Regulation – Supreme Decree 1900 of December 30, 1971.
4. Immigration Act approved by Supreme Decree 1897.
5. For more information please see Press Release No. 238 at <http://www.mmrree.gob.ec/2011/bol238.asp>. Accessed on May 18, 2012.
6. Executive Decree N°. 248 on February, 2010
7. Permanent residence.

EL SALVADOR

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

El Salvador is the smallest republic of Central America, and the country with the greatest population density in the region. The country's population demographics have been characterized by two major migration periods: 1) the first represents the country's situation before the twentieth century, when there was a large immigrant influx and 2) the second represents the country's situation starting during the twentieth century, when there was and, continues to be, high outmigration. Also, important to note are the many internal movements that have taken place during this second period, largely in response to the internal armed conflict that occurred between 1980 and 1991.

Immigration

The first major migration movement was characterized by Spanish colonization, which began in the sixteenth century, and by the coffee baron era, which began in the nineteenth century. In the latter, the coffee merchants brought goods as well as their national identities: "These immigrants, who would eventually come to constitute the bulk of the Salvadoran merchant class, frequently married into the landowning oligarchic families, further diversifying the composition of the elite stratum of society" (Haggarty, 1988).

El Salvador's population has the highest percentage of multiracial population in the Americas, with 94% mestizos (mixed-race), the result of a mixture of Indigenous peoples, Africans and Europeans. Only 5% of the population is indigenous and the remaining 1% is of European ancestry, primarily Spanish, German, and British. There are also inhabitants of Palestinian and Chinese origins who live in the larger cities and towns (Williams, 2001).

Although El Salvador achieved independence from Spain in 1821, the country continued to be affected by the legacy left by the European landlords: mainly, an export-based economy and a highly segregated society.

Emigration

In the nineteenth century, coffee plantation owners established an economic and political oligarchy to ensure the preservation of their lands and riches. In the early twentieth century, the majority of Salvadoran workers lived in rural areas as settlers, tenants of small parcels of marginal land or seasonal day laborers.

During the Great Depression of the 1930s, the price of coffee dropped. The already depressed wages of rural workers further decreased. Since major subsistence land had been converted into private coffee plantations, basic crop development was reduced considerably, creating difficult living conditions for settlers, tenants, and seasonal day laborers. These conditions led to revolt, culminating in the 1932 peasant uprising, called "*la matanza*" (the slaughter), which was suppressed with 30,000 deaths among the peasants at the hands of government troops.

The second major migration period began during World War II, which initiated some important trends in El Salvadoran emigration. One was a movement towards Panama, largely stimulated by the opportunities arising from U.S. transportation of military supplies through the Panama Canal.

Another consisted of movements to Mexico, largely as a means to enter the United States where the demand for manufacturing labor grew as armed forces recruitment left many positions vacant (UNDP, 2005).

After the War, in the 1950s and 1960s, the migration of Salvadorans to the United States was less significant. Those who did migrate came from the highest economic strata and frequently went abroad to study and to work. Some household employees, gardeners, and manual laborers complemented this small flow (Gammage, 2007).

During this period, most Salvadoran migration occurred within the country at the regional level. Ever since coffee production dominated El Salvador's economy, seasonal migrant communities had developed for work during harvest time and this became a defining lifestyle for many rural inhabitants (Haggarty, 1998). However, between 1945 and 1969, with the increase in population and with the decrease of available lands due to cotton plantations, some 350,000 workers and landless peasants (around 7% of the population) moved to Honduras, a neighboring country (UNDP, 2005). About half of them returned after the Honduran government implemented agrarian reform policies.

In the 1970s, with increased El Salvadoran unemployment, political violence, and lack of access to property rights, the United States received the first significant wave of migrants from El Salvador. This time, not only the less educated migrated but also qualified workers, professionals, and intellectuals. Around 45,000 Salvadorans entered the United States between 1970 and 1974. In contrast to future Salvadoran migrant waves, a high percentage of the initial migrants were authorized to enter the United States (Gammage, 2007).

The 1980s brought a massive exodus of Salvadorans fleeing the civil war in their country. While some remained in the country as internally displaced persons and sought refuge in those departments and municipalities which were not directly involved in the civil conflict, others fled across the borders to Honduras, Nicaragua, and Guatemala, later moving to the United States via Mexico. Many persons in this migrant wave arrived in the United States without authorization, the majority of them from rural communities.

Emigration reached its maximum level in 1982, when it is estimated that 129,000 persons were registered as having left the country. In all one-third of the country's labor force had left (Gammage, 2007). Between 1979 and 1988 it is calculated that some 500,000 Salvadorans reached the United States. Additionally, thousands traveled to Canada, where asylum was more accessible (Gammage, 2007).

Even though the civil war ended in 1992, many of the conditions which led to social and political struggles, culminating in violence and massive emigration, have remained unchanged. Between 1980 and 2001, the amount of cultivated land in El Salvador increased by 6%, while the population increased by 42%. This period also showed a continued drop in the value of agricultural products and salaries (Gammage, 2006).

Although different opinions exist in regard to exact numbers, the increasing emigration trend has continued. Between the years 1970 and 1980, 53,809 more Salvadorans emigrated (73%) in contrast to 1970. Between the years 1980 and 1990, it increased in 391,864 (307%), and between 1990 and 2000, it rose by 400% representing 2,077,256 Salvadorans that emigrated to other countries. The path of this migration has also followed a steady pattern. While the migration has generally begun as a regional movement to neighboring countries, it has later become more broadly international by going beyond the countries of Central America. This pattern is clearly observed in the 1990s, when 93% of emigrants moved beyond Central America (UNDP, 2009). Although many countries implemented measures to facilitate legal Salvadoran immigration, the unauthorized immigration persisted.

Deportations of Salvadorans living in several countries have increased over the fifteen years, going from a total of 4,216 in 1999 to 36,689 in 2004, according to the records of the Ministry of the Interior of El Salvador. From 1999 until 2001, the majority of deportations were carried out from the United States, but as of 2002, the majority was from Guatemala and Mexico (Andrade-Eekhoff, 2006).

According to estimates of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of El Salvador, almost three million Salvadorans were living abroad in the year 2005. Of them, approximately 2.5 million were in the United States.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

El Salvador is a sovereign state with a republican, democratic and representative government. The pluralistic political system is expressed through several parties, which are the sole instruments through which people can exercise representation in the government. State regulations, organizational structures, and government functions are derived from this representative democracy.

The current Constitution of the Republic of El Salvador (1983) was introduced to restore the political, economic, and social order disrupted by the years of civil war. The Constitution specifies that foreigners are compelled to respect the authorities and obey the laws, while in turn they acquire the right to be protected by them. The Constitution also delineates secondary laws, outlining when a foreigner can be denied entry or stay in the national territory.

The national legal framework regarding migration in El Salvador is primarily composed of: the 1958 Migration Act (*Ley de Migración*); the 1968 Immigration Act (*Ley de Extranjería*); Decree N° 33 of 1959 by means of which is articulated the Regulation of the Migration Act; Legislative Decree 918 regarding the Determination of Persons with Refugee Status Act (*Ley para la Determinación de la Condición de Personas Refugiadas*); and its regulation, pursuant to executive Decree N° 79 of August 22, 2005 (Cruz, 2011).

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

There are three different immigration categories: tourists, temporary residents, and definitive residents.

Categories

Tourists: Foreigners who 1) enter the country with recreational, health, family, religious, sports, cultural, or other similar purposes or 2) those who enter as persons in transit and remain in the national territory for more than 48 hours, up to 90 days, or for another like period and who are not allowed to work.

Temporary residents: Foreigners who enter El Salvador under this category must receive authorization by means of a visa issued by the Consul of El Salvador at their place of origin or at the closest available consulate. Under this category, entry to the country can be for up to one year during which where foreigners can 1) engage in some scientific, cultural or athletic activity, 2) work as a technician or specialized worker, or 3) complete any other temporary activity. This category also applies to 4) persons who enter the Republic to protect their freedom and lives from political persecutions. In this case, they are subject to the provisions of the relevant International Conventions as well as to special regulations determined by national authorities. 5) Central American seasonal workers and laborers (*braceros*), to whom entry to national territory is allowed with a special permit extended

by the Immigration authority. Central Americans entering in this category; do not have the right to reside permanently in El Salvador and upon completion of duties related to their entry category they are required to leave the country.

Definitive residents (permanent): Foreigners who enter the country under this category, as is the case of temporary ones, must request permission from the Ministry of the Interior through the pertinent consular officer, a legal representative, or a proxy residing in the Republic.

Foreigners who enter under this category acquire the right to remain in the country for an indefinite period, provided that they 1) submit evidence of good health and 2) have a history of ethics and competence for work –as well as a profession, craft or trade– or sufficient resources to establish themselves in licit financial, industrial or commercial activities.

Additionally, Central Americans and Panamanians by birth that legally enter the country; may be entitled to definitive residence (permanent) with the sole requisite of proving good moral and conduct and not affected by any prohibitions of the Migration Act.

The Migration Act provides that foreigners may obtain definitive residency if they can prove that they have lived in the country for ten years prior to enactment of the law, even if they do not comply with the legal requirements. Definitive residence will not be authorized when the activities to be performed by the candidate for migration in the country cause displacement of or competition with Salvadorans.

Temporary Residents may change their status to Definitive after paying an inscription fee and when complying with the requirements established before.

Emigration

Migration regulations in El Salvador contain provisions regarding the exit of its nationals. The Migration Act stipulates who those that intend to emigrate or temporarily exit the country must 1) report their exit to the pertinent Migration Authorities, 2) be of legal age, and 3) not be convicted for crimes or offenses nor have an outstanding warrant for arrest. In addition, 4) they must obtain a travel document. Salvadorans who exit the country to provide services abroad must pay 500 *colons* at the General Office of the Treasury before leaving, in anticipation of repatriation expenses, and be able to show the receipt upon their exit. This amount will be returned by the State if repatriation does not occur. Salvadorans going to Panama or Central America are exempt from this requirement.

Acquisition of Nationality

The Salvadoran Constitution establishes that Salvadorans by birth are:

- Those born in the territory of El Salvador;
- The children of a Salvadoran father or mother who are born abroad;
- Those originating from Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, who having elected domicile in El Salvador, express before competent authorities their will to be Salvadorans, without the requirement of relinquishing their nationality of origin.

Salvadoran nationality can be acquired by naturalization by:

- Spanish and persons of Spanish-American origin who have resided in the country for one year;
- Foreigners of any origin who have resided in the country for five years;
- Those who due to having rendered notable services to the Republic obtain that category through the legislative branch;
- The male foreigner married to a female Salvadoran or a female foreigner married to a male Salvadoran who has two years of residency in the country, before or after the marriage ceremony.

Refugees

The Republic of El Salvador has ratified the 1951 Convention on Refugee Status and the 1967 Protocol on Refugee Status (Cruz, 2011).

The Determination of Persons with Refugee Status Act, establishes the legal framework regarding refugees such as 1) the conditions of the refugee, 2) their guarantees, and 3) the rights of all foreigners to seek and to receive refuge in national territory in an effort to safeguard their lives, personal integrity, freedom, safety, and dignity.

The interpretation and application of the Law's provisions are made in accordance with the principles of no discrimination, no return, family reunification, and voluntary repatriation, in the manner that best guarantees the respect of human rights as established in the Constitution of the Republic and the international treaties ratified by the State.

Procedure to obtain refugee status

Under oath, people who verbally, or in writing, invoke refugee status to migration authorities, may remain temporarily in El Salvador until the Committee makes a decision on the request for refugee status.

Once the Committee grants recognition of refugee status, the General Office of Migration will issue the special temporary refugee card to refugees and to every member of their immediate families, which will be valid in the national territory for a period of one year and may be renewed for the same period.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

El Salvador						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	340
Temporary	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	2 015
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	430	340	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	1 618	2 015	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	24 330	23 280	23 580	23 410	23 650	23 500
of which to the United States	21 130	19 660	19 910	18 810	19 880	19 360
Italy	260	430	690	1 540	730	1 120
Spain	1 620	1 200	910	990	1 180	950
Canada	920	1 110	830	770	910	800
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	1	1	16	9	7	55
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	13.0	14.5	7.1	3.7	4.7	
Natural increase	24.3	23.7	20.9	15.5	14.2	
Net migration	-11.3	-9.2	-13.8	-11.9	-9.5	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	40
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	2.2	3.6	- 3.1	1.4	2.4	
GDP/per capita	1.6	3.2	- 3.6	0.9	2.0	2 964
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				69.4	69.1
	Employment rate				65.9	61.0
	Unemployment rate				5.1	11.7
Men	Participation rate				92.1	91.4
	Employment rate				86.7	80.7
	Unemployment rate				5.8	11.7

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The 1958 Migration Act (*Ley de Migración*)

GUATEMALA

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

While a receiver of immigrants since the beginning of the colonial era, Guatemala, in the postwar period, has received relatively few immigrant flows. By contrast, emigration has been increasing significantly since the 1980s.

Immigration

Guatemala received its first waves of immigrants during the Spanish conquest and colonization of its territory in the 16th century. This was accompanied by forced immigration of slaves from Africa. When the country obtained independence from Spain in 1821, Guatemala had a population of only 500,000; consequently, the government introduced immigration incentives in an effort to attract more people to the country (OAS, 1995). In 1883, as a result of the Santo Tomas railroad construction, it became possible to populate the Guatemalan coast.

However, attempts to attract Europeans—particularly English, Belgian, and German—were not very successful. Germans represented the largest group, their immigration taking place between 1828 and 1944 and peaking in the year 1921, with approximately 3,000 persons registering. German settlers controlled the cultivation, commercialization, and exportation of coffee. In 1944, at the end of World War II, Guatemala promoted the return of Germans to their country of origin (Wagner, 1991).

By 1940, according to available census information, of a total population of 2.4 million, only 0.8% percent of Guatemalan inhabitants were foreign-born, of which about 63% percent came from neighboring countries, 24% percent from European countries, almost 4% percent from Asian countries and about 9% percent from the rest of the American continent. However, in the 1950s and 1960s, there was an increase in immigration. By 1964, the total population of Guatemala was approximately 4.2 million of which 1.2% percent was born abroad. In the 1970s, the trend was reversed, and the foreign-born population declined to only 0.8% percent of the total population (OAS, 1995). This percentage continued to decline in the 1980s and 1990s, falling up to 0.4% percent of the total population.

At the beginning of the 1980s, immigrants registered in Guatemala were mostly from neighboring countries. According to the 1981 census, Guatemala received a little more than 26,000 people, mostly Salvadorans (64%) and Hondurans (20%) as a result of the armed conflict and political crisis the two countries were going through (CELADE, 1991). In the case of Nicaragua, the flow of immigrants to Guatemala coincided with the triumph of the Sandinista Revolution in 1979, so that it may be assumed that this immigration was largely the result of a need for refuge. By 1993, there were 4,000 Nicaraguan refugees registered in the country. At the same time, the census registered a greater proportion of Americans (27%) and Mexicans (21%) residing in the Republic of Guatemala (ECLAC, 2002).

In the 1990s, most immigrants came from El Salvador (59%), Honduras (19%), and Nicaragua (15%) (ECLAC, 2002). In 1994, immigrants from Spain, Colombia, Germany, Italy, China (Taiwan), Korea, and Argentina also were registered, possibly as a result of investments made by these countries, especially by Koreans in the maquila industry sector. Nevertheless, the proportion of immigrants to the total population of the country held steady at 0.4% percent (CELADE, 2004).

Emigration

While the first waves of emigrants from Guatemala date back to the 1970s, the profound economic crisis of the 1980s and 1990s, due to the country's internal armed conflict that resulted in the loss of credibility for the State and its institutions, eventually culminated in an international emigration without precedence. Emigration to the United States in particular saw a spectacular rise starting in 1980.

This migration flow can be classified into two large groups, differing by characteristics and destination country. The first was directed towards the southeast of Mexico, principally temporary rural-to-rural migration, with nearly 300,000 people a year participating (Ministry of Health, Social Security, and the Pan American Health Organization, 1998). The second, characterized as being temporary as well as permanent, was directed to the United States; by the 1990s, a tenth of the total Guatemalan population resided in the United States, that is, around 1.2 million people (Elías, 1997). In addition, Guatemalans went to Canada (2% percent of those who emigrated) as well as to adjacent countries, principally Belize and Costa Rica, though to a lesser extent (the total of the sub-region was below 5,000) (CELADE, 1991).

At the beginning of the 1980s, the principal destinations of Guatemalan emigrants were the United States (89% of the total number of emigrants), Mexico (6%), and Canada (2%) (ECLAC, 2002). Furthermore, Guatemalans also emigrated in smaller numbers to neighboring Belize (3,003 emigrants) and Costa Rica (1,430 people) (ECLAC, 1991).

Beginning in the 1990s, emigration to sub-region countries increased. While Guatemalans still emigrated to the United States, neighboring countries also became significant destinations. From the total emigration to neighboring countries, significant flows were registered to Honduras (15%), El Salvador (23%), and Belize (54%) (CELADE, 1991). Emigration to the rest of the countries of the Americas was directed mainly to the United States (77% of the total). During this period, Guatemala lost nearly 6% of its economically active population during the decade (ECLAC, 2002).

In 1990, there were approximately 46,000 Guatemalans in Mexico; a decade later the number had decreased to 30,000 as a result of the return of refugees, once political stability had been re-established. Most of the emigration here had been concentrated in the border area between the two countries and directed to the agricultural sector in the state of Chiapas. It is also important to highlight that in recent times there has been a peak in transit migration to Mexico and Belize for people seeking a final destination in the United States (CELADE, 2004).

The Guatemalan-born population in the United States has seen a remarkable evolution since 1980. There was a significant increase in their number in the decade beginning in 1980, from 63,000 Guatemalans recorded in the United States census (1980) to some 226,000 in 1990; ten years later there were already more than half a million Guatemalans living in the United States. By 2009, from the 2.9 million foreign born from Central America living in the US, almost 800,000 (27.4%) were from Guatemala (MPI, 2011).

Guatemalan net migration had gone from being practically zero in the middle of the 20th century to -7.4 persons per thousand population at the beginning of the 21st century. However, although the number of Guatemalans living abroad has continued to grow, there has been a deceleration in emigration over the last decade (World Bank, 2010; CELADE, 2002 & 2004).

Remittances from Guatemalan emigrants have been and will continue to be a fundamental pillar of economic support for hundreds of thousands of urban and rural families. In 2005, they reached U.S. \$3 billion. Almost all remittances (97.6 percent) are sent from the United States, and each house-

hold received, on average, about US\$306 per month. Guatemala's remittances now exceed the total volume of its annual exports or income from tourism (Smith, 2006).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The legal framework that regulates international migration is established in the Political Constitution of the Republic of Guatemala (Chapter II); the Law of Migration (Decrees 95-98); the Regulations of the Law of Migration (Governmental Agreement number 529-99) reformed by Governmental Agreements 732-99 and 25-2006, of September 28, 1999, and January 25, 2006; the Law of Nationality (Decree 1613); and the Regulations for the Protection and Determination of Refugee Status in the territory of the State of Guatemala.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Persons entering Guatemalan territory fit into the immigration categories of Resident or Non-resident. *Non-residents* are classified as: 1) persons in transit or 2) tourists or visitors. *Residents* are classified as: 1) temporary residents or 2) permanent residents. The regulations concerning residents are described below/

Residents

Temporary Residents: Foreigners who have been granted stay in Guatemalan territory for two years, for the purpose of undertaking a lawful activity for a limited time period. This status is renewable once, for an identical period of time. People classified in this category may conduct paid work or make investments in the country.

Permanent Residents: Those foreigners, who, having fulfilled the requirements established in the Law of Migration and in its Regulations, establish a home address in Guatemala.

The following are foreign persons who may opt for the category of permanent residency: 1) Pensioners or rentiers; 2) Investors; 3) The spouse and underage or unmarried children of the latter; 4) Foreign relatives of nationals, namely a spouse, child, or parents, when they may not otherwise acquire Guatemalan nationality in accordance with the law; 5) Temporary residents; and 6) Persons who have demonstrated outstanding performance in the fields of science, technology, the arts or athletics.

Foreigners who obtain temporary or permanent residency and wish to obtain salaried work must do so in lawful activities and must apply for the corresponding authorization from the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare.

In addition, multiple-entry visas are granted to certain persons who do not qualify for temporary or permanent residency but whose stay in the country is generally longer than that of tourists or persons in transit. These consist of:

- *Diplomatic visas, Consular Visas, Official Visas, Courtesy Visas:* The Ministry of Foreign Relations grants diplomatic, consular, official and courtesy visas.
- *Business Visas:* These visas are granted to foreigners who, individually or as duly accredited representatives of a foreign for-profit entity, travel for lawful business motives. The visa is valid for up to one hundred and eighty days, extendable once for the same amount of time.

- *Student visa*: This visa is granted to foreigners entering the country for the purpose of studying in an officially recognized educational center.

Acquisition of Nationality

Guatemalan nationality is acquired through origin or naturalization.

Nationality by origin

The following persons are considered to be Guatemalan by origin:

- Those born in the territory of the Republic of Guatemala, in Guatemalan ships or aircrafts, and the foreign-born children of a Guatemalan father or mother.
- Those who are nationals by birth of the republics that make up the Federation of Central America if they obtain a home address in Guatemala and express their wish to be Guatemalan before a competent authority.

Nationality through naturalization

The following persons can acquire Guatemalan citizenship through naturalization:

- Those who have a home address in Guatemala and have resided there for five consecutive years, without leaving the national territory during that time for more than six consecutive months or for periods that add up to a year.
- Those who have a home address in Guatemala and have resided there for periods that add up to ten years or more.
- Those foreigners with a home address in Guatemala who have resided there for the two consecutive years, without leaving the national territory during that time for more than one uninterrupted month or for periods that add up to more than two months and who are in one of the following categories:
 - a. They have provided Guatemala an important service or have contributed to its economic, social or cultural development, so that, in the judgment of the Executive, they are deserving of consideration.
 - b. If during the three years prior to their arrival in Guatemala, they have resided in a Central American country.
 - c. If they have been recognized for a scientific, artistic or philanthropic achievement.
 - d. If they are stateless or of an undetermined nationality.

Regularization of Status

The Migration Law and its regulations, permitting the regularization of status of a foreigner who has been living unauthorized in the territory of the Republic of Guatemala for several years. However, the exact conditions under which the status is granted are not specified in the law.

While the number of requests for regularization in Guatemala is not high, in recent years there has been an increase in regularizations granted to nationals of Colombia and China, who have thereby obtained legal stay.

Refugees

Refugees are foreigners who have been granted this status in accordance with international agreements to which Guatemala is a party. The rights and duties pertaining to refugees also apply to their spouses, cohabitants, or relatives within degrees of consanguinity established by law.

Among these rights is the principle of family reunification, and in special cases, the Commission may give the right of family reunification to persons without direct kinship ties. They will also have the right to travel outside Guatemalan territory but not to the country that gave rise to the reasons for seeking refugee status, except for just cause.

Refugees have the right to work in the country, upon application to the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare.

The amount of time a person has had refugee status will be taken into account for the purpose of obtaining permanent residency in the country.

A refugee who has obtained permanent residency may request Guatemalan nationality after being registered as a foreign resident in the corresponding Civil Registry for a period of five years.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Guatemala						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Permanent	na	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	636
Temporary	na	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	821
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
	1526	636	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Total	3 551	821	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	19 910	19 180	15 960	14 050	17 280	15 010
of which to the United States	17 910	16 180	12 190	10 470	14 190	11 330
Mexico	90	1 010	2 080	1 800	1 250	1 940
Spain	1 210	1 190	840	870	1 030	860
Canada	260	260	270	270	270	270
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	4	1	2	1	2	15
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	23.0	23.1	23.0	24.7	24.7	
Natural increase	30.1	30.7	30.3	29.7	27.6	
Net migration	-7.1	-7.6	-7.3	-5.0	-3.0	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	..	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	59
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	3.6	3.3	0.5	2.9	3.0	
GDP/per capita	1.2	0.7	- 1.9	0.4	0.5	2 263
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				62.9	60.5
	Employment rate				59.1	52.2
	Unemployment rate				6.0	13.7
Men	Participation rate				92.9	92.3
	Employment rate				87.9	81.5
	Unemployment rate				5.4	11.7

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MEXICO

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Before Spanish colonization in Mexico, a number of cultures had evolved into relatively developed civilizations, in particular the Olmec, the Toltec, the Teotihuacan, the Zapotec, the Maya, and the Aztec. The Spanish conquest of the Aztec Empire began in 1519 when Hernán Cortés arrived at the port in Veracruz and began a search for gold and other riches. By 1521, Spain had conquered and colonized the territory, which was named New Spain. Disease and hardship decimated the indigenous population while increasing numbers of Spaniards arrived with great expectations of new wealth (Merrill and Miró, 1996). Demographers estimate that the country's population at the time of the Spanish conquest went from 18 million in 1519 to 3.6 million in 1550 (Garcia, 2010).

To augment their dwindling labor force, the Spaniards brought African slaves. Over the approximately three hundred years of colonization, the slave trade brought about 200,000 Africans to the colony. Not until 1829 was the institution abolished by the leaders of the newly independent nation (Palmer, 1993).

Immigration up to the 1910 Revolution

After Mexico's independence from Spain in 1821, Mexican authorities were interested in populating the country's vast northern territory for the purpose of developing agriculture. To accomplish this growth and agricultural development, authorities enacted laws and decrees that, in essence, aimed to encourage European immigration (Berninger, 1974). However, midway through the nineteenth century, foreigners in Mexico were still uncommon, fluctuating between twenty-five and thirty thousand.

During the period following independence, there were a number of internal struggles and confrontations with other countries, which had a number of territorial and governmental consequences including the loss of Texas (1836) and other vast northern territories (1848) as a result of the war with the United States as well as the first French invasion (1838-1839) and the French occupation and Maximilian government (1862-1867). This period had a significant influence on the specific kind of privileges and restrictions given immigrants in Mexico as well as the imagined portrait of what constituted the ideal archetypal foreigner who could contribute to Mexico's development (Salazar, 2010). These elements were reflected in the various legal instruments of the time and the migration legislation after the 1910 revolution, particularly as the national policy veered toward restrictive immigration and intense nationalism. (SICREMI 2011)

Even though immigrants were scarce, the most common were Spaniards, Americans, French, Germans, English, and Italians, while Russians, Japanese, Chinese, and Koreans arrived as low-wage laborers. Lebanese and Jewish immigrants together with the Chinese arrived as well, but in more limited numbers than Europeans. Due to geographic proximity and political changes, Guatemalans and Cubans came to Mexico towards the end of the nineteenth century (Rodríguez, 2010).

In 1910, the foreign population had doubled from that of 1900, adding more than 116,000 individuals, which still only represented 0.8% percent of total residents in the country according to population census data. During that time, a distinct social structure developed in which Europeans and elite Creoles dominated lands and industry while the indigenous people worked the land, and the

majority of *mestizos* occupied intermediate socioeconomic niches. This rigid social structure created social conflict that culminated in the 1910 revolution (SICREMI, 2011). Rebel groups sprung up across the nation. Although they disagreed over who should run the country, the leaders of the Revolution were united in their calls for social justice, land reform, and a new sense of nationalism based on Mexico's indigenous heritage. When the fighting finally ended in 1920, the ideals that they evoked defined the new Mexican nation that emerged (Merrill and Miró, 1996).

With the onset of another revolution in 1930, immigration restrictions were introduced which would dominate migration trends for practically the entire twentieth century. Restrictions were created under a nationalistic logic which combined from ambivalent sentiments or phobias and sometimes preferences towards certain groups of foreigners, inclinations that existed from the nineteenth century onwards. These attitudes could be observed in the low annual number of immigrants entering the country, that was soon altered by the massive arrival of certain groups of exiles and refugees (Rodríguez, 2010) like Spaniards in the 1940's, South Americans in the 1970's and Guatemalans in the 1980's (See "*From asylum seekers and refugee claimants to the new immigration*" *infra*).

Emigration

In 1900, 72% percent of the Mexican population lived in rural communities of less than 2,500 inhabitants each (down from 92% a century earlier) (McCaa, 1997). During the following decades, there was a slow and sustained increase of movement towards urban communities. In fact, from 1940 to 1970, Mexican authorities set a course towards rapid industrialization of the country, which further accelerated this urbanization process.

The drastic movement from rural areas to urban centers resulted in a test of the country's capacity to build urban infrastructure and to make space for the population influx. This test was further exacerbated by limited social and economic mobility and various economic crises as well as the economic boom of Mexico's northern neighbor. Consequently Mexican emigration became a major trend, with the majority of migrants going to the United States (98%) (Merrill and Miró, 1996).

Current figures estimate that approximately 11.7 million Mexicans reside in the United States (CONAPO, 2012). This historical process has been accompanied by significant expulsion of Mexican immigrants from the United States, mainly during the 1920s and 1930s, during times of U.S. economic crises, and, more recently, the return of hundreds of thousands of Mexican migrants detained annually by U.S. immigration authorities when attempting to enter the United States (Rosenblum et al., 2012).

New trends: unauthorized transit migration

Parallel to the growth in Mexican emigration over the last 25 years has been the significant unauthorized migration of people through Mexican national territory with the objective of reaching the United States. Unauthorized transit migration gained force midway through the 1980s as a result of the intensification of armed conflicts in Central America and gradually increased, reaching an estimated historical maximum of some 430,000 incidents in 2005 (Rodríguez, Berumen and Ramos, 2011).

Since 2005, this flow has substantially decreased, reaching some 140,000 incidents in 2010 (Rodríguez, Berumen and Martínez, 2011). This abrupt reduction may be explained by factors similar to those already mentioned with regard to the decrease in Mexican emigration towards the United States, namely the effect of the economic crisis and a lower likelihood of success due to stricter

border control at the northern border. In the case of Central Americans, however, the increased vulnerability to violence by organized crime, by kidnappings and assassinations, during transit through Mexico is also significant factor.

Transit migration further complicates migration dynamics in the country and plays a part in shaping current public opinion and attitudes towards the presence of foreigners in Mexico.

From asylum seekers and refugee claimants to the new immigration

Mexico has also played an important role for different groups of asylees and refugees. At the end of the 1920s, the country received Russians seeking asylum, from the recently created USSR after the Bolshevik revolution. The 1930s and 1940s brought waves of immigrants escaping dictatorships in Europe. Between 1939 and 1942, thousands of republican Spaniards arrived whose contribution to Mexican education and culture are widely recognized (Pla, 2001).

In 1954, Mexico became the most important destination for refugees from Guatemala escaping the civil war. The same period attracted intellectuals from the United States fleeing from the persecution of McCarthyism as well as Cubans in the 1950s and 1960s, first as a result of the dictatorship and then later as a result of the socialist revolution. The 1970s brought Argentines, Chileans, and Uruguayans seeking asylum and protection from their respective military dictatorships (Yankelevich, 2002).

Between 1970 and 1990, Mexico also received Central American refugees from Guatemala, El Salvador, and Nicaragua, who fled armed conflicts. Among them, the arrival in the 1980s of about 60,000 Guatemalans is of considerable note. When peace was restored in Guatemala, many of them returned in the 1990s, but around 20,000 remained in Mexico as permanent immigrants. Many of those Guatemalans who chose to remain naturalized, as a result of a process, put in place by the government, for their definitive settlement (Rodríguez, 2010).

From a historical perspective, the foreign-born presence in Mexico is largely comprised of three nationalities: Spain, the United States, and Guatemala. In the 2000 census, those born in the United States made up 70% of the total foreign-born residing in Mexico. In addition, more than 60% of the individuals born in the United States have lived very briefly if at all in that country. This is likely because they are children of Mexicans residing on Mexico's border area, are children of Mexican emigrants sent by their parents to live with relatives in their communities of origin, or are migrants who have returned to Mexico (Rodríguez, 2010).

The 2000 Mexican population census reported almost 500,000 foreign-born, a population that doubled by the 2010 census to almost 1 million, 77% of whom were born in the United States (INEGI, 2011).

In general, the importance of immigration in Mexico continues to be more qualitative than quantitative, with a high socio-cultural impact due to the level of education of immigrants and their participation in the labor market as professionals, management personnel, or investors, even if they do not all fall strictly into these categories.

Guatemalan border workers

Ever since current borders between Guatemala and Mexico were defined in 1882 and the Soconusco region became part of Mexican territory, the region's labor market has been closely linked to Guatemalan agricultural workers. They, in essence, maintain their residency in Guatemala but have been key to the development of coffee plantations and other agricultural products in Chiapas, Mexico (Ángeles, 2000). Since the 1990s, the Mexican government has tried to regulate and docu-

ment these flows through various mechanisms, registering up to 70.000 workers in one year. In 2011, the National Institute of Migration (*Instituto Nacional de Migración* - INM) documented 29,993 Guatemalan border workers, noting that perhaps an equal amount of border workers are unauthorized (INM, 2011).

In the last two decades, as a result of the region's new economic dynamics and the deterioration of the agricultural sector, Guatemalan border workers have extended their presence to more regions of Southern Mexico and to various other sectors of the economy such as commerce, services, construction, and domestic service (Nájera, 2009; EMIF SUR, 2011).

These workers, whether authorized or not, are frequent border crossers, and contribute to the movement of local visitors – more than 1.7 million registered crossings in 2010 – and to migrants in unauthorized transit towards the United States (Berumen and Rodríguez, 2009; INM, 2012).

Mexico is a country of origin, transit, destination, and return migration. Since the nineteenth century, emigration has been the predominant component of Mexico's migration process. In turn, the immigration of foreigners – though on a minor scale – has also been present in the Mexican nation's 200 years of existence but without ever reaching 1% percent of the national population. The presence of this immigration is marked by the increase in unauthorized transit migration across Mexican territory to reach the United States, especially in the last 25 years and mainly from Central America.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

In Mexico, legal norms related to immigration and immigrants are essentially based on the following instruments and their various modifications: Political Constitution of the United Mexican States (*Constitución Política de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos*) (1917), the Migration Act (*Ley de Migración*) (2011) and its Regulation (2012), and the Nationality Act (*Ley de Nacionalidad*) (1998) and its Regulation (2009). The General Population Act - GPA (*Ley General de Población*) (1974) along with its Regulation (2000) will continue to be part of the norms that regulate the migration topic in Mexico, specifically with regard to emigration and return of Mexican migrants.

Articles of the GPA that regulate immigration will no longer be in force starting November 9 when the Migration Act Regulation (enacted on September 28, 2012) comes into force, as well as other complementary regulations. Also, beginning November 9, various INM manuals, guidelines and internal circulars will cease to be in force and shall be amended by the new regulatory framework. In addition, other laws, regulations, agreements, and circulars exist related to migration management that complements the previously named instruments (INM, 2010).

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

The GPA and its regulation set out different immigration categories and characteristics to classify foreigners and visitors entering Mexico (SICREMI, 2011). The regulation of entry and legal stay of foreigners in Mexico have changed substantially with the enactment of the New Migration Act (2011) that establishes three broad categories based on time and purpose of the stay in the country: visitor, temporary resident and permanent resident (articles 52 to 57).

In the *New Migration Act (2011) and its Regulation (2012)*, **visitors** are divided into: a) visitors without permit to perform compensated activities (tourism, business, conventions, cultural activities, and others) for no more than 180 days; b) visitors with permit to perform compensated activities for no more than 180 days; c) regional visitors are national or residents from the neighboring countries,

allowed to enter and exit the bordering regions and permitted to stay up to 3 consecutive days in the territory ; d) border workers are nationals from the neighboring countries allowed to stay up to a year in one State and enter and exit it; e) visitors for humanitarian reasons, who include victims or witnesses to crimes committed in the national territory, asylum seekers or others, until the process in which they are involved has concluded; and f) visitors for adoption purposes.

Temporary residents are foreigners who are allowed to stay in the country up to four years, get a work permit subject to an employment offer, enter and exit the country and bring their families. Students may obtain a permit to work for compensation subject to an employment offer and stay in the country for as long as they are attending the courses, carrying out research or in training.

Permanent residents may stay indefinitely in the country with authorization to perform compensated activities. Foreigners may obtain the permanent residence immigration status if they belong to any of the following groups: political asylees whose refugee claim is recognized or who benefit from complementary or stateless protection, persons joining a family member who is a Mexican or a permanent resident, retirees or pensioners, or persons having four years of temporary residency in Mexico.

Acquisition of Nationality

The Political Constitution of the United Mexican States establishes that Mexican nationality is acquired by birth or by naturalization. Mexican legislation applies the principles of *ius soli* (right of soil) and *ius sanguini* (right of birth), which establishes that Mexicans by birth are those born in the territory of the Republic, regardless of the nationality of their parents; those born abroad, who are children of a Mexican father or mother born in the national territory; or those who became Mexicans by naturalization as well as those born on board Mexican vessels or aircraft, whether warships or merchant.

For foreigners to be considered Mexican by naturalization, they must have obtained a Letter of Naturalization from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and have fulfilled requirements of residency, services rendered or matrimony. No Mexican by birth may be deprived of their Mexican Nationality. Mexican nationality can be lost if a naturalized Mexican voluntarily acquires a foreign nationality, uses a foreign passport, or accepts or uses noble titles which imply submission to a foreign state, as well as residing for five continuous years abroad. The acquisition of other nationalities for Mexicans by birth is accepted. However, if a person intends to exercise any government position or function for which it is required to be Mexican by birth, he/she must renounce any other nationality to obtain the certificate of Mexican nationality.

Regularization of Status

Since 2000, the Instituto Nacional de Migración (INM) has established provisions for the regularization of foreigners with unauthorized status, who currently are composed largely of Central Americans. These processes have materialized into programs that allow regularization of the status of foreigners by means of compliance with any of the established criteria, among which stand out the existence of a direct family bond with a Mexican national or foreigner residing legally in the country, the holding of a licit and honest employment offer, or assimilation.

Officially, six regularization programs have been published and carried out: 2000, 2001, 2004, 2005-2006, 2007, and 2008-2011. Through the latest program, beneficiaries of regularization were able to obtain immigrant status (INM, 2010). In total, more than 31,000 foreigners living in the Country irregularly have been regularized during the term of the different regularization programs.

The 2011 Migration Act in articles, 132-137, grants the permanent right of regularization status to foreigners for family reunification purposes if they have an employment offer in the Mexican Republic or if the unauthorized status occurred due to misplacement or loss of their prior documentation, expiration of their documentation, or if their documentation is now different from that which had originally been required for their stay status in Mexico.

Refugees

On January 26, 2011, the Refugees and Complementary Protection Act (*Ley sobre Refugiados y Protección Complementaria*), was enacted, which establishes the principles of the 1951 Convention.

In this matter, the SEGOB, through the Mexican Commission of Assistance to Refugees (*Comisión Mexicana de Ayuda a Refugiados - COMAR*), is responsible for the recognition of refugee status. The current Law establishes that when an applicant does not satisfy the requirements to be recognized as a refugee, the Ministry must, in each case, evaluate if the foreigner requires complementary protection if a return to the territory of another country puts his/her life in danger or if there exist grounded reasons to believe that he/she would be in danger of being submitted to torture or to cruel, inhumane or degrading sentences.

With this Law, refugees are no longer categorized as Non-Immigrant and automatically become permanent residents.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Mexico						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	26 180
Temporary	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	38 813
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	na	8 699	na	33.2		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	na	8 937	na	34.1		
Others	na	8 544	na	32.6		
Total	23 852	26 180	na	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	Persons		% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Work	na	16 258	na	41.9		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	na	5 300	na	13.7		
International study	na	4 638	na	11.9		
Humanitarian	na	1 075	na	2.8		
Others	na	11 542	na	29.7		
Total	32 533	38 813	na	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	163 770	206 270	180 230	156 320	176 650	168 280
of which to the United States	148 640	189 990	164 920	139 120	160 670	152 020
Spain	5 870	6 160	4 870	4 790	5 420	4 830
Canada	3 220	2 830	3 100	3 870	3 260	3 490
Germany	2 510	2 900	2 780	3 010	2 800	2 900
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	3	3	6	9	5	1 039
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	20.3	18.0	16.0	12.6	12.6	
Natural increase	23.5	22.0	18.8	17.7	15.9	
Net migration	-3.2	-4.0	-2.8	-5.0	-3.3	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	961
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	6.6	3.3	- 6.3	5.6	1.9	
GDP/per capita	5.1	2.1	- 7.2	4.5	0.7	8 313
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					Percentages	
					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				51.4	53.8
	Employment rate				47.2	47.0
	Unemployment rate				8.2	12.6
Men	Participation rate				90.6	89.2
	Employment rate				85.8	79.5
	Unemployment rate				5.3	10.9

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PANAMA

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Panama, because of its geographic location, has always been a bridge across the American continent. Historically, the largest immigration flows to the country occurred because of the need for labor in the construction sector as well as in the banana plantations (Meditz and Hanratty 1987). However, a large outflow of emigrants from the Republic of Panama was registered during the decades of the 1980s and 1990s due to the country's political and economic crisis (Villa, 2000).

Immigration

In 1501, Rodrigo de Bastidas discovered Panamanian lands, which led to the Spanish conquest. Subsequently, Panama was used as a strategic bridge for transportation to Spain. With colonization, forced immigration from Africa for the purpose of slave labor was introduced. In 1821, Panama gained independence from Spain and joined voluntarily Gran Colombia, the state that encompassed much of northern South America and part of southern Central America in the nineteenth century. Panama seceded from this state in 1903 (Meditz and Hanratty 1987).

Large migration flows began in Panama at the end of the 19th and the beginning of 20th centuries, as a result of labor needs arising from many infrastructure projects. The railroad, the French canal, and the American canal, along with stimulating the economy as well as trade and services, created a pole of attraction for migrants from all over the world. Since Panama lacked the capacity to meet the demand for labor on all of these projects, the country began a program of immigration regulated by quotas, leading to the arrival of Jamaicans, Europeans (Greeks, Spanish, and Italians), Asians and Antilleans (Richardson, 1989).

The construction of the Interoceanic Railway began in 1850 and was later known as the first Transcontinental Railroad. In total, the construction of the railroad brought in nearly 7,000 workers from Europe (Irish, English, German, etc.), Asia (China), and the Caribbean (Navas, 1979). However, because of the difficult weather and work conditions, many of the Europeans returned to their respective countries and were replaced by labor from the immediate geographical neighborhood, especially Jamaica (OAS, 1995).

In 1878, the "Universal Interoceanic Canal Company" began construction of the French canal in Panama, bringing people from all parts of the world to build it. In 1884, more than 18,000 workers were on the payroll (Westerman, 1980), and in 1885, more than 12,000 persons arrived, of whom 9,000 came from Jamaica (Jaen Suárez, 1979). Given the weather conditions and health problems, many died and many others returned to their countries of origin.

Following the failure of the French canal due to disease and the sheer difficulty of building it at sea-level, and with Panama separated from Gran Colombia, the construction project for the American canal began in 1904. In the early 20th century, approximately 31,000 Antilleans, almost 12,000 Europeans, and more than 2,000 Central and South Americans arrived. When the canal's construction ended in 1913, several thousand Antilleans were repatriated, although some settled permanently in the country (Rodríguez, 1986). According to the Isthmian Canal Commission, between 1904 and 1914, approximately 45,000 contracted foreigners entered Panama: the greatest number came from the Antilles, about 69% percent, while about 26% percent came from Europe (Navas, 1979).

Between the end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century, Panama did not experience large shifts in its population. In 1990, emigration was at 3% of the population, a relatively modest figure, and, by the 2000 census, immigration was at 2.4% percent. According to data from this same census, the most important stock of immigrants to Panama were Colombians (21,069), a fact related to geographical proximity and the ease with which Colombians can cross the border. Other significant immigrant groups were Chinese (9,093), Dominicans (5,753), and Americans (5,113) (ECLAC, 2002). By 2010, immigrants represented some 3.4% percent of the total Panamanian population, while 4% of Panamanians were emigrants living abroad (World Bank, 2011). The census data shows that both emigration and immigration have increased, though the numbers are not of considerable size. Emigration slightly exceeds immigration.

In general terms and according to census data, immigration to Panama has increased in the last thirty years. The number of immigrants went from 34,567 people in the 1980 census to 54,551 in that of 1990, and, finally, to 68,886 in the year 2000. In 2010, the number of foreign-born was up to 140,236. Nevertheless, their share of the total population—1.8%, 2.3%, and 2.4% respectively—has always remained lower than the proportion of Panamanian emigrants (Sánchez Saavedra, 2008 and National Census 2010).

Emigration

At the beginning of the 1980s, only 7% of emigrants were found in countries of the sub region, a percentage that decreased to 1% ten years later. At this time, there were no data on Panamanians living in Costa Rica, the country which had previously been the main recipient of emigrants in the region. The sub region's role in receiving emigrants from Panama notably decreased at the beginning of the 1990s. Panamanians were distributed in the following way at this time: some 33% were found in Nicaragua; 28% in El Salvador; 16% in Honduras; and 23% in Guatemala.

Meanwhile, in the United States there were almost 61,000 Panamanians in 1980 — about 86% percent of total emigrants— and around 86,000 in 1990 — around 91% percent of the total (ECLAC, 2002).

According to data provided by CELADE's IMILA Project, Panamanian emigration predominated over immigration in the census of 1980 and in that of 1990. In both periods, the number of emigrants slightly surpassed 3.5% of the total Panamanian population (Villa and Martínez, 2000).

During the last decade and more, Panama has experienced a rise in construction and foreign investment, a result of its political and economic stability. Currently, the national government is developing three large projects: the expansion of the Interoceanic Canal; the construction of a subway; and the expansion of the Cinta Costera (the Coastal Beltway, a road project). These projects have once again turned the country into a focus of attention for persons seeking a better quality of life, whether through well-paid jobs or as a place of retirement.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

In Panama, immigration is principally regulated through the Constitution of the Republic of Panama; Executive Order No. 3, of August 22, 2008, hereinafter "Immigration Law"; and Executive Order 320, of August 6, 2008, "Regulation of Immigration Law."

Immigration Law is intended to regulate the entry and exit of migrant nationals and foreigners, as well as the stay of the latter in national territory. It establishes the requirements and procedures for acquiring Panamanian nationality through naturalization and creates a National Immigration Service and a Career in Migration, subject to the provisions contained in treaties, international agreements, and agreements of integration ratified by the Republic of Panama as well as in special laws.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

The following are immigration categories of entry into Panamanian territory:

- Non-resident
- Temporary resident
- Permanent resident
- Foreigners under the protection of the Republic of Panama

Non-residents

A non-resident is defined as any foreigner who comes into Panamanian territory occasionally and without intent to establish residency or abandon his or her residency of origin while in Panama; he or she must have proper and adequate economic resources for self-sustenance during stay and be able to leave the country upon expiration of authorized period of stay.

With respect to a foreigner's purpose of entry into national territory, a non-resident visa or permit will be granted in accordance with the following subcategories:

1. Tourists. Those arriving in the country exclusively for recreational purposes and other activities as set forth in the regulations of this Executive Order, for a period no longer than ninety days, subject to what has been established in international agreements ratified by the Republic of Panama and the principles of reciprocity.
2. Passengers and crew-members in transit. Those arriving in the national territory who are continuing their travel abroad within twelve hours following their arrival and who are on a stop-over, as well as crewmembers or passengers using international transportation, and those who remain in immigration centers. In case of chance or an unavoidable occurrence, stay may be extended to seventy-two hours, through prior authorization by the Director General or an authorized public officer at an airport, port, or immigration control station.
3. Naval officers. Foreign citizens entering the national territory for the purpose of boarding a ship as crew-members, at national ports or waters, to perform duties aboard a vessel. They may remain in the country for a period no greater than five days and must abide by current legal regulations on the matter. In case of chance or an unavoidable occurrence, this period may be extended through prior authorization by the Director General or an authorized public officer at an airport, port, or immigration control station.

Tourist Visa: Intended for a foreigner entering Panamanian territory without intent to stay for a maximum of ninety (90) days. This visa is for those countries that have not signed a tourist visa waiver agreement with Panama.

Naval Officers Visa: Intended to control the immigration flow of naval officers entering the national territory to board a ship as crew members with an international navigation license, expedited in coordination with associations, businesses, and public entities that participate in the activities of the maritime industry.

Entertainment Workers Visa: Intended for a business entity hiring a foreigner to work in entertainment activities, for a maximum period of nine (9) months, non-extendable, as long as said business meets the requirements and responsibilities demanded by the National Immigration Service.

Temporary or Casual Workers Visa: Intended for a business hiring a foreigner on a single occasion, so that he or she enters the national territory temporarily and to perform technical work in a field of culture, art, music, sports, profession, education, or science, in a specific business or production, for a maximum of three (3) months, non-extendable, so long as the hiring entity and foreigner meet the requirements and responsibilities demanded by the National Immigration Service and the Ministry of Labor and Development.

Domestic Workers Visa: A national or temporary or permanent resident who hires a foreigner to work as a domestic service worker may request this visa, for an extendable period of one (1) year, as long as the interested party and foreigner meet the requirements and responsibilities demanded by the National Immigration Service.

Short Stay Visa: May be requested by a foreigner entering the national territory for a purpose included in the subcategories below, without intent to establish residency. Furthermore, the period requested must be justified by the foreigner and may not exceed nine (9) months, not to be extended upon expiration.

- **Short Stay Business Visa:** May be requested by a foreigner before entering the country with the goal of establishing foreign affiliates in the Republic of Panama.
- **Short Stay Visa to Visit Relatives:** May be requested by a foreigner entering the national territory with the intent of visiting a spouse, a relation in ascending or descending lineal consanguinity, or a relation in at most a second degree of collateral consanguinity who provides proof of nationality or temporary or permanent residency.
- **Short Stay Visa for Researchers and Scientists:** May be requested by any foreigner entering the national territory to conduct the following activities, with no profit motive in mind: student exchanges; cultural, educational, health, scientific or research missions; and internships. These must be granted by virtue of agreements held with the State or between embassies or legations; foreign legal persons and businesses; educational or governmental institutions; and non-governmental organizations recognized by Panamanian law.
- **Short Stay Visa for Medical Treatment:** May be requested by any foreigner who can prove that he or she will undergo medical treatment in a public or private hospital or clinic, not to exceed nine (9) months.
- **Short Stay Visa for Merchants and Investors by special laws:** May be requested by any foreigner entering the national territory to analyze investment opportunities or conduct transactions in export processing zones, call centers, or specially designated areas for the development of the Film and Audiovisual Industry.
- **Short Stay Visa for International Humanitarian Assistance:** May be requested by a foreigner in representation of a duly accredited governmental or non-governmental organization entering the country to conduct an orderly aid mission, making optimal use of resources to reduce, through concerted national action, the loss of human lives, damage to property, and achieve solutions to the emergency, as determined by the Ministry of Foreign Relations.
- **Short Stay Visa for the Banking Sector:** May be requested by any foreigner entering the national territory for the purpose of giving or receiving training, attending meetings, conventions, workshops, seminars, courses, internships, audits, verification and control of programs and procedures in banking institutions with a general, international or representation license.

- **Short Stay Visa for Passengers and Crewmembers with Recreational and Tourism goals:** May be requested by any foreigner entering the national territory through a yacht or sailboat for pleasure or tourism, for the period established by the navigation permit issued by the General Directorate of Merchant Marine of the Panama Maritime Authority.

Temporary residence

The categories of Temporary Residence are the following:

- **Temporary Residence for Work Reasons:** Temporary residence permits for work reasons referred to by this chapter will be issued for annual periods of up to six (6) years.
- **Temporary Residence for Investment Reasons:** Temporary residence permits for investment reasons will be issued for a period of six (6) years, extendable every two (2) years.
- **Temporary Residence for Special Policies:** Temporary residence permits for special policies referred to in this chapter will be issued for periods established by special laws for up to a total of six (6) years. Unless otherwise specified in a special law, it will be granted for up to six (6) years, extendable annually.
- **Temporary Residence for Reasons of Education:** May be requested by any foreigner wishing to enroll in full-time courses, at public or private learning centers, at a basic, intermediate, superior or specialized level, as recognized by the Ministry of Education.
- **Temporary Residence for Religious Reasons**
- **Temporary Residence for Humanitarian Reasons**
- **Temporary Residence for Family Reunification:** May be requested by a temporary resident's foreign spouse, children under eighteen (18) years of age, and parents. Children between the ages of eighteen (18) and twenty-five (25) may be requested as dependents, so long as they study regularly and depend economically on the temporary resident. A temporary resident who can prove to have responsibility of tutelage or guardianship or the upbringing of a minor may request him or her as a dependent.

Permanent residency

Foreigners with temporary residence for two (2) years may opt for permanent residence. Permits that grant permanent residency are:

- For economic reasons: 1) Forestry investor, 2) Macro-enterprise investor, 3) Economically solvent person, 4) Economic solvency through a fixed-term certificate of deposit (CD), 5) Economic solvency through real estate investments, and 6) Mixed economic solvency (fixed-term CD and real estate investments).
- Through special policies: 1) Retired rentier, 2) Retired and pensioned, 3) Panama Canal Authority permanently hired personnel, 4) Investor in Panama – Pacific Special Economic Zone, 5) Pacific zone workers' permit for 10% of ordinary workers of a business, developer or operator, 6) Investor in an export processing zone, 7) Investor in a commercial call center for exports, and 8) Investor in the film and audiovisual industry.

- For demographic reasons: 1) Family reunification, 2) Married to a Panamanian, and 3) Dependents of permanent residents.

Foreigners under the protection of the Republic of Panama

Foreigners under the protection of the Republic of Panama are refugees, asylees, stateless persons and persons under the statute of provisional humanitarian protection who have entered the national territory in large numbers or individually in search of temporary protection, while they await return to their country of origin or resettlement to a third-party State.

The standards of treatment of beneficiaries of the statute of provisional humanitarian protection were established in accordance with the American Convention on Human Rights, other international instruments ratified by the Republic of Panama, and current laws on the matter.

Acquisition of Nationality

Panamanian nationality is acquired by birth, naturalization or constitutional provision.

Nationality by birth

- Those born in the national territory
- Children born outside the territory of the Republic to a Panamanian-born father or mother, so long as they establish their residency within the national territory.
- Children born outside the national territory to a naturalized Panamanian father or mother, so long as they establish their residency in the Republic of Panama and express their will to avail themselves of Panamanian nationality no more than one year after they reach adulthood.

Nationality through naturalization

1- Foreigners with five consecutive years of residence

- who are adults,
- who declare their will to become naturalized
- who expressly renounce their nationality of origin or that which they have
- who can prove they speak the Spanish language and have basic knowledge of Panamanian geography, history, and political organization.

2- Foreigners with three consecutive years of residence in the territory of the Republic

- who are children born in Panama,
- who have a Panamanian father or mother or who have a spouse of Panamanian nationality
- who fulfill the preceding requirements (stated above)

A foreigner must have permanent residency status before he or she may acquire Panamanian nationality (Article 10, Constitution of the Republic of Panama).

Nationality through constitutional provision

1-Foreigners without the need for naturalization card who are born abroad and who are adopted before they reach seven years of age by Panamanian nationals.

Regularization of Status

The process known as “Crisol de Razas” (“Melting pot”) was created as part of a policy for the integration of migrants aimed at immigrants residing in the Republic of Panama who have unauthorized status. Through this process they can acquire regular status by complying with the established legal regulations and abiding by security measures, human rights and governmental policies.

The most recent regularization of immigrants in Panama was conducted from June 18 to 22, 2012, allowed the regularization of almost 6,000 foreigners (National Immigration Service, June 2012).

Foreigners who availed themselves of this regularization program had to fulfill the following requirements:

- Have resided for one (1) year or more in Panama and not been absent for more than six months.
- Be free of any pending processes in (an) other(s) area(s) of legalization with the National Immigration Service.
- Personally present the request for legalization.

Refugees

The recognition of refugee status is subject to national legislation and international treaties ratified by the Republic of Panama.

The status of refugee in Panama is regulated under an immigration category called “Foreigners under the protection of the State” which covers refugees, asylees, stateless persons and persons under the statute of provisional humanitarian protection who have entered the national territory either in large numbers or individually in search of temporary protection, while they await return to their country of origin or resettlement to a third-party State.

The National Office for the Attention of Refugees (ONPAR) is the body responsible for accepting and processing requests for refugee status and registration of persons. While these are being processed, the person may not be deported, rejected at the border or sanctioned for unauthorized entry. However, this policy does not, in any way, commit the Panamanian State to providing permanent settlement in the territory.

Once the Republic of Panama has granted an individual the status of refugee, asylee or stateless person, the National Immigration Service will provide a temporary residence permit valid for one year and extendable for the same period.

Foreigners who receive this status are exempt from paying the repatriation deposit until they cease to have, lose, or renounce the status.

Refugees and asylees with ten or more years of legal status who express their intent to reside in the territory of the Republic of Panama may apply for a permanent residence permit.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Panama						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	na	na	na	0.7	0.7	2 485
Temporary	na	na	na	0.9	0.9	3 156
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
	na	2 485	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
Total	na	3 156	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	2 880	2 810	3 030	2 570	2 820	2 800
of which to the United States	1 920	1 680	1 810	1 540	1 740	1 680
Spain	560	500	430	370	470	400
Chile	60	290	300	210	220	260
Mexico	30	80	130	90	80	110
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	107	59	122	171	115	601
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	20.6	20.5	19.8	18.2	16.5	
Natural increase	21.9	19.9	19.0	17.7	15.8	
Net migration	-1.3	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.7	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.2	4.0	140
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	2.7	7.2	3.9	7.6	4.3	
GDP/per capita	0.7	5.3	2.2	5.9	2.5	6 601
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				69.6	73.7
	Employment rate				66.9	66.4
	Unemployment rate				3.8	9.8
Men	Participation rate				84.9	80.2
	Employment rate				80.1	74.7
	Unemployment rate				5.7	6.9

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PART III Panama / 193

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PARAGUAY

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Long before Spanish conquistadors arrived in Paraguay in 1524, semi-nomadic Chaco Indian tribes populated Paraguay's rugged landscape. Paraguay's colonial experience differed from that of neighboring countries, such as Bolivia and Argentina, because it did not have what the Spanish were searching for: gold or other large mineral deposits. Because of its lack of mineral wealth and its remoteness, Paraguay remained under populated and economically underdeveloped. Additionally, intermarriage between local Indians and Europeans, created a mestizo class of mixed culture (Library of Congress, 2005).

While European fortune-seekers headed elsewhere in South America, the Jesuits arrived in Paraguay and, over a period of generations, transformed the lives of the Indians. By the beginning of the seventeenth century, about 100,000 of the once polytheistic, semi-nomadic Indians had converted to Christianity and settled the land surrounding the missions. This theocratic society endured until 1767, when Spanish authorities expelled the Jesuits from Paraguay, fearing that the massive wealth and land accumulated by them had made the mission communes (*reducciones*) an "empire within an empire." In 1811, Paraguay, despite its small population and dearth of economic resources, became the first Spanish territory in South America to achieve independence. Revolutionary fighting lasted only a few days, and independence was declared on May 17, 1811 (Library of Congress, 2005).

Paraguay has unique migration characteristics in comparison with that of other countries of the Southern Cone. Though the majority of its first immigrants came from Europe, there were no massive immigration movements after independence. Beginning in the 1950s, there was a larger volume of inter-regional immigration. By contrast, however, emigration has become an important phenomenon and has been oriented mainly towards four countries: Argentina, Brazil, the United States, and, more recently, Spain.

Immigration

After the War of the Triple Alliance between 1864 and 1870, in which Paraguay confronted Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay, the Paraguayan population was decimated. Consequently, in the second half of the 19th century, various governmental initiatives were undertaken to attract immigrants. Despite the implementation of laws and policies in the country to benefit or incentivize immigration, especially from Europe, such attempts were insufficient. In addition, many of the immigrants ended up going back to their countries of origin (Hanratty and Meditz, 1988).

Immigration movements in Paraguay after this war can be divided into three stages. The first stage (1872 – 1910) was characterized by a flow of foreign migrants whose purpose was to establish agricultural colonies in public lands or private property (Hanratty and Meditz, 1988).

The southern region of Paraguay, which was completely depopulated as a result of the war, began to repopulate with immigrants from the Argentine province of Corrientes. According to Paraguayan Statistical Yearbooks, between 1880 and 1889, some 4,895 Argentines, 530 Brazilians, and 198 Uruguayans arrived. During the same period, a total of 2,078 Europeans and 73 Orientals entered the country (Zacarías Arza, 1954).

The second immigration stage (1911 – 1949) was characterized by an increase, especially from Europe, motivated by the start of the First World War (1914). Furthermore, 1921 saw the arrival of Mennonite immigrants, which continued until 1948, supported by Law No. 514 (Ratzlaff, 1993), which gave them certain privileges and benefits. Similarly, in 1936, decrees were established that gave entry to 1,100 immigrant families from Japan (Fischer et. al., 1997). By 1949, a little more than 55,000 immigrants resided in Paraguay. A high proportion of them were of European origin or from North America as well as neighboring Latin American countries (OAS, 1995).

The third immigration stage began in the 1950s. According to the national population census, a total of 54,000 foreign-born persons lived in Paraguay in 1950 (Fischer, 1997). During the period between 1950 and 1981 the number increased steadily, with more than 165,000 foreigners recorded by the end of the period. Many immigrants were of Asian origin (Japanese, Koreans, and Chinese), but there was also an increase in Brazilian and Argentine immigration (OAS, 1995).

More recently, according to the 1992 Census, 4,6% of the population was foreign born (around 190,907 people), coming mainly from Brazil and Argentina. By 2002, this number decreased to 3,4% or 173,176 foreigners: 47,1% from Brazil and 36,5% from Argentina (National Census Paraguay 2002).

Emigration

International emigration has been a constant in Paraguay's recent history. Since 1881, policies have been created to mitigate the phenomenon and to encourage settlement as well as to attract citizens residing abroad.

Argentina has been the first and most important host country for Paraguayans. According to the National Census of Argentina, in 1895 there were more than 14,500 Paraguayans living in Argentina (Pérez Acosta, 1952). In 1914, the Argentine census indicated that the number had risen to more than 28,000 Paraguayans, almost twice that of 1895. By 1917, this figure had reached more than 93,000. However, the largest volume of Paraguayan emigrants to Argentina took place between 1947 and 1960 reaching more than 155,000 by 1960. (Fischer et. al., 1997).

Emigration to Brazil, though smaller in comparison to that of Argentina, also began immediately after the War of the Triple Alliance (1864 – 1870). Paraguayan emigrants settled primarily in rural areas. Starting in 1950, emigration has become more diverse as it has reached large metropolises, especially São Paulo. According to Brazilian censuses, in 1920, there were more than 17,000 Paraguayans registered, while in 1950, that number dropped to a little over 14,700 (IOM, 1991).

Towards 1960, highly qualified Paraguayans and professionals went mostly to the United States. Between 1960 and 1970, the presence of Paraguayans in the U.S. increased some 200% percent, going from 600 to 1,792 (IOM, 1991).

According to available household surveys' data, between 2003 and 2007, 255,000 Paraguayans left the country. Argentina has continued to be the greatest receiver. Between 2005 and 2009, out of a total of more than 175,000 Paraguayan emigrants, Argentina absorbed 66% percent while Spain received almost 27% percent (DGEEC, EPH of various years). By the year 2010, the total number of Paraguayans abroad had risen to nearly 660,000 who were distributed among Argentina (550,713), Spain (86,682), and the United States (20,023) (DGEEC, 2010; Census Bureau, The Hispanic Population 2010; INE Spain 2010; INDEC Argentina, 2010).

While the Paraguayan diaspora is present in other regions of the world, according to the latest available data, Argentina, Spain, and the United States are the centers with the highest concentra-

tions. In 2006, Paraguay received some \$650 million in remittances from its expatriates according to the Inter-American Development Bank's (IDB) Multilateral Investment Fund (MIF) (IDB, 2006).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Migration in Paraguay is regulated principally by the Constitution of the Republic of Paraguay (1992); the Law of Migrations No. 978/96; Decree No. 18,295/97, which Regulates Law No. 978/96 of Migrations and numerous other laws since the turn of the century.¹

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Immigration categories for entry into Paraguayan territory are those of Non-resident and Resident.

Non-resident

Non-resident foreigners are those in Paraguayan territory without intent to remain there. This category is divided into the following sub-categories:

- **Tourists:** Those entering the country seeking recreation, leisure activity, or rest, for a period of up to three months and extendable for a single additional period of up to three months.
- **Members of public shows:** Those hired by public or private entities on account of their artistic, cultural, or athletic activities, for a period of up to six months.
- **International transport crewmembers:** People in this category are allowed for a period of up to three months, extendable for a single additional period of up to three months.
- **Passengers in transit:** People in this category are allowed for a period of up to three months, extendable for a single additional period of up to three months.
- **Local border passage:** People in this category are allowed for a period of up to six months, extendable for reasons of medical treatment.
- **Border migrant workers:** Those hired individually or collectively and for harvest, for a period of up to five days, extendable for reasons of unavoidable circumstances.
- **Investors:** Those whose intent is to make lawful investments in the country, for a period of up to five days, extendable for reasons of unavoidable circumstances.
- **Journalists:** Those entering the country as accredited journalists and media employees, for a period of three days, except in cases of bilateral agreement.
- **Persons undergoing medical treatment:** People in this category are allowed for a period of up to six months, extendable for reasons of medical treatment.

Residents

Temporary Residence: Foreigners are considered Temporary Residents who enter with the intent to reside in the country temporarily for the duration of the activities that justified their admission. Temporary Residents – with the exception of Political Refugees – may enter and leave the country without the need for a new Permit. Temporary Residents are divided into the following subcategories:

- **Scientists, researchers, professionals, technicians, and specialized personnel:** Persons 1) who are hired by a public or private entity or an established national or foreign business, or 2) who are conducting activities in the country for a job in their specialty. In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods to that authorized, up to a maximum of six years.
- **Business people, directors, managers, and administrative personnel of national or foreign businesses:** Foreigners who are to fulfill specific posts in such businesses. In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods to that authorized, up to a maximum of six years.
- **Students:** Persons who enter the country to study courses in an officially recognized official or private establishment. In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods to that authorized, up to a total maximum that does not exceed two years.
- **Journalists, athletes, and artists:** Foreigners who are hired by businesses or entities established in the country to conduct activities proper to their profession. In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods while the reasons for entry into the country persist.
- **Scholarship holders:** In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods to that authorized and for the duration of the scholarship.
- **Persons belonging to international organizations:** People who enter the country to conduct beneficial or welfare activities. In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods while the reasons for entry persist.
- **Religious:** Foreigners belonging to churches, orders, or congregations recognized in the country. In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods to that authorized, up to a maximum of six years.
- **Political refugees:** In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods while the reasons for entry persist.
- **Refugees:** In this category, people are allowed entrance for a period of one year, renewable for similar periods while the reasons for entry persist.
- **Spouses, minor children or parents:** Relations of persons mentioned in the previous sections. In this category, people are allowed entrance for the same as that granted to the relative with whom entry was made.

Permanent Residency: Permanent Residents are those foreigners who entered Paraguay intending to remain there permanently and for the purpose of conducting any class of activity considered useful by the authorities for the development of the country. The period of the Residency Permit is unlimited. The activities considered useful for the development of the country are the following:

- Incorporating qualified human resources that stimulate the country's industrial, agricultural, fishing, forest, mining, scientific, technological, and cultural development.
- Extending the agricultural frontier.

- Incorporating needed technologies in the country.
- Generating employment of national workers.
- Increasing the exportation of goods and services.
- Settling in regions of low population density.
- Reducing imports.

Permanent Residents are subdivided into the following categories:

- **Immigrants:**
 - *Spontaneous:* Those who request admission and enter the country through their own free initiative, with their own means, and assume all relocation expenses for settling in the national territory.
 - *Assisted:* Foreigners who enter the country because they are promoted by public or private organizations.
 - *With capital:* Those who bring their own resources to conduct activities that are considered of interest by the national authorities.
- **Investors:** Foreigners who make investments and/or transfer financial and technological resources for the development of those areas or activities established by the competent authorities.
- **Retired and pensioners or rentiers:** Foreigners who present proof of being in receipt of a regular and permanent income from external sources that allows them to live in the country.
- **Foreign relatives of Paraguayan citizens, namely their spouses, minor children, and parents**

Acquisition of Nationality

Paraguayan nationality can be acquired in an number of different ways, characterized as 1) Natural, 2) through Naturalization, 3) Honorary. *Natural Paraguayan nationality*

Of natural Paraguayan nationality are those persons born in Paraguayan territory; the children of a Paraguayan mother or father who, being one or both in the service of the Republic, were born abroad; the children of a Paraguayan mother or father who were born abroad and then settled in the Republic permanently; and the infants of unknown parents, found in the territory of the Republic.

Paraguayan nationality through naturalization

Foreigners who meet the requirements of the law may acquire Paraguayan nationality if they are:

- Over 18 years of age.
- Have minimum residency of three years in the national territory.
- Exercise some profession, occupation, science, art or industry in the country.

- Be of proper conduct.

Honorary nationality

Foreigners who have contributed distinguished services to the Republic may be awarded honorary nationality by law of Congress.

The holding more than one nationality is allowed if there is an international treaty of reciprocity between the states of origin and adoption.

Regularization of Status

The Ministry of the Interior, through the General Directorate and with the support of the Brazilian Government and the International Organization for Migration (IOM), began a pilot providing for the regularization of unauthorized Brazilian immigrants in the year 2009.

On December 4, 2011, the Amnesty Law came into effect providing for the regularization of unauthorized foreigners. The Law applies to all foreigners who have resided in an unauthorized way in the Republic of Paraguay for more than a year since the regulation law came into force.

Refugees

In Paraguay, General Law on Refugees, which establishes the rights and duties of refugees has as its legal basis the Convention of 1951 on the Status of Refugees., Similarly, the Migration Law 978/96 regulates matters regarding temporary residence among refugees and asylum seekers, a status granted to them by the National Commission for Refugees (CONARE) in accordance with international agreements and treaties.

All the decisions from the CONARE can be appealed by the asylum seeker, either thru a motion of Reconsideration with the Executive Secretary of the CONARE, or through an Appeal with the CONARE and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Refugees are considered temporary residents who enter Paraguayan territory with intent to reside temporarily while the activities (or conditions) that gave rise to their admission persist.

The same law establishes that foreigners admitted as temporary residents may request a change to another subcategory (ies) of temporary resident or may request a change to the category of permanent resident. In all cases, only foreigners who are in Paraguayan territory may request a change of immigration category before the General Directorate of Migrations, and must, to be admitted into the requested category, justify the reasons that motivate the request.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Paraguay						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.7	5 552
Temporary	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.1	0.4	6 970
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	4 340	5 552	na	na		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type		Persons	% distribution			
	2009	2010	2009	2010		
All types	1 634	6 970	na	na		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	26 150	22 830	15 530	14 240	19 690	14 890
of which to Spain	23 990	20 630	13 400	11 910	17 480	12 660
Chile	610	720	660	710	680	690
United States	550	480	530	470	510	500
Italy	170	210	260	320	240	290
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	6	2	3	2	3	13
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	27.5	24.4	21.6	19.7	18.0	
Natural increase	28.3	25.8	23.3	21.3	19.3	
Net migration	-0.9	-1.3	-1.7	-1.6	-1.3	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	4.3	3.8	3.3	2.8	2.5	161
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	- 3.3	2.9	- 3.8	15.0	2.6	
GDP/per capita	- 5.3	0.9	- 5.5	13.1	0.6	1 509
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				88.2	87.3
	Employment rate				83.3	78.3
	Unemployment rate				5.5	10.3
Men	Participation rate				93.5	86.0
	Employment rate				87.0	73.5
	Unemployment rate				7.0	14.6

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Law of Migrations No. 978/96 (1996)

Law No. 227/93 (1993)

Constitution of the Republic of Paraguay (1992)

NOTES

1. In particular, Law No. 2,193/03, which authorizes the National Police to issue an identity card to foreign spouses of Paraguayans and foreign children of a Paraguayan father or mother; Decree No. 4943/99, which establishes the organic and functional structure of the General Directorate of Migrations, Department of the Ministry of the Interior; Law 3565/2008, which ratifies the Agreement on Residency for Nationals of the States Parties to MERCOSUR; Law No. 3958/2009, which modifies and expands Law No. 227/93, which creates the Development Secretariat for Repatriates and Fellow National Refugees, and Modifies Law No. 978/96 of Migrations; and Law No. 4,429/2011, which regularizes residential status for unauthorized immigrant foreigners.

PERU

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Since the early colonial period, Peru has been a country of immigrants. Hundreds of Europeans came and settled in these lands, mainly Spanish, as well as Africans who were brought over as slaves. These populations intermixed with each other and with the indigenous people already living in Peru, creating a large 'mestizo', or mixed, race (Carillo, Agüero, and World Bank et al., 2002)

Immigration

Spanish immigration declined after the war of independence, which ended July 28, 1821. Nevertheless, in this new era, foreign immigration was dynamic. In the mid-19th century, the Peruvian State issued regulations meant to recruit immigrants in an effort to colonize extensive land areas in the central rainforest. Settlers from various countries arrived. Among them were Italians, Portuguese, Germans, Belgians, and Croats as well as Jewish people of different nationalities (Ferreira and Dargent-Chamot, 2004).

At the same time, also in the mid-19th century, the demand for farm labor in sugar cane and cotton plantations brought many Chinese immigrants. Often, these immigrants were employed as semi-slave labor in coastal plantations, guano islands, railroad construction, and other occupations, as they were willing to perform the most arduous jobs. However, after the emancipation and manumission of slaves was decreed by President Castilla in 1854 the Afro-descendent population increasingly began deserting the countryside. These events influenced the displacement of the Chinese and others to the cities as they came to abandon agriculturally-based work (Klarén, 2004).

The second wave of Chinese immigration took place after the signing of the Treaty of Peace and Friendship in Tianjin on June 26, 1874, putting an end to the unfavorable working conditions of previous Chinese migration and making possible their access to legal mechanisms to defend their rights in the same way as Peruvian citizens (Meagher, 2008).

Towards the end of the 19th century, the Peruvian government suggested bringing Japanese workers to satisfy the labor demand in coastal plantations. Japan during this period suffered from a significant social and economic crisis and Japanese workers, driven, among others, by growing population pressures, began to arrive in Peru.¹ The first contingent of Japanese immigrants arrived in Callao in 1890 on board the *Sakura Maru* (Masterson, 2004). It is estimated that between 1890 and 1970 more than 50 thousand Japanese from different towns and cities arrived in Peru. Additionally, the disaster of the world wars encouraged the migration of hundreds of other Asians, many seeking new possibilities in Peruvian lands (Sowell, 1996).

More recently, the 2007 Census of Population and Housing registered nearly 64 thousand foreign-born settlers residing in Peru, representing 0.2% of the total population surveyed (INEI- Censos Nacionales: XI de Población y VI de Vivienda)

Emigration

In comparison to the historical developments of Peru's past, throughout the 20th century, Peruvian nationals have been attracted to destinations that historically have been sending regions to Peru,

a phenomenon that grew throughout the century, and gathered speed in the early years of the 21st century. Calculations estimate the number of Peruvians who have emigrated to diverse parts of the world at approximately 3 million.² Beginning in the 1960s, migration to Europe surged, mainly to Spain, followed by Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands, Australia emerges as a new destination, though to a lesser extent. (INEI-IOM 2008)

Several factors have contributed to this this emigration trend. These included a political crisis, beginning in the late seventies, accompanied by a civil conflict which resulted in the death or disappearance of approximately 96,000 persons. This was followed by a severe economic crisis, which led to hyperinflation in the 1980s. Consequently, with very few opportunities to work and in response to the aftereffects of armed conflict, many began to emigrate to other countries (Morales, 2007)

Between 1970 and 1990, Peruvians of all social groups moved to the United States, Spain, Chile, and Japan. Canada as well welcomed manual laborers and professionals seeking a new start.

In the latter half of the 1980s, Japan opened its borders to thousands of workers, mainly descendants of Japanese “nikkei,” many of them professionals. A small number of Peruvians have sought other destinations too: such as Central America, the south of Asia, Arab countries, and Israel. In fact, during this decade there were Peruvians in practically all countries of the world. Women too joined the migration phenomenon in greater numbers, a situation that peaked in the years between 2001 and 2006.

The early years of the 1990s continued to be characterized by an economic crisis as well as political and social violence. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita fell to its lowest level in the year 1992, leading to declining incomes, especially among the middle and lower-middle classes, which include most Peruvian migrants. Emigration extended to all social groups, including the poorest people, who traveled to neighboring countries, especially Argentina, Chile, and Bolivia in the south, and Ecuador in the north. The poorest in the Andes or the Amazonian plain were among those who had the fewest opportunities to migrate.

Between 1990 and 1995, the worsening political violence and internal warfare in the country increased the outflow of Peruvians, a tendency that continued until 2006. On annual average, between 1990 and 2009 more than 110 thousand Peruvians left the country each year.

The year 2010 saw the same emigration dynamic. Many Peruvians still aspired to leave the country, despite the increase in macroeconomic stability and the growth of production. With more than 3 million Peruvians emigrating over recent decades, remittances have grown tremendously. The rate of this increase exceeds that of most other countries, including those receiving the most. In the last 21 years, the rate of annual average growth increased to nearly 19% percent, even while taking into account the slight decrease of -2.7% in the year 2009, during the global financial crisis.

Between 1990 and 2010, in cumulative terms, revenue from remittances to the Peruvian economy rose to a little over 21 billion US dollars, with a significant macroeconomic and microsocial impact, principally by stimulating private consumption among Peruvian families in receipt.

It is worth specifying that approximately 10% percent of Peruvian households are linked to migration in some way, according to the latest 2007 Census of Population and Housing.⁴ This is estimated to involve nearly 2.8 million persons, in addition to the more than 3 million residing abroad, which together amount to nearly 6 million.

The share of remittances in GDP is approximately 2% percent. Similarly, they represent nearly 3%

percent of household final consumption and in value represent nearly 9% of Peruvian exports.

With remittances mainly destined for consumption, they stimulate GDP growth and generate greater demand for goods and services by households.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

In Peru, immigration law is principally set forth in 1) the Political Constitution of Peru; the Hiring of Foreign Workers Act and its Regulations; 2) the Refugee Act 27891 and its Regulations; 3) the Aliens Act D.L. N° 703; 4) the Nationality Act and its respective Regulations, D.L. N° 1043; and 5) the Legislative Decree that modifies the Aliens Act, approved by D.L. N° 703. The institution in charge of proposing and implementing rules and guidelines that regulate the administration of migration control for nationals and foreigners is the General Office of Immigration and Naturalization of Peru.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

The Aliens Act sets forth the rules for entry, stay, residence, exit, reentry, and control of foreigners within the Peruvian territory as well as regulating their legal status.

Foreigners are admitted into the National Territory with the following immigration statuses:

a) DIPLOMATIC, b) CONSULAR and c) OFFICIAL - Those recognized as such by the Peruvian State, through its Ministry of Foreign Relations, and who must abide by special regulations.

d) POLITICAL REFUGEES and e) OTHER REFUGEES - Those granted such status by the Peruvian State, through its Ministry of Foreign Relations, and who are subject to special regulations.

f) TOURIST - Those entering the country without seeking residence and who may not conduct paid or lucrative activities.

g) TRANSIENT - Those entering the National Territory while on their way to another country.

h) BUSINESS - Those entering the country without seeking residence and who may not receive income from a Peruvian source but who may sign contracts and transactions.

i) ARTIST - Those entering the country without seeking residence and with the purpose of conducting paid activities of an artistic nature or tied to entertainment shows by virtue of a contract authorized by a corresponding authority.

j) CREWMEMBER - Those crewmembers of foreign vehicles, ships and airplanes entering the country in fulfillment of their duties as crewmembers, without seeking residence, and who may not receive income from a Peruvian source.

k) RELIGIOUS - Those members of religious organizations recognized by the Peruvian State entering the country for a purpose related to the faith they practice and who may not receive income from a Peruvian source, with the exception of activities related to teaching and health, previously authorized by the competent entities, in accordance with the rules of the Aliens Act.

l) STUDENT - Those who enter the country with the goal of studying at institutions or educational centers recognized by the State and who may not receive income from a Peruvian source, with the exception of those in internships or vocational training, previously authorized by a competent authority, in accordance with the rules of the Aliens Act.

m) WORKER - Those entering the country with the purpose of conducting work-related activities by virtue of a contract previously approved by the Ministry of Labor.

n) INDEPENDENT - Those entering the country to make investments, spend their income or exercise their profession in an independent way.

o) IMMIGRANT - Those entering the country seeking residence and to conduct their activities in a permanent way.

Entry by foreigners will depend on the category of visa held by the person, **temporary or resident**, except for nationals of countries with which Peru has signed agreements or mechanisms for the lifting of visas, such as, for example, tourists included in the Peru-Ecuador Agreement and other bilateral agreements or that of the Andean Community.

Visas are classified as temporary or resident; a temporary visa authorizes entry and stay in Peruvian territory by a foreigner for up to 90 days with the possibility of an extension. The resident visa authorizes entry and residence by a foreigner in Peruvian territory for one year with the possibility of an extension.

A Temporary Visa corresponds to those with an immigration status of Tourist, Business, Artist, Crewmember, and Transient. Others may be granted Temporary or Resident Visas, accordingly (Article 15, Aliens Act).

The periods of residency for foreigners admitted with a "RESIDENCY VISA" are:

- Diplomatic, Consular, Official, Political Refugee, or Refugee: For a term fixed by the Ministry of Foreign Relations.
- Religious, Student, Independent Worker: For one year, renewable.
- Immigrant: For an indefinite period of residency.

Immigration regulations will determine the requirements for extensions of stay and residence. (Article 35, Aliens Act).

Acquisition of Nationality

Peruvian nationality by birth

The following have a right to Peruvian nationality by birth:

- Those born in Peruvian territory;
- Those who are underage and abandoned and who reside in the territory of the Republic, the children of unknown parents;
- Those born abroad to a Peruvian father or mother, provided they were registered in the Civil Registries of the Peruvian Consulates while underage or have obtained the Title of Peruvian Born Abroad

Peruvian nationality by choice

The following have a right to Peruvian nationality by choice:

- Those persons born outside the territory of the Republic, children of foreign parents, who have resided in Peru since the age of five, and who upon reaching adult age, in accordance with current laws, express the wish to be Peruvian before the Office of Naturalization of the General Directorate for Migration of the Ministry of the Interior (DGM)³.
- Foreigners united in matrimony with Peruvians, residing in the Territory of the Republic for at least two (2) years, who express their wish to be Peruvian before the Office of Naturalization of the DGM. A person naturalized through matrimony does not lose Peruvian citizenship after divorce or death of spouse.
- The children of a Peruvian father or mother born abroad and who, upon reaching adult age, express their wish to be Peruvians before the Office of Naturalization of the DGM. One must be present and have an address of residency in Peru.

Refugees

Peru has signed the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol. The national legal refugee protection framework is principally found in the Refugee Act No. 27891 (year 2002) and its complementary regulation. The regulation's purpose is to oversee the entry of refugees and the recognition of their status, as well as the legal relationship between the State and a refugee, in accordance with the Political Constitution of Peru and international treaties ratified by the State on this matter.

The Special Commission for Refugees is the body in charge of receiving, studying, processing, and resolving that which is related to requests for recognition of refugee status and for periodically reviewing such qualifications: to decide on the handling and the application of the statute to which the subject has a right and to ensure that all entities involved in refugee matters comply with the agreements contained in the international instruments signed by Peru.

The refugee, once recognized by the Peruvian State, has the same rights and obligations granted to a foreign resident by the Constitution and laws. The person legally recognized as a refugee has the right to be granted the immigration status of a foreign resident for one year, which may be extended annually so long as the reasons for refugee status exist.

The General Office of Immigration and Naturalization of the Ministry of the Interior grants a person recognized as a refugee an Alien Identity Card, which is a card issued to all foreigners. This is an official personal identity document that allows the holder to exercise the civil, administrative, and legal rights to which foreigners are entitled in accordance with Peruvian internal laws.

The status of refugee may be extended to a refugee's spouse or to that person with whom he or she cohabitates, as well as to his or her children or other people dependent economically on him or her, when this has been requested and duly authorized (article 25). Furthermore, a refugee who has remained in the country on such a status may obtain naturalization, in accordance with national laws on the matter.

Temporary protection status

The Refugee Act dictates that in case of a massive entry of people seeking protection in Peruvian territory through 'unauthorized' migration, Temporary Protection Status will take effect.

The Regulations of the Refugee Act dictate that the duration of temporary protection will be three months, with the possibility of renewal. A year after the granting of the status of temporary protection, the High Office of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs will conduct an evaluation of the situation with the goal of achieving a permanent solution for cases of massive inflow, with the support of the international community.

Peru is home to around 1,500 refugees and asylum seekers from more than 30 countries in Latin America, Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East. Most refugees who live in the country are of Cuban origin, followed by Colombians, Serbians, and Montenegrins. In recent years, most asylum requests have been made by Colombian citizens (Nuñez Marco, 2010).

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Peru						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)						
Permanent	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	7 251
Temporary	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	2 312
Permanent migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	2009	Persons 2010	% distribution 2009 2010			
Work	906	1 236	19.5	17.0		
Accompanying family	5	2	0.1	0.0		
Family	1 416	2 444	30.5	33.7		
International agreements	5	1	0.1	0.0		
International study	97	159	2.1	2.2		
Humanitarian	16	46	0.3	0.6		
Others	2 192	3363	47.3	46.4		
Total	4 637	7 251	100.0	100.0		
Temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	2009	Persons 2010	% distribution 2009 2010			
Work	1 699	1 486	51.9	64.3		
Family		2	0.0	0.1		
International study	45	20	1.4	0.9		
Humanitarian	2	5	0.1	0.2		
Others	1 527	799	46.7	34.6		
Total	3 273	2 312	100.0	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	109 810	98 740	77 940	70 750	89 310	74 350
of which to Chile	53 230	38 950	27 580	27 710	36 870	27 650
United States	17 700	15 180	16 960	14 250	16 020	15 610
Italy	4 450	7 180	10 420	12 170	8 560	11 300
Spain	27 370	31 120	16 300	10 050	21 210	13 180
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	10	7	7	10	8	289
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	21.6	18.8	16.4	12.7	10.7	
Natural increase	23.4	21.5	19.2	17.4	15.8	
Net migration	-1.8	-2.6	-2.8	-4.7	-5.1	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	86
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	3.0	6.8	0.9	8.8	4.2	
GDP/per capita	1.4	5.5	- 0.3	7.5	2.8	3 801
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					Percentages	
					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				75.0	76.7
	Employment rate				68.9	66.4
	Unemployment rate				8.1	13.5
Men	Participation rate				85.0	85.4
	Employment rate				80.4	72.1
	Unemployment rate				5.4	15.6

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NOTES

1. The population of Japan rose from 35 million people in 1872 to 50 million in 1910.
2. The estimate of more than 3 million Peruvians is based on recent statistical research that offers a view of the magnitude of the Peruvian migration phenomenon supported by sources and valid statistical methods.
3. Conducted by the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI).

URUGUAY

OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The first wave of European immigrants to arrive in Uruguay occurred in the early sixteenth century, when a large group of Spaniards arrived at the *Rio de la Plata* (large estuary between Argentina and Uruguay). Their descendants, together with those of many Italians who came in the mid-nineteenth century, made up a major part of the population of Uruguay until after the 1950s, when Uruguay stopped being a net receiver of immigrants (SICREMI 2011).

A dictatorship ruled between 1973 and 1985 and created an institutional breakdown after an extended economic stagnation, resulting in several crises. During this period, the situation in Uruguay was not conducive to immigration. In the 1990s, however, immigration resumed when Peruvian citizens entered Uruguay in search of economic stability (SICREMI 2011). Over recent decades, emigration, especially of young people, has been considerable and constitutes a central element of Uruguay's social and economic dynamics. Almost 18% percent of persons born in Uruguay live abroad, which has transformed the country from one that was largely a place of settlement to one increasingly a place of transience for many persons.

Immigration

After its independence from Spain in 1830, Uruguay became a “product of immigrants,” even if flows of immigrants were not on the same scale as those observed in Argentina or Brazil. Those immigrants who joined the country shaped its future development at the same time (Barrán and Nahum, 103). For example, Uruguay's greatest economic growth occurred between 1871-1887 when the country also experienced the largest demographic growth, a result of European immigrants arriving. At that time, Uruguay's per capita income was comparable to that of England, France and Germany (Díaz, 2004).

During the nineteenth century, the majority of Uruguay's migration settled in urban centers, especially in the capital city of Montevideo. Immigrants were predominantly Italian (34%), Spaniards (30%), Brazilians and French (15%), and Argentines (10%). In 1843 60% of Montevideo residents were foreigners; towards 1860 this figure had decreased to 48%. At the national level, the share of immigrants declined from 35% in 1860 to 17% in 1908 (Arocena, 2009).

A large number of Italians arrived in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Many peasants from southern Italy, living in the country's more agricultural region, were suffering the effects of modernization, natural disasters, disease and starvation (Krase 2003) and came to Uruguay in search of stability. They were often involved in the unions and worker's movements (among them were anarchist militants), and had a major impact on labor issues and Uruguayan politics (Arocena, 2009).

Another significant group was the Africans, initially brought as slaves in the eighteenth century. Currently, African descendants constitute 9% of the total population. The Swiss, who arrived in Uruguay to escape an economic crisis, founded an agricultural colony in the southern part of the country called *Nueva Helvecia*, and by 1878, their numbers reached a total of 1,500 (Arocena, 2009). Finally, there was also an influx of immigrants from Eastern Europe, primarily Poland, Romania, Russia, Hungary, Lithuania, and Armenia.

During the first half of the twentieth century Uruguay continued to be a net receiver of immigrants. Among these groups were the Lebanese Armenians fleeing persecution, as well as approximately 10,000 Jews, between 1933 and 1941, were escaping from Nazi Germany.

In the early twentieth century, the Uruguayan government implemented an immigration policy aimed at attracting settlers towards rural areas which were unoccupied. The Russians were among those who came, initially arriving in 1913 and numbering approximately 300 families (Arocena, 2009). While Spanish, Italian, and French immigrants continued to arrive in Uruguay, they came in much more moderate numbers compared to earlier years.

Emigration

While Uruguay, like Argentina, had a successful economic performance as an agro-exporter during this time period, it was on a lesser scale. As of 1930, Uruguay incorporated the import substitution model and was able to achieve considerable industrial development as a result, relative to the dimensions of the country and its weight in demographic terms. However, in time, industrialization reached its limits. By the late 1950s, however, the substitution model had become exhausted, which opened the path to a prolonged period of economic stagnation with unemployment levels that soon became a structural (Pellegrino, 1989).

Additionally, a decrease in the world market for agricultural products during the 1950s also affected Uruguay's severe economic stagnation, increasing social and political instability. It was during this period that Uruguay's traditional net immigration pattern started to change in favor of a marked emigration pattern. The reasons for emigration in the 1960s were primarily economic in nature, as social problems started to reach notorious levels as the new decade approached. In Argentina, the principal destination of Uruguayan emigrants in the 1960s and 1970s, the demand for labor increased considerably, and wages were higher than in Uruguay. (Pellegrino 2005). This political and social deterioration culminated with a military coup and the suspension of civil freedoms in 1973. In addition to the lack of employment, the political repression that characterized this period (1973-1985) was the most important factor propelling the migration waves of that decade. Official figures indicate that more than 200,000 people left Uruguay between 1963 and 1975, and another 177,000 left between 1975 and 1985 (Pellegrino, 2009). All together, those figures represented almost a tenth of the total population.

The majority of those who emigrated were young people. Between 1963 and 1975, approximately 18% percent were 14 years old or less; 68% percent were between 15 and 39 years old; and approximately 14% percent were older than 40 years. Those emigrating had on average a higher education level than the general population as about 52% percent had completed elementary studies; approximately 34% percent had attended high school or formal education institutes, and almost 13% percent had higher education (university) or technical education levels (SICREMI 2012).

In the late 1980s, the "debt crisis" and the lack of employment for young people constituted fundamental factors that contributed to emigration. Those leaving Uruguay not only were younger and with a higher education level than the population as a whole but, in addition, had better labor qualifications. This reality meant the loss of scarce skills, which severely affected the quality of the country's labor force. Certain professions experienced a high emigration trend: architects and physicians in the 1970s and engineers and IT specialists during the 1980s and 1990s (Pellegrino, 2002).

The most frequent destination of Uruguayan emigrants was Argentina, which absorbed half of Uruguay's emigrants during the beginning of the 1970s. The United States and some European countries, such as Spain and Italy, followed by France and Sweden, also received qualified Uruguayan

immigrants. Other migration countries of significance were Australia, Brazil, and Venezuela. By 1980, 9% percent of total Uruguayan professionals and technicians lived in the United States and eleven Latin American countries. This led to a concern about Uruguayan “brain drain”, similar to the Argentine case (Pellegrino, 1994). The estimate of 9% does not include expatriates residing in Europe or Australia, who would bring the proportion to more than 12%.

During the 1990’s a great influx of Peruvian immigrants, who were escaping the severe economic, political, and social crisis in Peru under the Fujimori regime, arrived in Uruguay. According to the 1996 census there were 576 Peruvians in Uruguay in that year, and around 2006 there were between 2,500 and 3,000. While the numbers are not large, the increase may point to a significant new trend for the future (Arocena, 2009).

During the 1990s, the emigration trend decelerated markedly and only regained momentum with the onset of the 1999 economic crisis, which reached a trough in 2002. Unemployment in that year attained 17% (Pellegrino, 2009). During this period, emigration reached the highest levels recorded in the history of the country. The emigration flow followed many of the paths set during the 1970s, with emigrants going to countries where consolidated Uruguayan communities already existed (Pellegrino and Vigorito, 2002). The decades that led to the most recent crisis show a predilection for the countries of the region. Argentina, for example, absorbed more than half of Uruguayan emigrants. Recent movements, however, have been reoriented towards the United States and Spain. Between the years 2000 and 2006, the main countries of destination were: Spain (43%), the United States (26%), Argentina (12%), and Brazil (5%) (Pellegrino, 2009).

Finally, the country’s economic prosperity (due in part to the rise in international commodity prices) in the latter years of the decade combined with the economic crisis in the main countries of destination preferred by Uruguayans (Spain and the United States), has markedly reduced migrant flows abroad. From a negative balance of approximately 28,000 in 2002, the net flow abroad decreased to under 6,000 in 2008, and fell below 1,000 in 2009 (Cabella 2009).

Despite this change, the cumulative number of Uruguayans residing abroad is very high relative to its total population. Uruguayans living abroad numbered 477,000 in 1996. Between that year and 2004, another 117,000 Uruguayans left the country. In total, the number of Uruguayans residing outside of the country in 2004 was close to 600,000 persons, equivalent to approximately 18% percent of the total population (Pellegrino, 2009).

LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Migration is primarily governed by the Constitution and Law 18.250-Migration Act (*Ley de Migración*) adopted in 2008, Law 16021 on Nationality and the Refugees Act N° 18076.

Regulations Governing Entry and Stay

Foreigners are admitted under the categories of 1) temporary residents, 2) permanent residents, and 3) non-residents.

Permanent residents are foreigners who enter the country with the intention to establish themselves definitively. This category is also extended to direct family members once a foreigner has obtained this status.

Temporary residents enter the country to perform an activity for a specified period, whether they are migrant workers, researchers, professionals, students, business persons, journalists, artists,

clergy, and asylum petitioners. Also, included as temporary residents are people who enter the country on humanitarian grounds.

Non-residents are the foreigners who enter the country without the intention to stay definitively.

Acquisition of Nationality

Law 16021 establishes that Uruguayan nationality is acquired by birth or naturalization (legal).

All men and women who are born in any part of the Republic's territory and their children, even when they are born outside the national territory are nationals of Uruguay. According to article 75 of the National Constitution of Uruguay, nationality by naturalization can be acquired by:

- All foreign men and women of good conduct, with a family formed while in the Republic, who possess some capital or property in the country, or in some profession, art or industry, with three years of residence in the Republic.
- All foreign men and women of good conduct, without families in the Republic, who have some of the qualities above and with five years of residence in the country.
- All foreign men and women who obtain special acknowledgement by the General Assembly for noteworthy services or outstanding merit.

Nationality is not lost, not even by naturalization in another country; citizenship rights may be recovered and exercised by settling in the Republic and enrolling in the Civic Registry.

Regularization of Status

Law 18.250 establishes a migration regularization program, to grant legal residency in the country to foreigners whose arrival was unauthorized and who have resided in the country for more than seven years. They may apply for permanent residency.

Refugees

The State of Uruguay is a party to the 1951 Convention on Refugee Status and its 1967 Protocol. The internal legal framework on refugees is established by the Refugees Act (*Ley de Refugiados*) N° 18076, adopted in 2006.

Permanent residence shall be granted to those persons who have been recognized as refugees. They will also be granted an identity card indicating their permanent resident status. When the request for refugee status is pending resolution, the asylum seeker is granted the category of "pending resident" while the Uruguay Commission for Refugees (Comision Uruguaya para los Refugiados – CORE) determines the eligibility for the refugee status.

RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

Uruguay						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	0.4	1.2	1.1	0.6	0.8	2 183
Permanent and temporary						
Permanent and temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	2009	Persons 2010	% distribution 2009	2010		
Work	na	1 326	na	60.7		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	na	568	na	26.0		
International study	na	118	na	5.4		
Others	na	171	na	7.8		
Total	3 825	2 183	na	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
<i>From unstandardised destination country data</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	11 200	8 910	5 820	5 320	7 810	5 570
of which to Spain	7 900	5 440	2 420	2 230	4 500	2 330
United States	1 420	1 450	1 780	1 330	1 500	1 560
Chile	910	1 000	690	840	860	770
Mexico	40	140	230	230	160	230
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	9	5	11	6	8	21
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	6.4	7.2	5.8	0.2	2.8	
Natural increase	8.4	8.5	7.4	6.5	5.8	
Net migration	-2.0	-1.3	-1.6	-6.3	-3.0	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	3.2	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.4	80
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	- 1.4	6.6	2.4	8.9	1.2	
GDP/per capita	- 1.9	6.6	2.1	8.5	1.2	6 967
					Percentages	
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				71.6	69.8
	Employment rate				63.5	59.2
	Unemployment rate				11.3	15.2
Men	Participation rate				89.3	91.0
	Employment rate				83.0	73.0
	Unemployment rate				7.1	19.8

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RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRANTS' FLOWS AND STOCKS AND IN LABOR MARKET OUTCOMES OF EMIGRANTS

United States						
Inflows (Per 1000 inhabitants)						
Migration inflows (foreign nationals)	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
Permanent	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.4	3.5	1 042 625
Temporary	4.9	4.9	4.2	4.4	4.6	1 371 465
Permanent and temporary migration inflows (foreign nationals) by type	2009	Persons 2010	% distribution			
			2009	2010		
Work	361 008	364 544	28.0	26.6		
Work + accompanying family	45 684	45 229	3.5	3.3		
Accompanying family	183 015	202 715	14.2	14.8		
Family	40 645	40 319	3.2	2.9		
International study	342 549	396 180	26.6	28.9		
Humanitarian	8	84	0.0	0.0		
Others	315 223	322 394	24.5	23.5		
Total	1 288 132	1 371 465	100.0	100.0		
Migration outflows (nationals)	Persons					
From unstandardised destination country data	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Average 2009-10
to OECD countries	120 220	132 030	133 770	139 870	131 470	136 820
of which to Korea	18 920	23 400	27 130	28 330	24 450	27 730
Japan	22 790	24 020	23 550	22 670	23 260	23 110
Germany	17 500	17 540	17 710	18 260	17 750	17 990
United Kingdom	15 000	17 000	17 000	16 000	16 250	16 500
Per million inhabitants						
Inflows of asylum seekers	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average 2007-10	Persons 2010
	134	129	124	138	131	42 971
Per 1000 inhabitants						
Components of population growth	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	
Total	9.9	10.0	11.8	9.9	8.9	
Natural increase	6.8	6.6	5.6	5.6	5.7	
Net migration	3.1	3.4	6.2	4.3	3.3	
Percentage of the total population						
Foreign-born population	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	Persons ('000) 2010
	9.1	10.5	12.1	13	13.5	39 917
Annual growth in %						
Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2009	2010	Average 2001-05	Level 2010
Real GDP	4.1	3.1	- 3.1	2.4	2.4	
GDP/per capita	3.0	2.1	- 4.4	2.2	1.5	42 079
Labor market outcomes of emigrants in Europe and the United States						
					Percentages	
					2007-2008	2009-2010
Women	Participation rate				62.0	63.6
	Employment rate				58.1	58.8
	Unemployment rate				6.3	7.5
Men	Participation rate				84.5	78.7
	Employment rate				80.4	73.4
	Unemployment rate				4.9	6.7

PART IV

Statistical Annex

INTRODUCTION

The statistics in this annex come from two main sources, namely the countries of the Americas, on the one hand, and OECD countries, on the other. There is some overlap in the two groups, namely Canada, the United States, Mexico and Chile. The objective of the annex is to provide statistics on two aspects of international migration with regard to countries of the Americas, namely immigration into those countries and emigration from the same countries to OECD countries. The latter evidently does not cover all emigration from countries of Americas to the rest of the world, but certainly a significant proportion of it. The immigration / emigration dichotomy provides a natural structuring of the tables in this annex, for which a lettering system has been defined.

The Table Lettering System

The tables in this annex have been lettered systematically, to make it simpler to remember their content when referencing them. The first letter is either an “I” (for immigration) or an “E” (for emigration). The tables labeled “I” are those for which the statistics come from the countries of the Americas and concern immigrants into those countries. For those labeled “E”, the statistics come from OECD countries, to which persons who are citizens of the Americas are emigrating or have emigrated in the past and of which they are or were residents.

The second letter of the lettering system is either an “a” (for aggregate) or “d” (for detailed). Tables labeled “a” give totals for certain characteristics for each country of the Americas. Tables labeled “d” provide detail for each country of the Americas on countries of origin of immigrants or of destination of emigrants for the American country in question, as appropriate. The exact nature of the country-level detail (whether it is country of birth, country of residence, country of nationality, etc.) depends on the nature of the table. Tables on immigration, for example, give entries of immigrating persons by country of nationality, whereas tables of the foreign-born population will give statistics disaggregated by country of birth and tables on acquisition of nationality by country of previous nationality.

Finally, the third part of the lettering system gives a 2-letter acronym which serves as a reminder of the precise table content. The acronyms used thus far are the following:

- **fl**, for flows, which can refer to inflows (for the I tables) or outflows (for the E tables);
- **as**, for asylum seekers;
- **fb**, for the foreign-born population;
- **an**, for acquisitions of nationality.

Table I.a.fb, for example, describes a table of the total foreign-born population in each country of the Americas (for which data are available). Table E.d.an, on the other hand, refers to a set of tables, one for each country of the Americas, containing the number of citizens of that country having obtained a nationality in an OECD country, by OECD country for which the nationality was obtained.

Note that not all possible tables of the lettering system are present in this statistical annex. For example, there are as yet no E.a.as or E.d.as tables, which would provide statistics on asylum seekers from countries of the Americas, who have made requests for asylum in OECD countries. The lettering system allows room for expansion, for example, to include unemployment rates of workers from the Americas in OECD countries (E.a.un, overall and E.d.un, by OECD country of residence).

Such tables may be included in future editions of *International Migration in the Americas*.

The tables to be found in this annex are as follows:

Immigration

- I.a.fl Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality.
- I.a.as Inflows of asylum seekers.
- I.a.fb The foreign-born population.
- I.a.an Acquisitions of nationality.
- I.d.fl Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality.
- I.d.an Acquisitions of nationality, by country of previous nationality.

Emigration to OECD countries

- E.a.fl Outflows of migrants to OECD countries.
- E.a.fb The population born in the Americas living in OECD countries.
- E.a.an Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries.
- E.d.fl Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination.
- E.d.an Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality.

Sources and Definitions

Flows

Data on outflows of citizens of the Americas to OECD countries are obtained from the official statistics of the latter countries provided to the OECD. These statistics are based on national definitions and are not standardized. Although the OECD produces a set of standardized statistics on permanent immigration, the statistics of these series are not yet available by nationality of the immigrant, which makes them of limited value for the purposes of this publication. Hence the recourse to official national statistics provided to the OECD by its member countries.

The disadvantage of this approach is that the coverage of the national statistics can vary considerably across countries. The statistics for the United States, for example, cover “green-card” migration, that is, persons who receive the right of permanent residence. Those for Germany, on the other hand, cover persons who have arrived from abroad, live in a private dwelling, intend to stay in Germany for more than a certain period of time (which varies by Land (province) but is no more than 3 months), who have registered themselves in a municipal population register and are either citizens of the European Union or have a residence permit of duration compatible with their intended stay period. The immigration statistics for Germany evidently have a much broader coverage than those of the United States, because they include entries of many persons for short-term, temporary reasons, including, for example, seasonal workers, trainees, and international students. Such statistics also exist for the United States but are not commonly included with the green-card numbers, which represent the official “new permanent residents” of the United States.

In practice, this means that the statistics on emigration of citizens of the Americas towards OECD countries shown in this publication are partial and do not necessarily include all emigrants in all destination countries. The most glaring omission for the purposes of this publication is that of temporary movements of citizens of the Americas to the United States, although statistics on the total volume of these movements are shown in Table 1 of this publication. It is planned to correct this omission in the next edition of *International Migration in the Americas*. For the present, care should be exercised in interpreting the statistics on emigration to OECD countries. The statistics presented are indicative and do not present a complete picture of out-migration from countries in the Americas to OECD countries. The reader is referred to the metadata regarding tables E.a.fl and E.d.fl for a description of the sources and definitions of the immigration statistics in OECD countries.

Data on inflows of immigrants into countries of the Americas are based on the statistics of the destination countries supplied to the Organization of American States. The data collected are, as for OECD countries, national statistics, but an attempt has been made to present them according to a common definition. In almost all cases, the data come from administrative sources on residence permits and/or entry visas.

For the purposes of harmonization, the underlying concept is that of “permanent” as opposed to “temporary” migration. A “permanent migrant” in this publication is not necessarily someone who has received the right of permanent residence, but rather someone who upon entry receives a permit which is (more or less) indefinitely renewable, even if some conditions may need to be satisfied in order for the permit to be renewed, such as the holding of a job. Persons who receive permits which are not renewable or only renewable on a limited basis are temporary migrants. The latter include such persons as seasonal workers, international students, service providers, performing artists, etc. In many countries, temporary migrants may be allowed to change status under certain conditions, that is, to move to a permanent migration track, which allows them to stay in the country indefinitely. Persons who do not fall into either of these categories are those such as tourists, persons in transit, business visitors, that is, persons whose objective is neither to establish a residence, whether temporary or permanent, in the country nor to exercise an economic activity nor to study.

Most countries of the Americas, like the United States, grant permanent permits to persons arriving who want to settle indefinitely and satisfy the required criteria or who, after arriving as temporary migrants, would like to stay on, apply to do so and are deemed to satisfy the necessary conditions. This makes it relatively easy, in principle, to standardize the national statistics along the permanent / temporary dimension. In a number of cases, however, certain categories are not explicitly identified as “permanent” or “temporary” and judgment was exercised on their classification. These are identified in the metadata tables. In addition, it has not always been possible to fully harmonize the statistics provided by participating countries, because the statistics are not always sufficiently disaggregated by category of migration. It is expected that the process of standardization will improve over time, as more and more information becomes available on these.

For a number of countries, however, there are some significant deviations from the standard permanent / temporary distinction or in the coverage of the data. These are Chile, Ecuador, Peru and Uruguay. The concepts underlying the statistics for these countries are specified in the metadata on inflows.

To the extent possible, diplomats, their families and employees have been excluded from the statistics of immigration into the Americas. It has been possible to do this, however, only in countries which have provided statistics on immigration by category of entry. Persons in these groups have a special status in all countries as representatives of their governments and are generally not con-

sidered residents, unless they request permission to stay on after the end of their assignment, in which case then enter into the normal statistics of immigration.

The terms “flow” or “entry” used in connection with immigration or emigration phenomena in this publication do not necessarily reflect an actual cross-border movement, but rather an entry into the official statistics as residents, which may not coincide in time with the year when the movement occurred. In some cases, this may simply reflect the interval between the movement and its registration. In other cases, however, in particular with respect to permanent migration, the registration may not be of the entry but rather of the passage from a temporary to a permanent status. The objective of the statistics is not to identify the permanent / temporary status of the migrant when the entry occurred but to allow for situations when someone identified as temporary initially applies for and is allowed to change to permanent status.

Asylum seekers, the foreign-born population, acquisitions of nationality

Statistics for these three groups are more straightforward than are those for inflows or outflows.

Asylum-seekers are persons who have applied for asylum or refugee status (according to the 1951 Geneva Convention), but who have not yet received a final decision on their application. The statistics given in this publication only cover persons who made their request during the specified reference year or years.

The definition of a foreign-born person is self-explanatory; note, however, that it covers persons who are *de jure* residents, that is, persons who happen to be in the country at the time of the census and are not usually resident are not counted. In practice the population covered may include persons born abroad as nationals of the current country of residence. Persons in this group would not normally be considered immigrants of their country of residence. Series on the foreign-born population from the Americas living in OECD countries are given only for Spain and the United States, the two principal countries of destination. Data for other countries are too partial to construct an aggregate series covering all OECD countries.

The statistics on the acquisitions of nationality include acquisitions on the basis of different criteria or regimes, such as by marriage, adoption, right, descent or naturalization. In cases of descent, the persons concerned are not necessarily residents of the country of acquired nationality. In practice, the statistics shown do not distinguish between these various cases, which are aggregated together to yield a total for the reference year. The term “nationality” refers to legal or passport nationality and not to membership of a particular ethnic group.

The metadata for the statistical tables are to be found on the following pages and are labeled as follows:

Immigration

- I.fl Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality.
- I.as Inflows of asylum seekers.
- I.fb The foreign-born population.
- I.an Acquisitions of nationality.

Emigration to OECD countries

E.fl Outflows of migrants to OECD countries.

E.fb The population born in the Americas living in OECD countries.

E.an Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries.

In the detailed tables, cells smaller than 10 have been aggregated together and appear as “Others”.

“na” means “not available”.

Metadata related to Tables I.a.fl and I.d.fl. Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Argentina	The statistics include both 1) filings ("radicaciones") of persons already present in the country and 2) permits to enter, granted to persons abroad. "Permanent and "temporary" refers to residence rights and the right of permanent residence can be granted to either group.	The permanent group includes some changes in status, that is, persons who initially had a temporary permit but later changed to permanent.	National Migration Directorate, Ministry of the Interior.
Barbados	Permanent immigrants are CARICOM skilled nationals, persons with immigrant status, persons granted permanent residence upon entry and persons joining persons marrying permanent residents or citizens. All persons on work permits except CARICOM skilled nationals in wage-and-salary employment are temporary as well as self-employed CARICOM nationals. Also included among temporary are students, persons in training and person on special entry permits.	Persons on visitor's visas, or on single or multiple entry visas are excluded.	Barbados Immigration Department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade
Belize	Permanent immigrants are those granted the right of permanent residence at the time of entry. The statistics on temporary migrants in this publication only include those arriving for temporary employment.		Department of Immigration
Bolivia	Permanent immigrants are those identified as such in the permit statistics, plus relatives or spouses of Bolivians and persons whose Bolivian nationality is recognized at time of entry (e.g. cases of double nationality). All other permit and visa categories are deemed to be temporary, with the exception of courtesy permits or visas, permit or visa renewals and tourist visas, which are considered out-of-scope.		General Directorate for Consular Affairs, Ministry of External Relations
Brazil	Regular migrants in Brazil who have registered with the Federal Police. Those considered permanent in this publication include refugees and persons granted provisional permits (essentially regularized persons) as well as those described in the statistics as "permanent". Temporary migrants include "other categories" (largely those receiving a foreigners' identity card by court order), as well as those labeled as "temporary".	Border workers from neighboring countries are excluded.	Federal Police Department
Canada	Permanent migrants: Inflows of persons who have acquired permanent resident status (including onshore). Temporary migrants: Inflows (first entries) of people who are lawfully in Canada on a temporary basis under the authority of a temporary resident permit. Temporary residents include foreign workers (including seasonal workers), foreign students, refugee claimants, people allowed to remain temporarily in Canada on humanitarian grounds and other individuals entering Canada on a temporary basis who are not under a work or student permit and who are not seeking protection.		Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

Metadata related to Tables I.a.fl and I.d.fl. Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Chile	Temporary residence permits granted.	No permanent permits are granted at the time of entry. Persons must apply for permanent residence after two years (or after the completion of studies in the case of students) or leave the country.	Register of permits of residence granted, Chile Sistema B3000, Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Colombia	Persons granted the right of permanent residence upon entry are skilled workers, family members of Colombians, investors, pensioners and refugees. All other are temporary migrants except for persons specifically excluded (see next column).	Diplomatic personnel, their families and foreign employees, persons on courtesy visas and persons on business visas are excluded.	Migration Colombia, Ministry of External Relations.
Costa Rica	Permanent migrants are refugees, family members of Costa Rican nationals and temporary migrants and their immediate family after three years of residence. All others are temporary migrants.	Persons with non-resident visas are excluded.	General Directorate for Migration and Foreigners
Dominican Republic	Permanent migrants are skilled migrants, investors and immediate family of nationals or of permanently resident foreigners. All others are temporary migrants, except for persons specifically excluded (see next column).	The following groups are considered non-residents: tourists, business visitors, crew members, persons in transit, cross-border residents, service-providers, sports persons, artists, academics, international students and foreigners entering the country to carry out the formalities to become residents.	General Directorate for Migration, Ministry of the Interior and of Police
Ecuador	Permanent migrants include family members of permanent residents; investors; persons of independent means; persons taking on administrative, technical or specialized functions in permanent jobs; professionals and persons in technical occupations. All other are temporary except for those explicitly excluded (see next column).	Excluded are diplomatic staff, their families and employees; persons in transit; crew members; visitors for less than 3 months; daily border-crossers. Statistics for Ecuador measure admissions rather than persons. Persons may be counted more than once if they enter, leave and enter again.	National Institute of Statistics and Censuses.
El Salvador	Permanent migrants are spouses and children of citizens; Central Americans and Panamanians; and persons entering to engage in a profession, trade or occupation. Temporary migrants are persons entering for up to one year for a sporting, cultural or scientific activity, for technical or specialized work or for any other legal activity of a temporary nature. Also persons fleeing persecution.	All other persons fall under the general rubric of "tourists" and are not allowed to change status except under special circumstances.	General Directorate for Migration and Foreigners, Ministry of Justice and Public Security

Metadata related to Tables I.a.fl and I.d.fl. Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Guatemala	A temporary migrant is a person entering the country for up to two years to engage in a legal temporary activity. Permanent migrants include pensioners, persons of independent means and investors and their immediate family; family members of Guatemalan nationals; persons having demonstrated outstanding performances in the fields of science, technology, arts and sports.	Changes in status from temporary to permanent are allowed by law.	General Directorate for Migration, Ministry of the Interior
Mexico	Permanent migrants are persons who intend to settle and have authorization to stay for one year, renewable up to five years, when permanent status can be obtained. Temporary migrants can stay for periods up to one year for activities of limited duration and include temporary workers, religious/cult ministers, political refugees, international students, distinguished visitors, and correspondents. Immediate family members are allowed to enter under the same status.	Excluded are tourists, persons in transit, border visitors.	National Migration Institute (INM).
Panama	Permanent immigrants include investors, the self-employed, pensioners, persons of independent means, permanent personnel of the Panama Canal, permanent personnel of the Panama Pacific Special Economic Area, spouse of nationals and family of permanent residents. All others are temporary migrants, except those specifically excluded (see next column).	Tourists, crew members, persons in transit, mariners and other persons and workers on short-stay visas.	Department of Analysis, National Migration Service.
Paraguay	Permanent migrants are investors, pensioners, retirees, persons of independent means and their family members; family members of Paraguayan citizens including parents; and persons apt to contribute to the development of Paraguay, whether the immigration is spontaneous, assisted or with capital. All others are temporary migrants, except for those categories specifically excluded (see next column).	Excluded are tourists, performers, crew members, persons in transit, border workers, journalists and other media workers paid from outside the country, potential investors, and persons arriving for medical treatment.	General Directorate for Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Peru	Permanent migrants ("Residente") are persons with the right to stay in Peru for at least a year (renewable), whereas temporary migrants are those with the authorization to stay for at least 90 days (renewable).	Excluded are tourists, short-term business visitors, crew members and persons in transit. The statistics for a given year only include those persons still present in the country at end-September 2011. They therefore underestimate the true level of inflows.	General Directorate of Migration and Naturalization

Metadata related to Tables I.a.fl and I.d.fl. Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
United States	Permanent migrants: Issues of permanent residence permits ("green cards"). Temporary migrants: Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, including family members.	Includes among the permanent, persons already present in the United States who changed status. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated). Excluded from the temporary are visitors and transit passengers (B and C visas), crew members (D visas), diplomats, their families and employees (A visas), employees of international organizations (G visas) and of NATO and their families (NATO visas).	US Department of Homeland Security and Bureau of Consular Affairs, United States Department of State.
Uruguay	Permanent residents are foreigners who enter the country with the intention to establish themselves definitively. This category is also extended to direct family members. Temporary residents enter the country to perform an activity for a determined period and include migrant workers, researchers, professionals, students, business persons, journalists, artists, clergy, and asylum seekers.	Excluded are tourists; persons in transit; crew members; sports persons, performers and correspondents entering for specific events; business visitors; persons arriving for medical treatment.	National Directorate of Migration, Ministry of the Interior

I.as Metadata related to Tables I.a.as and I.d.as. Inflows of asylum seekers

Sources for all countries: Governments, compiled by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Population Data Unit. <http://www.unhcr.org/statistics>

Totals in Table I.a.as may differ from the tables by nationality (Tables I.d.as) because the former totals get revised retroactively while the origin breakdown does not. Data for Table I.a.as generally refer to first instance/new applications only and exclude repeat/review/appeal applications while data by origin (Tables I.d.as) may include some repeat/review/appeal applications.

Comments on countries of asylum:

United States: Data for 2004-2010 are a combination of the United States Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS - number of cases) affirmative asylum applications, and of the Executive Office for Immigration Review (EOIR - number of persons) defensive asylum applications, if the person is under threat of removal.

I.fb. Metadata related to Tables E.d.fb.US and E.d.fb.ES The foreign-born population

Country	Comments	Source
Argentina	Population Census 2001 and 2010.	National Institute of Statistics and Censuses
Barbados	<i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	United Nations Population Division
Belize	<i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	United Nations Population Division
Bolivia	Population Census 2001, <i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	National Statistical Institute and United Nations Population Division.
Brazil	Population Census 2000, <i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics and United Nations Population Division.
Canada	Population Census 2001 and 2006; intercensal and post-censal figures estimated by the OECD Secretariat using permanent immigration data.	Statistics Canada.
Chile	Population Census 2002, updated using the Register of Residence Permits granted in Chile.	National Statistical Institute.
Colombia	Population Census 2005, <i>World Population Prospects 2010</i>	National Administrative Department of Statistics and United Nations Population Division
Costa Rica	Initial estimates from the Multiple Purpose Household Survey 2002-2003, projected thereafter on the basis of information from the National Institute of Statistics and Censuses of Costa Rica and the Central American Center for Population.	National Institute of Statistics and Censuses
Dominican Republic	<i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	United Nations Population Division
Ecuador	<i>Population Census 2001 and 2010.</i>	National Institute of Statistics and Censuses
El Salvador	Population Census 2001 and <i>World Population Prospects 2010</i>	General Directorate of Statistics and Censuses and United Nations Population Division.

continues

I.fb. Metadata related to Tables E.d.fb.US and E.d.fb.ES. The foreign-born population (continuation)

Country	Comments	Source
Guatemala	<i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	United Nations Population Division
Mexico	Population Census 2000 and 2010; intercensal figures are estimates using the National Survey of Occupation and Employment.	National Migration Institute (INM) and National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).
Panama	Population Census 2010	National Directorate of Statistics and Censuses
Paraguay	Population 2002 and <i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	General Directorate of Statistics, Surveys and Censuses and United Nations Population Division
Peru	National Household Survey 2002-2009, three-year moving averages centered on the reference year..	National Institutes of Statistics and Informatics.
United States	American Community Survey.	Census Bureau.
Uruguay	<i>World Population Prospects 2010.</i>	United Nations Population Division

I.an. Metadata related to Tables I.a.an. and I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality

Country	Comments	Source
Barbados	Data refer to country of birth, not to country of previous nationality.	Barbados Immigration Department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade
Belize		Department of Immigration
Bolivia		General Directorate for Consular Affairs, Ministry of External Relations
Canada	Data refer to country of birth, not to country of previous nationality. Persons who acquire Canadian citizenship may also hold other citizenships at the same time if allowed by the country of previous nationality.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Chile		Register of residence permits (Sistema B3000), Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Colombia		Migration Colombia, Ministry of External Relations.
Costa Rica		Supreme Elections Tribunal
Dominican Republic		General Directorate for Migration, Ministry of the Interior and of Police
El Salvador	The data cover both naturalisations and "nationalisations", that is, grants of nationality to citizens of Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua who are resident in El Salvador and declare their desire to become Salvadorans.	General Directorate for Migration and Foreigners, Ministry of Justice and Public Security
Guatemala		General Directorate for Migration, Ministry of the Interior
Mexico		Ministry of Foreign Affairs (SRE).
Paraguay		Supreme Court of Justice
Peru		General Directorate for Immigration and Naturalisation
United States	Data by country of birth refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Homeland Security.
Uruguay		Electoral Court of Uruguay

E.fl Metadata related to Tables E.a.fl and E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	Permanent migrants: Includes offshore migration (Settler Arrivals) and onshore migration (people granted permanent residence while in Australia on a temporary visa). Permanent migrants include holders of a permanent visa, a temporary (provisional) visa where there is a clear intention to settle, citizens of New-Zealand indicating an intention to settle and persons otherwise eligible to settle.	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated).	Department of Immigration and Citizenship.
Austria	Foreigners holding a residence permit and actually staying in the country for at least 3 months.	Until 2001, data are from local population registers. Starting in 2002, they are from the central population register. The data for 2002-2007 were revised to match with the results of the register-based test census of 2006.	Population Registers, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months.	Asylum seekers were formerly grouped under the category "Refugees". From 1st January 2008 on, they are classified like other migrants. This may explain some of the increase for certain nationalities between 2007 and 2008.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI).
Canada	Permanent migrants: Inflows of persons who have acquired permanent resident status (including onshore).	Table B.1. presents the inflow of persons who have acquired permanent resident status only. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Chile	Temporary residence permits granted.	No permanent permits are granted at the time of entry. Persons must apply for permanent residence after two years (or after the completion of studies in the case of students) or leave the country.	Register of permits of residence granted, Chile Sistema B3000, Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	Foreigners holding a permanent or a long-term residence permit or who were granted asylum in the given year.	In 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders.	Register of Foreigners, Population Information System of the Ministry of the Interior and Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	Foreigners who live legally in Denmark, are registered in the Central population register, and have been living in the country for at least one year. From 2006 on, Statistics Denmark started using a new calculation on the underlying demographic data. The data from 2006 on are therefore not comparable with previous years. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Excludes asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits.	Central Population Register, Statistics Denmark.

continues

E.fl Metadata related to Tables E.a.fl and E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries (continuation)

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Estonia	Person having previously been a permanent resident abroad, who moves to reside permanently in another settlement unit for a period which is or which is expected to be of at least 12 months.		Population Register and Citizenship and Migration Board, Statistics Estonia.
Finland	Persons who have moved to Finland and who intend to reside in Finland for more than twelve months or have resided in Finland over three months without interruption must notify the register office of their move (Population Data Act 507/1993). Foreign nationals who intend to live permanently in Finland must have fulfilled during a year the preconditions of residence (EU national) and have a valid residence permit for longer time than one year.	Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. Excludes asylum seekers and persons with temporary residence permits.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	The "permanent" entries consist of the first statistical registration as a permanent migrant of people coming from abroad, regularised or who changed their status from a temporary migrant. Data include entries due to labour migration (employees, non employed holders of a 'competence and talent' permit or a 'scientific' permit), family migration (family reunification, members of families of French persons or refugees, families accompanying workers), refugees and other permit holders.	Excludes citizens from the European Economic Area.	French Office for Immigration and Integration (OFII), Ministry of the Interior, Overseas Territories, Local Authorities and Immigration, French Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons (OFPRA).
Germany	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay at least one week in the country.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans. In 2008, local authorities started to purge registers of inactive records. As a result, higher emigration figures were reported from this year.	Central Population Register, Federal Statistical Office.
Greece	Initial issuance of residence permit.	Does not refer to physical inflows but to flows into legal status.	Ministry of Interior Affairs
Hungary	Immigrant: Foreign citizens who entered Hungary in the given year and obtained a residence document according to legal regulations in effect.		Office of Immigration and Nationality, Hungarian Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Persons who have been resident for at least one month in the same place after arriving in Iceland.		Register of Migration Data, Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Figures are derived from the quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) series. The estimates relate to those persons resident in the country at the time of the survey and who were living abroad at a point in time twelve months earlier.		Central Statistics Office.

continues

E.fl Metadata related to Tables E.a.fl and E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries (continuation)

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Israel	Data refer to permanent immigrants by last country of residence.	The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	Foreigners holding a residence, work or student permit.	Excludes seasonal workers.	Population Register, ISTAT.
Japan	Foreigners holding a valid visa and intending to remain in the country for more than 90 days.	Excludes temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Data refer to long-term inflows/outflows (more than 90 days).		Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months.		Central Population Register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Number of foreigners who are issued an immigrant permit for the first time ("inmigrante" FM2).		National Migration Institute (INM).
Netherlands	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least four of the next six months.	Inflows exclude asylum seekers who are staying in reception centres.	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
New Zealand	Inflows: Residence approvals.		Immigration Service, Department of Labour, and New Zealand Statistics.
Norway	Foreigners holding a residence or work permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	Asylum seekers are registered as immigrants only after having settled in a Norwegian municipality following a positive outcome of their application. An asylum seeker whose application has been rejected will not be registered as an 'immigrant', even if the application process has taken a long time and the return to the home country is delayed for a significant period.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	Number of permanent and "fixed-term" residence permits issued. Since 26 August 2006, nationals of European Union Member States and their family members are no longer issued residence permits in Poland. However, they still need to register their stay in Poland, provided that they are planning to stay in Poland for more than three months.	2007 data include registrations of nationals of European Union Member States for the period August 2006 to December 2007.	Office for Foreigners.

continues

E.fl Metadata related to Tables E.a.fl and E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries (continuation)

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Portugal	Data based on residence permits. 2001 to 2004 figures include foreigners that entered the country with Long Term Visas (Temporary Stay, Study and Work) issued in each year and also foreigners with Stay Permits yearly delivered under the 2001 programme of regularisation (126 901 in 2001, 47 657 in 2002, 9 097 in 2003 and 178 in 2004). In 2005, inflows include residence permits and long term visas issued over the year. Since 2006, figures include long term visas for non-EU 25 citizens and new residence titles attributed to EU 25 citizens (who do not need a visa).		Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF), National Statistical Institute (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Slovak Republic	Until 2002, first long term and permanent residence permits. From 2003 on, data include permanent, temporary, and tolerated residents.		Register of Foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
Slovenia	Inflows: Prior to 2008, data on migration included temporary migrants. From 2008 on, immigrants are included when they register residence with the intention to live in Slovenia for a year or more.	Prior to 2008, the data on immigration of foreigners were from the Ministry of the Interior (initially from the Database on Foreigners and later from the Register of Foreigners), while data on emigrated foreigners were estimates prepared by the Statistical Office. From 2008 on, data on migration are from the Central Population Register based on the registration/deregistration of residence in Slovenia, registration of temporary departure from Slovenia and registration of return to Slovenia.	Central Population Register, Ministry of the Interior, and Statistical office of the Republic of Slovenia.
Spain	Data include information regarding registrations and cancellations due to changes of residence registered in the Municipal Registers for all foreigners, by nationality, independently of their legal status.	From 2004 on, the Residential Variation Statistics (RVS) also include registrations by omission and cancellations for undue registration of foreign nationals. Cancellations by expiration are included from 2006 on. These cancellations arise as a result of the legislative modification introduced by the Organic Law 14/2003 on foreign nationals, to Law 7/1985, Regulation of the Basis of Local Regimes.	RVS derived from Municipal Population Registers (Padron municipal de habitantes), National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least one year.	Excludes asylum seekers and temporary workers.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Foreigners holding a permanent or an annual residence permit. Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months.		Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey	Residence permits issued for the first time to foreigners intending to stay 12 months or more in the country.		General Directorate of Security, Ministry of the Interior.

continues

E.fl Metadata related to Tables E.a.fl and E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries (continuation)

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
United Kingdom	Inflows: Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. Data for Table I.a.fl are adjusted to include short term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year. Data by nationality in Table B.1. on inflows are not adjusted. Statistics whose coefficient of variation exceeds 30% are not shown separately but grouped under "Other countries".		International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics.
United States	Permanent migrants: Issues of permanent residence permits ("green cards").	Includes persons already present in the United States who changed status. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Homeland Security.

E.fb. Metadata related to Tables E.d.fb.US and E.d.fb.ES. The population born in the Americas and living in the United States and Spain

Country	Comments	Source
Spain	Population register. Reference date: end of the year.	Municipal Registers, National Statistics Institute (INE).

E.an. Metadata related to Tables E.a.an. and E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries

Country	Comments	Source
Australia		Department of Immigration and Citizenship.
Austria	Data refer to persons living in Austria at the time of acquisition.	Statistics Austria and BMI (Ministry of the Interior).
Belgium		Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI) and Ministry of Justice.
Canada	Data refer to country of birth, not to country of previous nationality. Persons who acquire Canadian citizenship may also hold other citizenships at the same time if allowed by the country of previous nationality.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Chile		Register of residence permits (Sistema B3000), Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	Acquisition of nationality by declaration or by naturalisation.	Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Estonia		Ministry of the Interior.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
France	Data by former nationality for naturalisations by "anticipated declaration" is unknown for the years 2004, 2006 and 2007.	Ministry of the Interior, Overseas Territories, Local Authorities and Immigration and Ministry of Justice.
Germany	Figures do not include ethnic Germans.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Data refer to all possible types of citizenship acquisition: naturalisation, declaration (for Greek descents), adoption by a Greek, etc.	Ministry of the Interior.
Hungary	Mainly Hungarian nationals from neighbouring countries who became Hungarian citizens, sometimes after their former Hungarian citizenship was abolished.	Central Office Administrative and Electronic Public Services (Central Population Register), Hungarian Central Statistical Office.

continues

E.an. Metadata related to Tables E.a.an. and E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries (cont.)

Country	Comments	Source
Iceland	Includes children who receive Icelandic citizenship with their parents.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	From 2005 on, figures include naturalisations and Post nuptial citizenship figures.	Department of Justice and Equality.
Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
Korea		Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
Mexico		Ministry of Foreign Affairs (SRE).
Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	The country of origin of persons granted New Zealand citizenship is the country of birth if birth documentation is available. If not, the country of origin is the country of citizenship as shown on the person's passport.	Department of Internal Affairs.
Norway		Statistics Norway.
Poland	From 2002 on, data include naturalisations by marriage and acknowledgment of persons of Polish descent, in addition to naturalisation by ordinary procedure.	Office for Repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal	From 2008 on, following the modification of the law on Portuguese citizenship in 2006 and 2007, the data include every foreigner who used to have a foreign citizenship and obtained Portuguese citizenship in the given year. Until 2007, data exclude acquisitions of nationality due to marriage or adoption.	National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Justice (Central register).
Slovak Republic	Data refer to persons living in Slovak Republic at the time of acquisition.	Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Includes only naturalisations on grounds of residence in Spain. Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Labour and Immigration, based on naturalisations registered by the Ministry of Justice.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey		Ministry of Interior, General Directorate of Population and Citizenship Affairs.
United Kingdom	The increase in 2009 is partly due to the processing of a backlog of applications filled prior to 2009.	Home Office.
United States	Data by country of birth refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Homeland Security.

I.a.fl. Inflows of legal immigrants of foreign nationality

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Argentina					18 652	20 161	25 447	50 215	80 968	96 284	96 072
Permanent					6 635	36 149	29 380	84 753	144 399	117 740	82 076
Temporary											
Barbados	361	321	211	363	426	282	225	237	216	321	336
Permanent											
Temporary	4 605	5 560	6 178	5 799	6 726	7 305	9 142	11 588	10 385	7 700	6 010
Belize							3 068	1 804	2 912		768
Permanent											
Temporary											
Bolivia (1)										2 487	2 278
Permanent										15 067	17 508
Brazil		8 561	9 779	13 329	12 655	16 440	27 058	18 182	14 213	56 852	17 060
Permanent		12 448	12 424	13 431	15 168	17 367	18 836	22 714	27 749	37 374	43 526
Temporary											
Canada	227 455	250 635	229 045	221 355	235 825	262 235	251 640	236 755	247 250	252 170	280 680
Permanent											
Temporary	305 485	330 435	310 385	290 860	293 930	297 795	321 810	357 380	399 205	382 120	383 930
Chile				29 835	32 099	38 149	48 516	79 377	68 379	57 059	63 912
Permanent/Temporary											
Colombia		2 522	1 322	1 044	1 100	1 313	1 452	1 532	1 814	2 339	3 352
Permanent		31 894	20 359	10 208	7 307	7 848	8 628	9 762	11 313	13 863	15 878
Temporary											
Costa Rica	2 977	4 523	3 661	7 749	4 338	4 942	6 379	5 997	8 324	9 652	7 513
Permanent											
Temporary	913	892	1 518	1 883	1 192	813	1 392	2 862	5 013	6 371	6 351
Dominican Republic											
Permanent			2 387	4 497	4 710	3 573	3 530	2 623	2 786	2 889	895
Temporary			2 769	2 211	2 513	2 231	2 051	1 523	1 970	3 397	4 800
Ecuador							40 273	49 428	52 928	57 802	61 406
Permanent							23 771	26 774	27 376	32 043	33 859
Temporary											
El Salvador							329	586	591	434	336
Permanent											
Temporary								2 054	1 924	1 618	2 015
Guatemala									1 073	1 526	636
Permanent									2 129	3 551	821
Temporary											
Mexico	6 414	8 053	5 828	6 945	8 513	9 172	6 874	7 186	15 913	23 852	26 180
Permanent	11 551	12 547	11 650	33 477	39 819	41 320	46 072	43 914	33 853	32 533	38 813
Temporary											
Panama											2 485
Permanent											
Temporary											3 156
Paraguay	4 085	5 222	5 530	3 416	2 519	567	1 601	3 563	5 354	4 340	5 552
Permanent	326	723	256	348	336	266	299	493	566	1 634	6 970
Temporary											
Peru		76	118	201	557	976	1 388	2 341	3 056	4 637	7 251
Permanent		1 855	1 808	1 765	2 504	2 232	1 979	3 385	2 782	3 273	2 312
Temporary											
United States	841 002	1 058 902	1 059 356	703 542	957 883	1 122 257	1 266 129	1 052 415	1 107 126	1 130 818	1 042 625
Permanent											
Temporary											
Uruguay	1 041	993	1 680	1 851	1 631	1 216	1 156	1 344	3 981	3 825	2 183
Permanent/Temporary											

(1) Plurinational State of

Sources and definitions: See Introduction to Statistical Annex and Metadata

I.a.as. Inflows of asylum seekers

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Argentina	544	495	283	243	312	416	355	540	859	765	796	871
Bahamas	342		135								1	9
Belize	47	38	19	7	35	4	4	2	7	24	25	32
Bolivia [Plurinational State of]	7	20	24	10	27	22	59	179	45	42	48	32
Brazil	913	509	882	422	374	579	864	590	595	389	1 087	4 980
Canada	34 252	44 038	39 498	31 937	25 750	20 786	22 868	27 865	34 800	33 970	22 543	24 985
Chile	69	81	43	87	203	380	573	756	872		260	305
Colombia	8	8	7	18	40	86	70	124	89	372	161	109
Costa Rica	1 686	5 214	3 785	1 745	1 443		775	891	966	1 184	991	964
Cuba	116	93	30	29	15	44	25	21	10	10	23	6
Ecuador	1 666	3 455	6 766	11 463	7 858	7 091	7 784	15 035	17 607	35 514	31 369	14 171
El Salvador	5	23	8	14	3	1	12	9	7	100	55	15
United States*	58 351	77 878	77 655	62 871	44 972	39 240	41 101	40 449	39 362	38 080	42 971	60 587
Grenada											3	
Guatemala	54	69	43	10	15	26	34	55	14	31	15	21
Haiti								1	1	20	1	
Honduras	31	30	75	73	93	106	20	34	44	38	68	9
Jamaica	18											
Mexico	277	415	257	275	404	687	480	374	317	680	1 039	753
Nicaragua	22	13	22	11	18	11	41	59	71	272	120	39
Panama	204	81	126	19	354	435	358	358	202	423	601	1 396
Paraguay	4	15	3	8	13	15	12	35	15	19	13	25
Peru	16	67	93	141	148	222	297	269	211	187	289	466
Dominican Republic	54										3	28
Saint Lucia								1		3	3	2
Suriname											7	4
Trinidad and Tobago								15	63	147	22	29
Uruguay	9	12	8	18	8	26	25	29	16	37	21	20
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic)	102	212	708	1 356	2 264	1 658	2 234	2 365	2 960	2 873	3 450	3 176

Source: UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

* USA: figures from 2004 onwards refer to "affirmative" claims submitted with the Department of Homeland Security (number of cases) and "defensive" claims submitted to the Executive Office for immigration review.

I.a.fb. The foreign-born population

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Argentina (thousands)		1 532									1 806
(percent of the total population)		4.1									4.5
Barbados											28
											10.2
Belize											47
											15.1
Bolivia		94									146
		1.1									1.5
Brazil	684										688
	0.4										0.4
Canada	5 327	5 448	5 601	5 736	5 872	6 027	6 187	6 332	6 472	6 618	6 778
	17.4	17.6	17.9	18.1	18.4	18.7	19.0	19.2	19.4	19.7	19.9
Chile			184	223	236	247	259	291	317	352	369
			1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2
Colombia						105					110
						0.2					0.2
Costa Rica			276	295	308	323	326	327	333		374
			6.8	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.4	7.4	7.4		8.0
Dominican Republic											434
											4.4
Ecuador		104									194
		0.83									1.34
El Salvador								38			40
								0.6			0.6
Guatemala											59
											0.4
Mexico	493					584	610	699	734	850	961
	0.5					0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8
Panama											140
											4.0
Paraguay			173								161
			3.1								2.5
Peru			60	70	73	62	64	76	86	90	
			0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	
United States	30 273	31 548	33 096	33 668	34 258	35 770	37 469	38 048	38 016	38 453	39 917
	10.7	11.0	11.5	11.6	11.6	12.1	12.5	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.9
Uruguay											80
											2.4

Sources and definitions: See Introduction to Statistical Annex and Metadata

I.a.an. Acquisitions of nationality

Nationality acquired	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Barbados	709	873	925	1 151	1 103	1 391	1 015	881	785	1 104	986
Belize	2 328	2 501	2 567	756	671	899	1 560	1 614	1 549	763	
Bolivia						1 134	1 302	1 327	1 227	1 275	1 193
Brazil						22 126	24 843	26 671	30 893	31 725	29 752
Canada	214 568	167 353	141 591	155 117	193 620	198 691	260 755	199 844	176 525	156 304	143 562
Chile										812	629
Colombia	64	127	124	73	101	123	145	132	133	54	102
Costa Rica	1 730	1 505	674	1 494	1 694	1 601	1 711	1 805	2 185	2 363	3 345
Dominican Republic						375	566	768	629	905	1 185
El Salvador									35	35	30
Guatemala	394	330	386	410	568	394	410	438	465	513	547
Mexico	3 944	3 090	4 737	4 317	6 429	5 610	4 175	5 470	4 471	3 489	2 150
Paraguay	134	55	7	3	3	7	36	17	16	9	13
Peru		589	544	658	715	786	770	747	938	1 022	919
United States	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151	604 280	702 589	660 477	1 046 539	743 715	619 913
Uruguay									180	170	210

Sources and definitions: See Introduction to Statistical Annex and Metadata

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	BOLIVIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Argentina										690	643
Peru										367	276
Brazil										377	236
United States										127	222
Spain										109	200
Colombia										96	78
Chile										143	64
Cuba										114	57
Mexico										66	48
France										22	45
Germany										67	41
Canada										56	39
Switzerland										46	31
Republic of Korea										4	30
Italy										38	29
Other countries										165	239
Total										2 487	2 278

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	BRAZIL										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Bolivia		290	351	1 067	892	1 570	10 832	3 478	2 356	18 995	1 774
Portugal		526	530	724	976	1 459	1 526	1 236	1 033	2 191	1 546
China		1 045	1 394	1 122	1 075	1 123	1 297	1 009	954	6 827	1 272
Italy		370	483	741	732	1 119	1 195	1 086	1 010	1 621	1 263
Peru		313	325	613	522	725	580	471	477	5 268	968
Argentina		700	996	1 315	1 119	1 307	2 201	2 035	1 164	937	936
Paraguay		198	170	412	275	485	605	538	400	4 599	886
United States		488	708	928	855	1 065	1 013	775	718	1 138	885
France		445	473	584	590	683	723	645	536	878	712
Spain		284	292	391	377	454	488	524	506	743	683
Republic of Korea		251	245	312	229	320	498	359	302	1 468	545
Germany		391	428	580	555	674	687	566	502	727	540
Japan		373	378	523	395	483	525	407	408	539	501
Colombia		150	231	305	333	487	388	395	240	776	388
Chile		208	182	365	275	308	419	221	206	866	324
Other countries		2 529	2 593	3 347	3 455	4 178	4 081	4 437	3 401	9 279	3 837
Total		8 561	9 779	13 329	12 655	16 440	27 058	18 182	14 213	56 852	17 060

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	CANADA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Philippines	10 770	13 830	11 690	12 745	13 980	18 140	18 395	19 850	24 885	28 565	38 610
India	28 565	31 225	31 870	27 145	28 245	36 195	33 850	28 725	28 250	29 455	34 235
China	35 515	36 420	31 970	36 445	36 635	42 585	33 530	27 610	30 040	29 625	30 405
United Kingdom	8 830	11 735	8 035	6 800	7 525	7 280	7 150	8 210	8 975	8 880	8 735
United States	5 400	5 605	4 940	5 535	6 990	8 405	9 615	9 440	10 170	8 960	8 140
Iran	5 895	6 150	8 115	5 905	6 335	5 845	7 460	6 950	6 460	6 575	7 490
Pakistan	15 370	16 695	15 110	13 185	13 405	14 310	13 100	10 100	8 970	7 200	6 790
Morocco	2 670	4 055	4 160	3 355	3 670	2 925	3 300	4 020	4 195	5 520	6 200
Egypt	1 625	2 560	2 030	2 230	2 400	2 495	2 180	2 335	3 325	3 485	5 985
Iraq	2 595	2 795	2 420	1 485	1 780	2 210	1 775	2 395	3 545	5 430	5 950
Republic of Korea	7 615	9 620	7 350	7 100	5 355	5 825	6 215	5 890	7 295	5 890	5 540
Colombia	2 250	2 980	3 275	4 285	4 550	6 400	6 510	5 345	5 445	4 620	5 205
Algeria	2 855	3 410	3 395	3 070	3 585	3 615	4 790	3 610	3 965	5 375	4 735
Haiti	1 625	2 410	2 185	1 930	1 660	1 655	1 615	1 570	2 480	2 080	4 720
Bangladesh	3 100	3 810	2 930	2 130	2 625	4 145	4 010	2 885	2 945	2 090	4 695
Other countries	92 770	97 345	89 560	88 000	97 065	100 210	98 135	97 825	96 290	98 390	103 240
Total	227 450	250 645	229 035	221 345	235 805	262 240	251 630	236 760	247 235	252 140	280 675

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent and temporary immigrants, by country of nationality

	CHILE										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Peru				12 851	15 644	19 954	28 635	53 225	38 953	27 582	27 714
Colombia				1 008	1 146	1 674	2 449	3 344	4 389	5 314	7 191
Bolivia				1 329	1 406	1 612	1 939	6 038	4 525	3 635	5 836
Argentina				4 942	4 309	4 085	3 517	3 023	3 746	3 851	3 806
United States				1 574	1 337	1 527	1 481	1 516	2 098	2 237	2 927
Ecuador				1 968	1 824	1 913	2 187	3 082	3 060	2 679	2 476
China				502	577	671	729	934	1 261	1 339	1 340
Brazil				687	750	843	1 131	1 206	1 218	1 106	1 311
Dominican Republic				62	70	125	158	257	19	554	1 038
Spain				477	468	535	601	550	713	751	863
Uruguay				622	727	706	791	905	995	688	838
Venezuela				419	404	361	379	566	622	665	741
Paraguay				236	235	325	370	609	723	657	710
Mexico				320	326	412	506	547	666	660	685
Haiti				5	10	8	56	113	135	304	674
Other countries				2 833	2 866	3 398	3 587	3 462	5 256	5 037	5 762
Total				29 835	32 099	38 149	48 516	79 377	68 379	57 059	63 912

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	COLOMBIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Venezuela		1 803	1 463	807	621	741	837	1 066	1 632	2 208	3 294
Ecuador		1 512	1 883	1 324	1 319	1 465	1 413	1 730	1 690	1 542	1 884
Spain		2 020	1 621	536	627	530	663	743	902	1 178	1 395
United States		3 871	2 704	1 296	578	568	801	961	984	1 244	1 391
Peru		1 198	1 075	970	706	703	802	831	915	1 171	1 321
China		748	539	466	352	472	330	715	574	841	1 208
Mexico		1 559	887	456	388	490	668	663	831	1 000	1 181
Argentina		859	879	647	477	491	563	535	621	818	901
Cuba		1 847	1 225	957	460	537	569	661	657	671	771
Brazil		724	581	371	313	347	415	469	629	674	760
Italy		921	855	297	288	337	365	380	455	511	594
France		1 207	888	262	257	258	297	312	420	533	588
Chile		593	527	294	278	277	300	329	367	447	583
Germany		876	604	231	186	268	284	337	411	485	522
Great Britain		526	349	213	214	223	292	265	351	416	402
Other countries		14 278	10 228	4 345	2 991	3 336	3 749	3 757	3 984	4 862	5 545
Total		34 542	26 308	13 472	10 055	11 043	12 348	13 754	15 423	18 601	22 340

Note: Includes diplomats, their families and employees.

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	COSTA RICA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Nicaragua	350	1 848	663	1 850	1 337	2 032	3 234	3 517	4 647	5 886	5 226
Colombia	359	552	737	2 109	1 002	1 247	1 037	889	1 034	1 049	565
United States	283	402	395	516	280	261	305	272	376	530	340
Venezuela	18	38	47	124	90	71	102	98	187	206	171
El Salvador	28	60	64	105	44	79	89	64	100	133	104
Peru	124	99	110	243	121	186	164	110	117	158	94
Cuba	628	335	351	529	263	252	487	212	570	236	92
China	195	149	251	738	611	97	198	73	284	272	83
Dominican Republic	141	120	81	202	65	101	43	74	110	116	72
Guatemala	29	24	30	65	26	24	26	41	34	78	65
Honduras	16	24	33	55	25	50	42	33	72	80	60
Panama	41	85	47	78	33	41	50	52	82	81	55
Canada	56	74	76	105	44	39	51	50	58	65	51
Italy	74	80	89	68	36	38	47	43	47	53	44
Mexico	61	41	49	91	45	41	41	39	59	62	43
Other countries	574	592	638	871	316	383	463	430	547	647	448
Total	2 977	4 523	3 661	7 749	4 338	4 942	6 379	5 997	8 324	9 652	7 513

I.d.f. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States			201	637	598	472	450	324	310	321	120
Brazil			10	59	52	28	109	43	91	75	100
China			138	148	321	208	212	159	247	231	77
Haiti			119	366	840	626	599	379	395	349	68
Spain			20	332	254	250	204	167	158	178	61
Colombia			190	510	432	284	262	226	232	224	56
Cuba			248	380	343	306	381	256	229	291	49
France			152	202	239	168	178	139	115	106	43
Canada			60	121	102	112	65	61	47	93	34
Venezuela			62	166	172	98	92	64	102	91	33
Mexico			45	72	62	50	52	48	45	100	25
Italy			172	231	215	174	150	99	133	113	23
Ecuador			22	49	30	26	32	24	30	18	20
Peru			29	89	61	42	74	48	80	66	17
Russian Federation			17	22	27	26	65	74	86	119	16
Other countries			902	1 113	962	703	605	512	486	514	153
Total			2 387	4 497	4 710	3 573	3 530	2 623	2 786	2 889	895

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

ECUADOR											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Colombia										15 759	16 693
Cuba										11 471	12 932
United States										5 577	6 009
Peru										2 873	2 990
Chile										2 837	2 956
Argentina										2 086	2 196
China										2 135	2 088
Spain										1 555	1 668
Germany										1 420	1 420
Venezuela										1 181	1 278
Italy										1 006	947
Mexico										705	809
Brazil										787	794
United Kingdom										695	788
Canada										554	622
Other countries										7 161	7 216
Total										57 802	61 406

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

EL SALVADOR											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Guatemala							49	69	53	65	52
Honduras							31	81	57	41	48
Nicaragua							42	80	88	53	37
United States							25	60	57	43	27
Mexico							22	27	38	36	23
Colombia							25	50	32	32	19
Spain							3	26	37	18	19
Costa Rica							9	23	23	24	11
Peru							4	10	20	9	10
Other countries							119	160	186	113	90
Total							329	586	591	434	336

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	MEXICO										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States											4 026
Colombia											2 312
Cuba											1 847
Guatemala											1 799
China											1 736
Venezuela											1 664
Honduras											1 544
Argentina											1 443
Spain											969
Peru											825
Canada											748
El Salvador											708
France											565
Italy											550
Korea											505
Other countries											4 939
Total											26 180

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	PANAMA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Colombia											841
Venezuela											224
China											138
Dominican Republic											130
Italy											129
United States											128
Ecuador											109
Nicaragua											81
Peru											62
Cuba											50
Spain											49
Costa Rica											49
Mexico											46
Canada											37
El Salvador											36
Other countries											375
Total											2 485

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

	PERU										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
China		7	16	22	78	198	256	374	599	952	1 108
United States		3	14	19	51	73	114	139	176	277	611
Spain			6	17	48	77	108	137	166	293	566
Colombia			2	12	19	29	48	81	140	312	550
Argentina		8	8	29	39	61	99	246	242	323	464
Italy		4	1	6	37	62	65	121	143	231	434
Brazil		4	7	9	25	42	40	76	126	181	395
Mexico		3	1	7	14	19	33	68	103	142	287
Chile		3	6	14	27	52	35	77	101	169	251
Germany			5	1	15	40	95	157	143	181	245
Bolivia		7	10	8	20	27	39	33	50	123	218
Ecuador		2	1	3	6	15	20	32	69	112	189
Korea			6	1	13	26	30	68	106	117	179
Cuba			1	2	13	16	9	23	61	101	178
France		4	5	3	20	26	38	46	52	122	160
Other countries		31	29	48	132	213	359	663	779	1 001	1 416
Total		76	118	201	557	976	1 388	2 341	3 056	4 637	7 251

Note: Includes diplomats, their families and employees.

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent immigrants, by country of nationality

UNITED STATES											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Mexico	173 493	205 560	218 822	115 585	175 411	161 445	173 749	148 640	189 989	164 920	139 120
China	45 585	56 267	61 082	40 568	55 494	69 933	87 307	76 655	80 271	64 238	70 863
India	41 903	70 032	70 823	50 228	70 151	84 680	61 369	65 353	63 352	57 304	69 162
Philippines	42 343	52 919	51 040	45 250	57 846	60 746	74 606	72 596	54 030	60 029	58 173
Dominican Republic	17 465	21 195	22 515	26 159	30 506	27 503	38 068	28 024	31 879	49 414	53 870
Cuba	18 960	27 453	28 182	9 262	20 488	36 261	45 614	29 104	49 500	38 954	33 573
Vietnam	26 553	35 419	33 563	22 087	31 524	32 784	30 691	28 691	31 497	29 234	30 632
Haiti	22 337	27 031	20 213	12 293	14 191	14 524	22 226	30 405	26 007	24 280	22 582
Colombia	14 427	16 627	18 758	14 720	18 846	25 566	43 144	33 187	30 213	27 849	22 406
Republic of Korea	15 721	20 532	20 724	12 382	19 766	26 562	24 386	22 405	26 666	25 859	22 227
Iraq	5 087	4 965	5 174	2 450	3 494	4 077	4 337	3 765	4 795	12 110	19 855
Jamaica	15 949	15 322	14 835	13 347	14 430	18 345	24 976	19 375	18 477	21 783	19 825
El Salvador	22 543	31 089	31 060	28 231	29 807	21 359	31 782	21 127	19 659	19 909	18 806
Pakistan	14 504	16 393	13 694	9 415	12 086	14 926	17 418	13 492	19 719	21 555	18 258
Bangladesh	7 204	7 152	5 483	4 616	8 061	11 487	14 644	12 074	11 753	16 651	14 819
Other countries	356 924	450 943	443 382	296 944	395 779	512 059	571 806	447 522	449 316	496 724	428 447
Total	840 998	1 058 899	1 059 350	703 537	957 880	1 122 257	1 266 123	1 052 415	1 107 123	1 130 813	1 042 618

I.d.fl. Inflows of legal permanent and temporary immigrants, by country of nationality

URUGUAY											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Argentina											719
Brazil											433
United States											203
Peru											101
Spain											100
Germany											74
Colombia											59
Chile											51
Paraguay											48
Cuba											47
France											36
Italy											34
China											29
Mexico											21
Venezuela											19
Other countries											209
Total											2 183

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

BARBADOS											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United Kingdom	195	220	212	255	284	343	260	237	220	284	267
United States	126	148	196	230	213	309	241	192	194	259	241
Canada	85	99	83	131	99	164	111	109	91	119	107
Guyana	87	23	15	20	22	35	112	28	70	112	83
Saint Vincent	41	14	7	20	15	26	55	10	38	60	50
Saint Lucia	40	14	20	19	17	29	38	21	30	40	49
Trinidad and Tobago	32	20	20	32	12	21	49	25	41	72	49
Jamaica	14	3	3	6	8	6	34	11	20	39	36
India	11		1	2	1	4	13	5	10	11	17
Others	78	332	368	436	432	454	102	243	71	108	87
Total	709	873	925	1 151	1 103	1 391	1 015	881	785	1 104	986

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

Country of previous nationality	BELIZE										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Guatemala	963	713	446	355	183	274	487	577	620	248	
Honduras	136	155	91	79	118	153	209	269	325	121	
Other	76	714	822	82	130	114	147	222	108	120	
El Salvador	765	458	156	177	93	116	192	218	288	116	
China	189	269	926	8	44	126	340	167	62	65	
United States	53	69	67	16	28	49	66	72	37	29	
India	20	20	18		23	22	45	27	25	19	
Nicaragua	32	22	5	6	2	6	11	15	25	15	
Mexico	47	37	20	13	14	19	23	20	24	12	
Others	47	44	16	20	36	20	40	27	35	18	
Total	2 328	2 501	2 567	756	671	899	1 560	1 614	1 549	763	

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

Country of previous nationality	BOLIVIA (PLURINATIONAL STATE OF)										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Argentina						231	112	208	243	366	478
Spain						52	141	162	190	214	162
United States						140	322	411	270	212	160
Brazil						105	85	86	93	97	99
Peru						231	116	84	90	99	58
Chile						30	25	30	39	33	26
France						9	21	41	33	27	26
Mexico						34	24	17	15	12	21
Canada						10	36	20	19	23	18
Switzerland						16	28	23	11	6	18
Germany						17	29	31	24	31	15
Cuba						66	42	29	25	20	14
Italy						8	54	25	33	37	10
Others						185	267	160	142	98	88
Total						1 134	1 302	1 327	1 227	1 275	1 193

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

Country of previous nationality	BRAZIL										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States						6 876	8 751	9 937	10 946	9 986	9 196
Japan						3 645	4 036	4 309	4 959	4 493	3 506
Portugal						2 063	2 101	2 330	2 957	3 383	2 824
Paraguay						2 444	1 706	880	1 118	1 511	2 200
Spain						537	689	1 054	1 129	1 886	1 775
Italy						1 024	922	1 168	1 529	1 805	1 614
Germany						877	881	827	871	1 029	978
France						484	511	533	632	1 175	879
Switzerland						390	636	618	647	252	802
Canada						329	360	323	565	745	597
Uruguay						123	108	148	164	210	566
Lebanon							279	209	210	241	474
Argentina						277	429	230	313	357	465
Israel						220	220	280	90	280	417
Bolivia						205	295	183	513	233	303
Others						2 632	2 919	3 642	4 250	4 139	3 156
Total						22 126	24 843	26 671	30 893	31 725	29 752

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

CANADA											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
India	18 681	14 029	12 623	13 934	21 826	22 059	33 967	25 789	20 827	17 396	18 956
China	22 775	17 406	16 321	20 021	25 138	25 771	34 474	24 345	21 025	16 008	13 412
Philippines	14 024	9 485	7 622	8 225	9 022	11 035	15 566	12 196	11 666	11 068	11 608
Pakistan	8 073	8 610	7 292	6 494	10 676	12 429	17 121	11 623	9 430	7 838	8 062
United Kingdom	3 772	2 964	2 698	4 366	7 452	6 743	6 492	5 170	4 657	4 310	4 456
Colombia	451	554	724	953	1 510	2 084	3 136	3 782	4 671	4 286	3 811
United States	3 784	2 943	2 812	3 859	5 288	5 058	5 117	4 267	4 133	3 734	3 712
Iran	6 495	6 322	5 712	5 135	4 616	4 984	8 087	5 336	4 988	3 828	3 575
Korea	3 721	3 106	3 464	4 350	5 909	5 425	7 558	5 860	5 248	3 835	3 159
Romania	4 546	3 376	2 672	3 105	3 294	4 470	5 884	4 682	4 374	4 417	3 089
Sri Lanka	6 603	4 376	3 500	3 261	5 151	4 579	5 650	4 703	3 691	3 186	2 915
Algeria	1 834	1 756	1 557	1 687	1 500	2 146	3 329	2 552	2 150	3 159	2 451
Russian Federation	3 113	3 417	3 379	3 438	3 796	4 077	4 621	3 677	3 324	2 714	2 365
Bangladesh	2 631	2 282	1 553	1 527	2 053	2 859	3 415	2 023	1 873	2 140	2 282
Morocco	996	924	922	1 347	1 190	2 338	3 871	2 728	2 225	3 371	2 031
Others	113 069	85 803	68 740	73 415	85 199	82 634	102 467	81 111	72 243	65 014	57 678
Total	214 568	167 353	141 591	155 117	193 620	198 691	260 755	199 844	176 525	156 304	143 562

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

CHILE											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Peru										170	128
Cuba										107	98
Other										131	97
Ecuador										72	81
Bolivia										114	78
Colombia										61	44
Taiwan										60	38
China										46	25
Pakistan										17	15
Venezuela										14	14
Argentina										20	11
Others											
Total										812	629

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

COLOMBIA											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Ecuador	0	13	9	3	6	7	12	13	13	0	18
Venezuela	1	1	3	0	1	4	3	4	16	5	15
Spain	1	5	5	14	8	6	14	18	11	7	13
Cuba	4	11	10	9	9	14	19	15	16	15	10
Others	58	97	97	47	77	92	97	82	77	27	46
Total	64	127	124	73	101	123	145	132	133	54	102

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

COSTA RICA											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Nicaragua	972	830	321	720	776	624	613	634	766	802	1 197
Colombia	43	82	20	110	133	209	281	365	477	532	861
Cuba	64	75	41	119	132	154	168	145	172	181	168
Peru	70	53	33	48	72	54	87	64	101	78	153
Dominican Republic	22	25	28	93	101	87	90	78	79	112	135
El Salvador	174	133	56	82	96	72	75	71	84	76	109
China	46	47	36	53	52	57	42	59	68	75	101
United States	36	33	20	38	66	47	36	51	48	53	93
Denmark		4		3	11	27	53	81	100	152	91
Panama	52	46	18	49	49	38	36	30	54	27	58
Guatemala	22	13	6	12	17	16	22	14	14	9	38
Venezuela	4	5	1	7	10	8	9	7	20	28	34
Taiwan	22	13	19	13	14	22	24	29	31	33	31
Honduras	32	25	8	16	11	22	24	23	22	23	28
Ecuador	14	14	6	21	21	9	12	21	18	19	18
Others	157	107	61	110	133	155	139	133	131	163	230
Total	1 730	1 505	674	1 494	1 694	1 601	1 711	1 805	2 185	2 363	3 345

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total						375	566	768	629	905	1 185

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

EL SALVADOR											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Guatemala										10	14
Honduras									13		18
Nicaragua											17
Others									51	49	32
Total									64	59	81

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

GUATEMALA											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	75	34	89	110	172	150	178	205	270	321	380
El Salvador	54	71	48	45	86	26	49	57	54	49	37
Guatemala	141	117	121	125	135	79	43	23	30	47	31
Nicaragua	52	49	80	64	77	46	47	36	32	24	22
Honduras	6	9	9	17	20	15	13	21	16	9	16
Costa Rica	11	8	6	11	13	12	5	11	9	10	11
Others	55	42	33	38	65	66	75	85	54	53	50
Total	394	330	386	410	568	394	410	438	465	513	547

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

MEXICO											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Colombia			434		901	813	689	892	690	390	305
Cuba			549		661	666	429	660	459	307	240
Argentina			142		328	372	400	450	400	265	170
China			211		310	324	188	211	241	154	145
Venezuela			39		107	197	185	316	309	159	126
Spain			140		218	301	239	286	251	227	121
United States			94		215	286	334	287	246	266	117
Peru			226		320	191	215	292	213	166	107
Guatemala			1 650		1 624	247	114	185	141	209	95
El Salvador			208		243	235	137	159	118	163	81
Honduras			77		118	156	59	123	98	131	55
Ecuador			41		64	67	52	83	63	41	41
Italy			57		93	99	89	94	108	76	39
Chile			29		77	86	58	90	69	72	38
France			62		105	93	105	71	77	82	37
Others			778		1 045	1 477	882	1 271	988	781	433
Total	3 944	3 090	4 737	4 317	6 429	5 610	4 175	5 470	4 471	3 489	2 150

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

PARAGUAY											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	134	55	7	3	3	7	36	17	16	9	13

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

PERU											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Europe (not spec.)		119	142	171	199	190	252	223	293	267	269
Argentina		99	91	104	95	91	89	66	87	87	105
Spain		40	26	43	50	62	45	80	62	102	82
Venezuela		40	27	36	28	36	42	36	56	64	67
Chile		14	26	37	28	42	44	37	69	66	60
Cuba		28	12	26	31	29	18	24	30	71	36
Colombia		20	12	21	28	26	30	27	43	45	35
Italy		18	15	7	16	13	12	9	22	21	28
Mexico		5	7	12	12	23	9	17	24	20	20
France		11	8	5	6	10	10	12	10	18	19
Brazil		16	20	16	21	29	23	16	26	23	18
Canada		12	5	9	9	10	15	18	22	12	18
Bolivia		10	16	12	26	35	28	28	31	30	15
Japan		13	17	8	14	32	21	33	17	20	15
Ecuador		9	5	11	8	17	10	9	6	20	14
Others		135	115	140	144	141	122	112	140	156	118
Total		589	544	658	715	786	770	747	938	1 022	919

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

UNITED STATES											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Mexico	189 705	103 234	76 531	56 093	63 840	77 089	83 979	122 258	231 815	111 630	67 062
India	42 198	34 311	33 774	29 790	37 975	35 962	47 542	46 871	65 971	52 889	61 142
Philippines	46 563	35 431	30 487	29 081	31 448	36 673	40 500	38 830	58 792	38 934	35 465
China	54 534	34 423	32 018	24 014	27 309	31 708	35 387	33 134	40 017	37 130	33 969
Vietnam	55 934	41 596	36 835	25 995	27 480	32 926	29 917	27 921	39 584	31 168	19 313
Colombia	14 018	10 872	10 634	7 962	9 819	11 396	15 698	12 089	22 926	16 593	18 417
Dominican Republic	25 176	15 010	15 591	12 627	15 464	20 831	22 165	20 645	35 251	20 778	15 451
Cuba	15 661	11 393	10 889	7 727	11 236	11 227	21 481	15 394	39 871	24 891	14 050
Haiti	14 428	10 408	9 280	7 263	8 215	9 740	15 979	11 552	21 229	13 290	12 291
Jamaica	22 567	13 978	13 973	11 232	12 271	13 674	18 953	12 314	21 324	15 098	12 070
Pakistan	8 726	8 375	8 658	7 431	8 744	9 699	10 411	9 147	11 813	12 528	11 601
Korea	23 858	18 053	17 307	15 968	17 184	19 223	17 668	17 628	22 759	17 576	11 170
El Salvador	24 073	13 663	10 716	8 738	9 602	12 174	13 430	17 157	35 796	18 927	10 343
Iran	19 251	13 881	11 796	10 807	11 781	11 031	11 363	10 557	11 813	12 069	9 337
Nigeria	4 128	4 349	6 412	5 691	6 470	6 894	8 652	6 582	8 597	9 298	9 126
Others	327 968	239 228	248 807	202 785	238 313	264 033	309 464	258 398	378 981	310 916	279 106
Total	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151	604 280	702 589	660 477	1 046 539	743 715	619 913

I.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality by country of previous nationality

URUGUAY											
Country of previous nationality	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Argentina									55	43	48
Perú									27	17	32
Brasil									23	17	19
España									17	27	5
Cuba									9	5	21
China									9	7	12
Chile									6	8	9
Rusia									4	2	13
Colombia									2	5	7
Paraguay									3	6	5
Others									27	30	36
Total									182	167	207

E.a.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2000-2010
Antigua and Barbuda	502	420	350	446	479	635	456	522	504	424	4 738
Argentina	23 201	52 361	40 495	43 395	41 996	40 514	35 761	32 359	24 887	21 993	356 962
Bahamas	1 066	839	467	638	752	916	795	778	812	746	7 809
Barbados	1 071	977	622	756	1 008	1 102	859	768	773	624	8 560
Belize	979	1 030	621	939	935	1 317	1 151	1 226	1 210	1 186	10 594
Bolivia	7 736	13 129	22 687	49 349	50 268	85 578	62 571	23 661	19 090	20 593	354 662
Brazil	80 390	63 869	69 800	90 493	106 554	110 602	107 068	87 963	63 203	63 317	843 259
Canada	39 586	38 790	31 718	30 443	37 695	43 949	35 354	43 756	36 943	41 945	380 179
Chile	7 325	8 544	8 513	12 468	14 148	15 811	15 097	12 223	10 261	10 011	114 401
Colombia	93 677	61 953	38 095	52 087	63 916	93 120	89 266	89 784	71 938	63 148	716 984
Costa Rica	2 092	2 232	1 874	2 575	3 172	4 384	3 992	3 581	3 784	3 692	31 378
Cuba	34 342	37 711	18 733	32 044	48 042	60 053	44 770	66 792	52 905	47 592	442 984
Dominica	842	484	693	663	683	887	898	1 002	973	829	7 954
Dominican Republic	27 690	31 442	36 774	44 476	43 643	56 195	50 055	54 735	66 317	68 720	480 047
Ecuador	93 670	103 956	101 637	47 575	38 958	49 158	51 919	61 838	41 998	34 549	625 258
El Salvador	31 948	32 192	29 736	31 827	23 128	34 048	24 330	23 281	23 579	23 417	277 486
Grenada	997	899	723	918	1 153	1 445	1 129	1 106	1 095	912	10 377
Guatemala	14 129	16 993	15 129	19 864	17 978	25 710	19 912	19 178	15 958	14 048	178 899
Guyana	10 484	11 617	8 474	7 881	10 666	10 994	7 135	8 420	7 958	7 920	91 549
Haiti	31 782	24 748	17 138	19 135	19 652	26 955	34 737	31 286	29 362	33 112	267 907
Honduras	7 443	7 525	5 942	7 866	10 191	15 096	16 991	13 200	13 068	14 680	112 002
Jamaica	18 905	17 549	15 563	16 755	20 448	27 158	21 885	21 252	24 667	22 534	206 696
Mexico	212 729	227 126	124 035	187 184	174 387	188 317	163 774	206 266	180 234	156 325	1 820 377
Nicaragua	19 958	11 066	4 620	4 745	4 604	6 840	8 387	7 528	7 723	7 867	83 338
Panama	2 088	2 071	1 626	1 984	2 518	3 451	2 879	2 813	3 032	2 572	25 034
Paraguay	830	1 532	3 396	11 465	13 940	23 608	26 145	22 830	15 533	14 240	133 519
Peru	20 253	26 441	48 574	59 359	65 765	83 473	109 807	98 740	77 935	70 782	661 129
Saint Kitts and Nevis	507	375	354	326	357	479	366	399	342	383	3 888
Saint Lucia	832	725	655	814	1 150	1 518	1 323	1 379	1 438	1 251	11 085
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	854	736	530	706	980	1 147	1 154	1 024	1 125	1 041	9 297
Suriname	3 161	2 891	2 995	2 754	2 083	1 641	1 662	2 047	1 883	1 995	23 112
Trinidad and Tobago	8 162	6 813	4 962	6 219	7 524	9 833	8 043	7 184	7 582	6 604	72 926
United States	100 060	106 345	105 601	108 099	114 284	119 466	120 216	132 028	133 768	139 934	1 179 801
Uruguay	3 685	7 738	10 528	13 719	10 487	11 880	11 198	8 913	5 824	5 337	89 309
Venezuela	11 570	13 231	17 617	22 185	27 014	26 666	28 157	26 639	24 220	23 538	220 837
All countries	914 546	936 350	791 257	932 152	980 558	1 133 946	1 109 242	1 116 501	971 924	927 861	9 864 337

Sources and definitions: See Introduction to Statistical Annex and Metadata

E.a.fb.US. The population born in the Americas living in OECD countries - United States

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Antigua and Barbuda	19 965	21 538	11 483	20 206	17 409	13 669	21 827	20 139	16 435	18 663
Argentina	139 375	176 588	184 130	183 885	185 010	163 048	170 306	154 794	172 877	170 512
Bahamas	24 422	24 776	27 845	22 467	30 443	29 892	24 815	26 046	31 255	29 642
Barbados	53 778	51 783	54 789	54 868	49 524	53 483	48 036	47 305	51 730	52 874
Belize	34 852	41 752	29 943	52 322	42 130	46 522	47 838	43 655	46 195	44 227
Bolivia	50 986	60 578	67 488	79 951	61 453	74 634	66 368	65 635	73 196	76 893
Brazil	259 499	277 646	237 921	283 886	331 036	342 977	344 929	334 534	356 531	344 714
Canada	829 070	812 773	849 548	808 482	830 300	847 228	816 385	824 347	814 122	785 595
Chile	87 187	80 852	85 669	84 060	92 285	84 369	88 271	91 380	84 510	90 903
Colombia	511 901	561 861	529 597	499 329	554 821	589 118	603 653	603 335	617 738	648 348
Costa Rica	72 785	62 098	71 097	85 515	95 761	85 370	87 220	81 181	89 232	75 838
Cuba	902 521	880 848	888 719	924 982	902 448	932 563	980 008	987 772	982 862	1 112 064
Dominica	21 365	20 785	24 831	31 400	31 822	37 638	42 380	36 243	31 410	26 695
Dominican Republic	631 879	648 519	679 871	716 486	708 455	764 930	747 885	779 249	791 593	879 884
Ecuador	274 268	296 796	376 392	326 931	345 204	374 086	402 294	407 371	418 907	454 921
El Salvador	787 234	856 223	872 613	931 881	988 014	1 042 218	1 108 289	1 078 319	1 157 217	1 207 128
Grenada	19 247	32 089	27 742	25 826	26 798	31 084	31 882	28 132	34 100	26 896
Guatemala	443 116	510 030	523 746	585 201	644 669	740 986	683 807	743 786	790 508	797 262
Guyana	221 923	242 666	253 577	241 416	249 276	244 776	244 191	255 748	247 801	255 103
Haiti	434 677	448 424	505 657	445 288	483 748	495 840	544 466	545 842	535 966	596 440
Honduras	258 627	290 514	295 746	308 363	387 002	399 371	422 674	457 261	459 393	518 438
Jamaica	536 296	580 407	600 815	590 126	579 241	643 067	587 623	631 651	644 958	650 761
Mexico	9 287 675	9 889 017	10 078 724	10 256 938	10 993 851	11 534 972	11 739 560	11 451 299	11 478 234	11 746 539
Nicaragua	214 732	221 883	228 086	194 768	223 931	236 445	233 808	237 659	256 496	246 687
Panama	98 007	118 899	88 227	90 849	107 601	96 264	103 314	94 658	104 426	99 853
Paraguay	9 279	20 769	12 136	16 436	16 707	15 845	17 212	14 042	15 565	17 119
Peru	295 998	326 323	332 458	330 810	371 980	375 495	414 120	389 790	395 185	430 665
Saint Kitts and Nevis	na	na	na	na	10 312	9 170	13 353	12 147	12 245	10 444
Saint Lucia	na	na	na	na	18 009	18 012	19 104	17 474	20 266	22 542
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	19 930	27 523	15 167	24 708	17 200	20 193	24 176	20 672	15 250	24 889
Trinidad and Tobago	201 630	236 909	213 140	226 681	203 049	238 372	225 239	220 906	218 281	223 666
Uruguay	24 205	39 036	55 476	44 570	51 737	48 185	47 934	47 685	43 828	52 726
Venezuela	114 842	122 595	140 117	150 983	151 350	157 977	155 413	171 725	159 655	181 574
All countries	16 881 271	17 982 500	18 362 750	18 639 614	19 802 576	20 787 799	21 108 380	20 921 782	21 167 967	21 920 505

Sources and definitions: See Introduction to Statistical Annex and Metadata

E.a.fb. SP. The population born in the Americas living in OECD countries - Spain

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Argentina	118 903	191 653	226 548	260 386	271 444	272 985	290 281	295 401	291 740	285 602
Bolivia	15 520	30 556	54 442	99 492	140 740	200 749	240 912	229 375	213 862	201 542
Brazil	39 474	47 951	55 014	73 062	93 396	113 448	142 149	153 685	146 941	137 886
Canada	4 420	4 872	4 805	5 298	5 420	5 247	5 624	5 835	5 999	6 145
Chile	30 768	38 968	44 167	52 620	57 864	60 179	66 874	68 376	67 404	65 765
Colombia	205 308	259 400	264 503	288 190	286 969	291 676	330 419	358 762	371 064	372 541
Costa Rica	1 501	1 845	1 946	2 254	2 373	2 475	2 883	3 147	3 248	3 315
Cuba	57 669	65 737	69 048	76 525	79 228	83 121	92 583	100 451	104 492	110 876
Dominica	732	723	766	797	797	765	802	865	889	845
Dominican Republic	49 918	59 077	65 777	78 028	87 111	96 672	114 707	129 669	136 803	140 670
Ecuador	259 779	387 565	470 090	487 239	456 641	434 673	458 437	479 117	484 623	478 894
El Salvador	3 041	3 701	4 043	4 650	5 102	5 725	7 120	7 912	8 325	8 830
Guatemala	2 523	3 088	3 343	3 895	4 321	4 831	5 861	6 578	6 888	7 229
Honduras	3 948	5 243	6 361	8 322	10 652	15 894	23 673	26 834	28 851	32 418
Mexico	22 476	28 756	32 304	38 132	40 574	39 125	42 413	45 480	47 101	48 034
Nicaragua	2 298	2 625	2 833	3 369	4 204	6 131	10 098	12 491	13 843	16 132
Panama	2 381	2 790	2 980	3 321	3 520	3 789	4 241	4 445	4 539	4 572
Paraguay	2 370	3 669	7 020	17 721	30 155	47 874	68 885	82 622	86 682	88 871
Peru	59 035	72 894	88 754	108 026	123 464	136 958	162 425	188 235	197 605	197 374
United States	25 328	29 025	28 646	32 413	32 626	31 628	34 057	35 644	37 046	38 059
Uruguay	27 161	40 524	55 307	70 310	76 635	79 842	87 345	89 540	87 390	85 120
Venezuela	71 597	83 516	100 258	116 173	124 851	130 630	144 593	152 395	155 056	159 023
All countries	1 006 150	1 364 178	1 588 955	1 830 223	1 938 087	2 064 417	2 336 382	2 476 859	2 500 391	2 489 743

Sources and definitions: See Introduction to Statistical Annex and Metadata

E.a.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of previous nationality

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2000-2010
Antigua and Barbuda	518	476	363	413	425	573	465	696	494	374	4 797
Argentina	4 234	4 713	5 012	5 692	5 985	10 965	12 060	11 642	11 313	11 782	83 398
Bahamas	400	419	357	411	368	607	435	859	581	491	4 928
Barbados	1 192	1 106	1 013	1 072	1 207	1 399	1 005	1 420	1 080	716	11 210
Belize	1 072	828	712	740	768	969	868	1 348	922	591	8 818
Bolivia	1 242	1 475	1 298	1 731	2 094	2 731	2 617	4 378	4 156	6 550	28 272
Brazil	7 324	7 490	7 189	7 924	8 524	13 269	12 329	17 970	20 463	16 403	118 885
Canada	9 652	9 846	9 034	10 353	11 180	12 738	11 902	15 115	12 862	11 533	114 215
Chile	3 764	3 607	3 455	3 658	4 184	4 951	5 271	6 067	4 494	4 739	44 190
Colombia	14 080	15 552	13 427	19 047	24 512	35 126	33 793	46 279	40 678	49 470	291 964
Costa Rica	1 330	1 189	1 022	1 190	1 420	1 662	1 544	2 632	1 767	1 361	15 117
Cuba	14 178	15 102	11 112	15 561	16 042	27 937	21 338	44 776	29 524	20 039	215 609
Dominica	637	733	667	607	887	908	708	1 154	914	789	8 004
Dominican Republic	18 325	19 622	16 532	19 461	24 186	25 860	25 210	39 602	24 532	20 752	234 082
Ecuador	7 913	8 523	8 324	13 501	18 922	30 132	31 331	39 103	35 139	51 094	243 982
El Salvador	14 804	11 919	9 645	10 922	13 481	14 820	18 416	36 762	19 855	11 160	161 784
Grenada	960	921	891	1 121	1 124	1 252	884	1 142	956	710	9 961
Guatemala	6 807	7 609	5 047	7 203	7 030	7 212	8 848	17 598	9 194	5 722	82 270
Guyana	9 326	9 174	7 304	7 790	8 265	10 476	7 915	10 044	8 239	6 568	85 101
Haiti	13 453	12 464	11 255	9 355	14 294	18 235	13 374	25 741	18 425	16 390	152 986
Honduras	3 484	3 822	3 318	3 939	4 527	5 475	5 170	9 276	5 482	3 741	48 234
Jamaica	18 769	18 279	17 036	20 022	21 272	26 441	18 961	26 558	20 186	16 961	204 485
Mexico	105 133	78 600	58 262	66 406	79 852	87 243	125 497	235 163	115 184	71 030	1 022 370
Nicaragua	3 845	4 137	3 290	3 845	5 481	9 724	8 589	18 288	7 770	4 376	69 345
Panama	1 688	1 730	1 344	1 624	1 841	2 123	1 828	3 062	1 855	1 401	18 496
Paraguay	253	317	292	322	387	520	551	696	766	1 114	5 218
Peru	10 993	12 718	11 198	13 498	14 051	17 136	17 834	25 671	20 922	20 708	164 729
Saint Kitts and Nevis	343	362	339	312	358	514	350	552	399	317	3 846
Saint Lucia	516	559	508	461	705	742	619	911	720	719	6 460
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	601	608	551	728	781	930	706	855	724	590	7 074
Suriname	2 290	2 334	1 593	1 545	2 342	1 899	1 484	1 658	1 828	1 347	18 320
Trinidad and Tobago	6 628	6 624	6 166	7 218	7 739	9 229	6 478	8 776	7 262	6 117	72 237
United States	7 704	8 288	10 287	12 153	13 666	14 099	14 090	11 992	11 431	11 305	115 015
Uruguay	968	1 037	884	1 085	1 261	1 639	2 144	2 498	2 473	3 210	17 199
Venezuela	3 586	3 765	3 919	4 548	4 824	6 771	7 371	9 833	8 177	9 800	62 594
All countries	298 012	275 948	232 643	275 458	323 985	406 307	421 985	680 117	450 767	389 970	3 755 192

Sources and definitions: See Introduction to Statistical Annex and Metadata

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	429	461	380	301	414	440	570	415	444	437	359
Canada	13	35	16	27	15	30	37	20	43	44	40
Japan							14	6	21	11	13
Other countries	8	6	24	22	17	9	14	15	14	11	12
Total	450	502	420	350	446	479	635	456	522	503	424

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	ARGENTINA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	6 668	15 976	35 405	21 391	25 609	24 659	24 191	21 462	17 146	9 240	7 567
United States	2 317	3 297	3 661	3 129	4 805	7 081	7 327	5 645	5 353	5 780	4 399
Chile				4 942	4 309	4 085	3 517	3 023	3 746	3 851	3 806
Mexico								500	921	1 378	1 443
Italy	717	0	3907	5694	4631	2746	1927	1806	1937	1434	1195
Germany	930	1 017	1 437	1 065	818	767	885	944	911	896	921
Canada	455	625	845	1 783	1 648	1 169	894	624	542	492	445
Japan							453	488	505	377	370
Israel	1 054	1 368	5 932	1 371	458	397	293	319	188	284	337
France	184	273	429	386	314	269	233	226	222	294	271
Switzerland											239
Australia	84	111	127	209	383	387	267	174	175	161	205
Netherlands	92	142	167	154	116	89	114	105	162	129	130
New Zealand							92	85	60	82	117
Belgium									114	109	109
Other countries	393	392	451	371	295	341	318	341	366	369	425
Total	12 894	23 201	52 361	40 495	43 386	41 990	40 511	35 742	32 348	24 876	21 979

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	THE BAHAMAS (COMMONWEALTH OF)										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	766	924	808	423	586	698	847	738	682	751	652
Canada	17	22	20	22	24	34	42	31	70	45	55
Italy	1		1		8	1	3	2	4	2	11
Other countries	5	120	10	22	20	19	24	21	22	14	28
Total	789	1 066	839	467	638	752	916	792	778	812	746

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	BARBADOS										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	777	895	813	516	630	846	959	689	585	603	465
Canada	128	157	132	79	89	124	100	140	144	133	125
Other countries	27	19	32	27	37	38	43	30	39	37	34
Total	932	1071	977	622	756	1008	1102	859	768	773	624

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	BELIZE										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	757	936	966	588	871	876	1 252	1 073	1 077	1 041	965
Mexico								4	43	74	113
Canada	26	23	33	15	26	36	29	30	53	41	40
Japan							15	7	18	21	27
Germany	0	0	11	3	11	3	2	3	2	5	11
Other countries	20	20	20	15	26	15	15	30	29	19	18
Total	803	979	1 030	621	934	930	1 313	1 147	1 222	1 201	1 174

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	BOLIVIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	3 335	4 863	10 625	18 226	44 049	44 985	77 755	51 797	14 120	9 484	7 390
Chile				1 329	1 406	1 612	1 939	6 038	4 525	3 635	5 836
Italy	191		150	1 071	1 363	738	625	842	1 143	1 625	3 362
United States	1 761	1 819	1 664	1 376	1 768	2 197	4 025	2 590	2 436	2 837	2 253
Sweden	82	61	94	92	94	78	215	186	205	282	320
Germany			339	322	334	334	330	302	284	319	288
Switzerland											247
Japan							290	448	376	167	181
Mexico								28	95	169	176
Canada	32	79	59	63	98	137	149	111	164	222	160
France	21	31	16	45	50	49	89	73	90	88	106
Belgium									62	85	85
Netherlands	34	37	43	51	47	29	59	50	54	56	48
Australia	15	26	15	18	23	9	15	15	24	18	23
Norway	15	13	14	18	11	18	14	17	18	19	20
Other countries	147	807	110	76	101	77	68	69	63	80	72
Total	5 633	7 736	13 129	22 687	49 344	50 263	85 573	62 566	23 659	19 086	20 567

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	BRAZIL										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	6 943	9 448	9 439	6 331	10 556	16 664	17 910	14 295	12 195	14 701	12 258
Spain	4 116	4 298	4 670	7 412	16 483	24 575	32 586	36 134	27 316	14 400	11 883
Italy	2 645		2 766	5 511	5 165	8 796	10 183	11 863	12 645	9 658	8 566
Germany	4 705	4 961	4 714	4 690	5 034	5 518	5 972	6 379	6 290	6 390	6 127
Japan	45 546	29 685	22 669	33 352	32 237	33 943	26 953	22 903	14 402	2 954	4 719
Portugal	1 673	26 587	14 722	6 680	14 377	9 486	6 140	4 979	3 459	2 923	3 442
Canada	842	857	759	865	933	976	1 209	1 759	2 127	2 480	2 600
Switzerland											2 473
France	1 005	1 205	1 237	1 207	1 440	1 435	1 536	1 774	1 720	1 635	2 364
Belgium	416	487	472	451	584	737	1 022	996	1 209	1 330	1 330
Chile				687	750	843	1 131	1 206	1 218	1 106	1 311
Australia	178	253	326	334	362	460	538	681	789	911	1 206
Netherlands	601	621	661	709	673	817	867	898	1 164	1 124	1 153
Mexico								192	304	439	460
Korea (Republic of)	208	211	297	278	362	469	381	397	352	347	427
Other countries	2 633	1 777	1 137	1 293	1 536	1 834	4 169	2 604	2 764	2 802	2 710
Total	71 511	80 390	63 869	69 800	90 492	106 553	110 597	107 060	87 954	63 200	63 029

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	CANADA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	16 057	21 752	19 352	11 350	15 569	21 878	18 207	15 495	15 109	16 140	13 328
Korea [Republic of]		4 227	5 274	5 284	5 602	5 770	5 945	6 393	6 644	6 739	6 505
United Kingdom	6 289	4 202	5 000	6 000			6 000		7 000		6 000
Germany	2 575	2 587	2 652	2 757	2 572	2 482	2 494	2 834	2 862	2 653	2 891
Japan							3 562	3 284	3 631	2 743	2 696
Australia	1 045	1 307	1 322	1 336	1 416	1 470	1 696	1 588	1 727	1 895	1 938
Switzerland	1271	1335	1000	800	800	900	905				1080
France	989	1 136	946	897	983	965	921	760	926	851	1 002
Netherlands	709	754	636	560	511	599	663	746	809	755	806
Mexico								217	397	586	748
Belgium	566	540	632	628	578	665	584	626	653	677	677
Spain	162	234	259	258	439	514	521	610	554	571	601
New Zealand	305	385	262	286	312	528	524	412	430	465	474
Sweden	235	190	236	208	197	180	227	234	268	344	336
Italy	200		232	235	259	268	264	271	306	275	301
Other countries	4 057	863	917	1 016	1 118	1 224	1 172	1 495	2 001	1 855	2 189
Total	34 460	39 512	38 720	31 615	30 356	37 443	43 685	34 965	43 317	36 549	41 572

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	CHILE										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	2 264	3 049	3 930	4 375	7 800	8 856	9 884	9 633	6 715	4 258	3 829
United States	1 700	1 921	1 839	1 310	1 810	2 404	2 774	2 274	2 017	2 250	1 950
Germany	729	731	789	794	799	723	738	788	868	810	931
Mexico								124	251	393	426
Sweden	382	425	394	404	403	343	442	402	372	390	379
Canada	374	377	437	343	375	392	452	546	359	388	360
Italy	250	0	229	373	361	300	265	260	339	266	332
France	213	221	222	211	206	195	226	183	244	238	258
Australia	153	158	188	211	188	195	195	176	181	236	240
Switzerland											230
New Zealand							79	129	109	151	209
Japan							163	143	185	172	167
Belgium									118	145	145
Norway	139	140	163	119	145	132	141	102	122	136	118
Netherlands	87	78	99	104	146	281	248	101	93	122	100
Other countries	240	225	254	269	234	327	203	235	248	302	325
Total	6 531	7 325	8 544	8 513	12 467	14 148	15 810	15 096	12 221	10 257	9 999

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	COLOMBIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	14 427	16 627	18 758	14 720	18 846	25 571	43 151	33 187	30 213	27 849	22 406
Spain	46 063	71 220	34 235	11 121	21 502	24 945	35 621	41 725	42 166	25 558	18 089
Chile				1 008	1 146	1 674	2 449	3 344	4 389	5 314	7 191
Canada	2 228	2 967	3 226	4 273	4 438	6 031	5 813	4 833	4 995	4 240	4 800
Mexico								302	1 051	1 898	2 312
Italy	1 990		1 934	3 535	2 709	1 881	1 682	1 704	2 160	2 068	2 132
Germany			1 743	1 476	1 458	1 390	1 394	1 335	1 707	1 902	1 954
France	411	645	635	550	558	607	903	756	725	707	823
Australia	178	223	288	375	399	405	383	382	467	530	785
Switzerland											499
Netherlands	348	404	471	438	381	324	308	283	364	445	458
Japan							352	368	329	355	370
Sweden	237	250	188	176	259	444	506	327	297	246	269
Belgium									257	237	237
New Zealand							34	65	84	99	138
Other countries	1 444	1 341	475	423	384	641	513	639	572	485	556
Total	67 326	93 677	61 953	38 095	52 080	63 913	93 109	89 250	89 776	71 933	63 019

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	COSTA RICA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	1 310	1 733	1 591	1 246	1 755	2 278	3 109	2 540	2 090	2 384	2 164
Spain	88	97	164	140	279	297	446	562	512	370	378
Germany			151	139	131	143	175	158	180	239	222
Canada	109	136	115	120	173	206	320	305	282	240	205
Mexico								65	101	138	162
Japan							76	83	77	89	98
Chile				35	42	47	48	62	69	64	97
Italy	45		34	71	57	56	50	61	78	56	68
Switzerland											66
Netherlands	37	48	44	38	33	43	33	38	39	45	52
Belgium									25	28	28
France	10	19	11	20	27	20	28	17	38	24	27
Sweden	15	14	7	14	11	26	26	19	26	16	20
Austria	15	3	10	12	11	13	9	19	14	24	16
Denmark	7	4	4	6	4	5	12	12	9	12	14
Other countries	26	38	101	33	52	36	51	50	40	52	62
Total	1 662	2 092	2 232	1 874	2 575	3 170	4 383	3 991	3 580	3 781	3 679

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	CUBA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	18 960	27 453	28 182	9 262	20 488	36 261	45 614	29 104	49 500	38 954	33 573
Spain	5 373	5 156	5 069	4 115	6 260	6 586	8 875	9 645	9 972	6 413	6 811
Italy	1 900		1 594	2 027	2 115	2 072	2 100	2 176	2 802	2 274	2 088
Mexico								319	970	1 735	1 847
Canada	854	971	866	876	857	979	1044	1338	1296	1421	945
Germany			1 153	1 188	1 069	982	927	819	701	676	641
Chile				384	353	345	375	375	435	362	438
France	286	285	309	358	353	289	329	245	228	203	236
Switzerland											193
Japan							190	166	175	169	172
Belgium									115	110	110
Sweden	125	90	102	107	108	111	153	136	145	131	106
Netherlands	124	105	135	124	105	94	90	52	57	74	79
Norway	91	63	62	59	76	56	60	50	65	57	53
Austria	58	57	84	89	95	81	60	73	67	62	45
Other countries	133	162	155	144	153	169	224	228	228	234	208
Total	27 904	34 342	37 711	18 733	32 032	48 025	60 041	44 726	66 756	52 875	47 545

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	DOMINICA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	95	93	148	204	132	198	471	428	454	484	366
Italy	60		37	73	48	64	55	77	119	121	140
France	275	208	160	238	230	180	155	80	94	140	98
Spain	118	105	47	69	127	126	87	163	174	84	70
Germany	0	0	23	35	69	54	21	59	57	71	69
Canada	71	74	66	58	46	49	73	74	54	54	45
Mexico									2	4	11
Japan							7	9	25	6	10
Other countries	11	362	3	16	11	11	18	7	23	9	11
Total	630	842	484	693	663	682	887	897	1 002	973	820

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	DOMINICAN REPUBLIC										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	17 465	21 195	22 515	26 159	30 506	27 504	38 069	28 024	31 879	49 414	53 870
Spain	5 537	5 375	5 458	6 582	10 299	12 208	14 652	18 068	17 762	10 840	8 337
Italy	1 708		1 443	2 101	1 748	1 920	1 480	1 853	3 082	3 319	2 742
Chile				62	70	125	158	257	19	554	1 038
Germany			933	806	746	654	694	613	497	530	568
Canada	237	266	204	245	272	288	245	288	414	380	490
Switzerland											419
France	167	271	218	248	296	337	336	378	300	301	394
Mexico								36	120	244	195
Netherlands	192	192	165	120	110	147	153	94	115	154	148
Austria	191	259	346	339	306	323	163	191	176	155	138
Belgium									130	131	131
Japan							94	121	105	127	88
Sweden	16	30	30	34	32	31	56	37	44	42	41
Norway	32	16	57	31	41	37	27	39	28	42	37
Other countries	60	86	73	47	50	68	66	55	63	83	87
Total	25 605	27 690	31 442	36 774	44 476	43 642	56 193	50 054	54 734	66 316	68 723

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

ECUADOR											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	7 651	9 665	10 561	7 066	8 626	11 608	17 490	12 248	11 663	12 128	11 492
Spain	91 141	82 639	88 967	72 839	17 202	15 234	21 387	30 162	37 752	18 212	10 967
Italy	3 058		2 531	17 870	18 135	8 278	6 047	4 414	6 874	6 324	6 168
Chile				1 968	1 824	1 913	2 187	3 082	3 060	2 679	2 476
Germany			854	894	653	665	531	580	578	600	666
Belgium									351	490	490
Canada	356	366	446	380	506	561	620	591	642	529	385
Switzerland											345
Mexico								59	130	226	232
Japan							89	78	106	156	220
France	85	114	132	171	208	195	288	192	206	182	207
Netherlands	121	107	140	138	126	129	121	119	128	111	132
Sweden	43	67	109	105	84	94	202	145	106	97	112
Austria	35	42	77	89	58	48	36	33	35	40	50
Australia	29	40	41	38	47	49	56	32	39	45	46
Other countries	964	630	98	79	104	164	93	179	161	170	181
Total	103 483	93 670	103 956	101 637	47 573	38 938	49 147	51 914	61 831	41 989	34 169

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

EL SALVADOR											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	22 543	31 089	31 060	28 231	29 807	21 359	31 783	21 127	19 659	19 909	18 806
Italy	375		174	542	825	418	328	258	433	691	1 535
Spain	209	294	302	292	559	712	1 127	1 617	1 200	914	993
Canada	552	446	469	441	437	428	421	923	1 107	825	765
Mexico								86	457	796	708
Chile				34	33	40	44	60	95	86	122
Japan							99	58	57	82	115
Germany			66	86	82	62	67	82	73	101	96
Sweden	37	30	37	49	37	37	98	39	50	50	63
Australia	27	35	39	19	20	27	28	19	53	54	61
Switzerland											40
France	10	16	14	14	8	12	20	14	15	17	24
Korea (Republic of)	4	6	7	4	2	10	12	11	18	13	19
Belgium									11	17	17
Netherlands	8	11	8	14	2	6	12	9	11	8	11
Other countries	9	21	16	10	14	17	9	27	42	16	32
Total	23 774	31 948	32 192	29 736	31 826	23 128	34 048	24 330	23 281	23 579	23 407

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

GRENADA											
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	655	645	634	481	609	840	1 068	751	784	748	664
Canada	370	345	248	219	288	288	357	357	287	318	210
Japan							5	2	4	4	17
Other countries	17	7	17	23	21	25	14	19	29	25	21
Total	1 042	997	899	723	918	1 153	1 444	1 129	1 104	1 095	912

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	GUATEMALA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	9 942	13 496	16 178	14 386	18 920	16 825	24 146	17 908	16 182	12 187	10 467
Mexico								87	1 005	2 080	1 799
Spain	178	204	257	234	409	616	939	1 205	1 191	842	867
Canada	341	255	248	178	217	192	215	259	255	273	270
Germany			143	118	97	127	95	113	125	118	110
Italy	56		34	62	80	50	50	48	72	62	104
Japan							66	91	68	92	104
Chile				34	33	49	49	45	77	76	97
Korea (Republic of)	38	17	26	9	14	28	21	22	31	56	37
Belgium									21	32	32
Switzerland											32
Netherlands	64	80	28	32	27	23	23	25	30	21	23
Norway	11	12	12	21	18	13	18	14	22	19	22
France	12	7	17	16	13	23	18	28	25	19	18
Austria	17	17	14	11	17	12	30	26	14	17	16
Other countries	41	41	36	28	18	17	34	40	58	63	55
Total	10 700	14 129	16 993	15 129	19 863	17 975	25 704	19 911	19 176	15 957	14 053

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	GUYANA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	5 719	8 279	9 938	6 809	6 351	9 318	9 552	5 726	6 823	6 670	6 749
Canada	1 274	1 665	1 432	1 394	1 321	1 176	1 263	1 248	1 089	1 152	920
France	141	155	168	210	158	127	125	113	116	88	194
Japan							9	10	11	6	15
Netherlands	38	35	43	35	18	15	24	10	18	9	10
Other countries	261	350	36	26	33	30	21	28	363	33	32
Total	7 433	10 484	11 617	8 474	7 881	10 666	10 994	7 135	8 420	7 958	7 920

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	HAITI										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	22 337	27 031	20 213	12 293	14 191	14 529	22 228	30 405	26 007	24 280	22 582
France	1 821	2 157	2 089	2 688	3 068	3 182	2 828	2 367	2 228	2 321	4 678
Canada	1 653	2 484	2 218	1 945	1 657	1 719	1 651	1 614	2 509	2 085	4 550
Chile				5	10	8	56	113	135	304	674
Germany	0	0	79	87	87	88	60	76	96	55	128
Switzerland											75
Mexico								15	28	46	73
Spain	9	17	13	11	35	38	43	66	72	82	71
Italy	23		27	23	24	16	24	15	27	17	59
Belgium									55	58	58
Netherlands	66	81	85	83	55	56	40	35	92	63	40
Japan							8	21	22	24	35
Luxembourg		1	1		2	3		1	1	2	19
Austria		5	6			4	3	2	2	7	18
Other countries	15	6	17	3	6	9	14	7	12	18	26
Total	25 924	31 782	24 748	17 138	19 135	19 652	26 955	34 737	31 286	29 362	33 086

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	HONDURAS										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	5 917	6 571	6 435	4 645	5 508	7 012	8 177	7 646	6 540	6 404	6 448
Spain	498	567	741	906	1 931	2 786	6 454	8 756	5 253	4 509	5 603
Mexico								40	765	1 406	1 544
Canada	204	179	147	113	132	160	160	160	177	166	375
Italy	52	0	34	92	99	58	61	73	112	140	274
Chile				28	41	33	32	61	81	130	128
Germany			98	79	73	70	72	89	94	108	116
Switzerland											30
Japan							55	65	72	69	27
Netherlands	12	19	14	24	17	20	15	14	10	23	23
France	5	23	13	9	17	18	13	14	18	18	22
Belgium									20	20	20
Sweden	8	8	4	15	31	9	17	17	6	20	14
Korea (Republic of)	7	7	11	8	2	4	8	10	11	11	13
Austria	14	16	9	6	3	4	5	9	9	10	12
Other countries	8	53	19	17	12	16	27	35	32	34	26
Total	6 725	7 443	7 525	5 942	7 866	10 190	15 096	16 989	13 200	13 068	14 675

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	JAMAICA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	15 949	15 322	14 835	13 347	14 430	18 346	24 976	19 375	18 477	21 783	19 825
Canada	2 463	2 775	2 457	1 983	2 130	1 880	1 686	2 113	2 312	2 427	2 255
Japan							277	180	208	171	145
Germany			131	112	96	93	93	89	73	71	102
Switzerland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	35
Belgium									17	23	23
France	19	26	17	20	21	23	29	20	29	35	22
Netherlands	43	23	34	14	16	11	12	18	11	26	22
Italy	13		3	18	14	19	12	12	13	9	18
Australia	11	18	11	7	8	22	22	16	18	22	15
Sweden	7	13	10	5	7	5	12	13	13	19	15
Austria	18	12	14	8	9	14	5	7	11	8	14
Other countries	480	716	37	29	24	32	32	42	70	73	47
Total	19 003	18 905	17 549	15 543	16 755	20 445	27 156	21 885	21 252	24 667	22 538

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	MEXICO										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	173 493	205 560	218 822	115 585	175 411	161 445	173 753	148 640	189 989	164 920	139 120
Spain	1 395	1 788	2 746	2 672	5 254	5 434	5 533	5 874	6 163	4 869	4 789
Canada	1 658	1 939	1 919	1 738	2 245	2 851	2 830	3 224	2 831	3 104	3 870
Germany	1 768	1 667	1 870	2 048	2 108	2 213	2 636	2 510	2 899	2 777	3 008
Chile				320	326	412	506	547	666	660	685
Switzerland											629
Japan							834	694	683	500	628
France	293	364	386	400	422	416	422	421	463	560	602
Italy	302		366	393	443	423	384	389	423	518	602
Netherlands	194	213	325	261	235	237	313	311	408	391	429
Australia	48	50	63	73	78	109	178	183	282	288	278
Belgium									247	258	258
Korea [Republic of]	188	150	245	130	171	221	199	195	185	231	258
Austria	110	87	112	74	130	134	136	165	183	220	196
Poland						61	79	85	120	156	163
Other countries	1 216	911	272	341	360	426	508	527	720	775	795
Total	180 665	212 729	227 126	124 035	187 183	174 382	188 311	163 765	206 262	180 227	156 310

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination.

	NICARAGUA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	20 947	19 634	10 659	4 094	4 009	3 305	4 145	3 716	3 614	4 137	3 565
Spain	131	159	174	219	481	997	2 297	4 279	3 196	2 695	3 377
Mexico								24	175	328	350
Canada	131	102	63	82	62	75	89	67	121	110	85
Germany	0	0	57	70	52	62	58	58	77	83	77
Japan							77	76	88	95	77
Italy	24		25	33	53	42	32	32	62	70	75
Chile				37	32	33	36	34	54	72	64
Switzerland											39
Sweden	12	21	19	26	14	23	29	30	33	37	38
Austria	8	5	15	10	9	14	13	14	12	13	20
Netherlands	10	14	25	21	3	22	17	8	24	20	18
France	7	8	6	8	10	7	15	15	15	12	13
Belgium									12	11	11
Norway	8	5	8	10	8	6	8	10	11	15	11
Other countries	8	10	15	10	9	15	22	24	32	24	23
Total	21 286	19 958	11 066	4 620	4 742	4 601	6 838	8 387	7 526	7 722	7 843

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	PANAMA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	1 829	1 867	1 680	1 164	1 417	1 815	2 418	1 916	1 678	1 806	1 536
Spain	108	115	204	196	293	417	591	561	497	430	371
Chile				58	50	47	86	64	288	302	213
Mexico								28	81	126	92
Canada	51	57	53	50	46	66	72	72	59	80	85
Germany			59	71	60	60	66	78	47	95	66
Japan							104	79	68	70	56
Italy	30		23	34	51	41	26	26	38	28	36
Switzerland											30
Belgium									8	15	15
France	5	8	12	11	13	11	16	10	6	10	14
Sweden	8	7	5	6	9	6	15	10	4	14	11
Korea (Republic of)	21	11	11	7	10	14	17	6	9	12	10
Other countries	20	23	24	29	34	36	36	28	30	43	34
Total	2 072	2 088	2 071	1 626	1 983	2 513	3 447	2 878	2 813	3 031	2 569

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	PARAGUAY										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	162	305	745	2 432	10 386	12 573	21 617	23 989	20 632	13 397	11 907
Chile				236	235	325	370	609	723	657	710
United States	338	401	356	207	328	516	719	545	481	530	467
Italy	49		57	117	152	154	135	171	208	260	320
Japan							367	361	286	147	242
Germany			177	203	189	177	174	214	184	193	195
Canada	39	53	85	108	83	78	105	124	123	101	120
Mexico								17	29	58	55
Belgium									32	38	38
Switzerland											37
Korea (Republic of)	43	24	50	30	36	46	31	30	33	37	35
Austria	10	11	22	16	15	13	15	23	24	26	26
France	11	11	16	17	24	19	30	25	22	33	25
Australia	4	13	11	4	4	7	14	4	7	10	12
Other countries	15	12	13	26	13	32	31	33	46	46	47
Total	671	830	1 532	3 396	11 465	13 940	23 608	26 145	22 830	15 533	14 236

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	PERU										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Chile				12 851	15 644	19 954	28 635	53 225	38 953	27 582	27 714
United States	9 579	11 062	11 918	9 409	11 794	15 676	21 718	17 699	15 184	16 957	14 247
Italy	4 987		3 036	9 157	9 951	5 402	4 879	4 451	7 182	10 421	12 166
Spain	5 966	7 121	7 955	13 454	17 735	19 946	21 691	27 372	31 118	16 304	10 045
Canada	605	852	859	1 021	1 455	1 658	1 479	1 475	1 078	1 872	1 270
Japan							2 014	2 418	1 647	1 121	1 193
Germany			1 209	1 296	1 249	1 177	1 055	928	944	853	862
Mexico								191	412	667	825
France	244	243	319	292	383	388	440	423	420	401	434
Australia	139	143	164	199	196	227	315	358	323	375	358
Switzerland											275
Sweden	234	197	186	207	225	221	317	253	265	275	251
Netherlands	134	172	175	204	195	220	241	224	290	243	244
Belgium									223	232	232
Israel	78	60	114	100	91	438	223	179	138	102	121
Other countries	525	403	506	384	425	441	454	600	555	523	499
Total	22 491	20 253	26 441	48 574	59 343	65 748	83 461	109 796	98 732	77 928	70 736

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	SAINT KITTS AND NAVIS										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	500	463	342	310	299	342	458	347	363	310	339
Canada	14	11	11	13	10	7	7	11	28	11	20
Other countries	12	33	22	31	17	8	14	8	8	19	23
Total	526	507	375	354	326	357	479	366	399	340	382

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	SAINT LUCIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	599	674	583	488	616	832	1 212	928	946	1 027	872
Canada	103	116	83	94	113	188	189	269	289	260	260
France	28	35	31	55	73	110	82	86	104	101	76
Japan							12	15	11	24	26
Other countries	12	7	28	18	12	20	23	25	29	26	16
Total	742	832	725	655	814	1 150	1 518	1 323	1 379	1 438	1 250

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	SAINT VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Canada	267	283	240	193	291	339	374	566	428	497	730
United States	497	559	480	322	400	625	756	567	568	591	576
Japan							7	8	10	7	13
Other countries	8	12	16	15	15	16	8	13	17	29	17
Total	772	854	736	530	706	980	1 145	1 154	1 023	1 124	1 336

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	SURINAME										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Netherlands	2 067	2 196	2 171	2 390	1 953	1 318	997	1 024	1 210	1 156	1 023
France	705	699	442	382	585	430	294	381	508	360	571
United States	256	245	247	180	166	300	314	197	218	227	216
Belgium									60	105	105
Canada	15	20	19	15	22	12	10	25	10	13	10
Other countries	16	1	12	28	28	22	25	35	41	22	27
Total	3 059	3 161	2 891	2 995	2 754	2 082	1 640	1 662	2 047	1 883	1 952

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO								
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
United States	6 635	6 618	5 738	4 138	5 384	6 568	8 854	6 829	5 937
Canada	896	917	937	693	724	844	804	990	1 019
Japan							59	46	75
Germany			48	60	32	29	38	78	27
Australia	10	21	13	9	18	19	11	20	16
Sweden	6	7	13	10	7	5	6	7	8
France	15	15	5	10	15	8	15	10	7
Netherlands	21	16	23	15	8	9	8	9	15
Denmark	4		2	2	1	6	3	7	2
Spain	1	6	5	3	8	9	5	10	16
Other countries	539	562	29	22	22	27	30	37	62
Total	8 127	8 162	6 813	4 962	6 219	7 524	9 833	8 043	7 184

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	UNITED STATES										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Korea [Republic of]	13 294	16 447	19 087	17 751	18 073	18 040	17 831	18 923	23 402	27 127	28 328
Japan	23 954	20 612	21 451	21 494	21 267	22 074	22 196	22 790	24 021	23 549	22 669
Germany	16 523	15 979	15 466	14 666	15 292	15 228	16 341	17 495	17 542	17 706	18 262
United Kingdom	13 963	13 059	16 000	16 000	14 000	15 000	16 000	15 000	17 000	17 000	16 000
Canada	5 828	5 911	5 294	6 013	7 507	9 262	10 943	10 450	11 216	9 723	9 240
Spain	1 349	1 588	1 998	2 094	3 670	3 980	4 347	4 607	4 752	4 586	4 588
Mexico								1 409	2 155	2 881	4 026
Switzerland	3 252	3 289	2 900	2 500	2 700	2 900	3 154				3 964
Netherlands	3 365	3 118	3 042	2 533	2 260	2 512	3 121	3 184	3 437	3 091	3 325
Australia	1 773	2 319	2 641	2 527	2 965	3 004	2 932	2 819	2 964	3 075	3 177
Chile				1 574	1 337	1 527	1 481	1 516	2 098	2 237	2 927
France	2 580	2 578	2 415	2 300	2 625	2 356	2 250	2 045	2 283	2 209	2 656
Belgium	2 794	2 891	2 701	2 483	2 603	2 408	2 553	2 455	2 631	2 650	2 650
Israel	1 237	1 250	1 536	1 688	1 891	2 045	2 159	2 094	2 022	2 473	2 530
Czech Republic	87	119	709	894	657	1 374	1 804	1 738	2 217	2 464	1 680
Other countries	9 479	10 468	10 650	10 600	10 734	11 867	11 651	12 647	13 156	11 883	12 761
Total	99 478	99 628	105 890	105 117	107 581	113 577	118 763	119 172	130 896	132 654	138 783

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	URUGUAY										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	1 279	2 783	6 171	8 331	11 311	7 662	8 581	7 902	5 444	2 416	2 227
United States	426	541	536	469	787	1 154	1 664	1 418	1 451	1 775	1 331
Chile				622	727	706	791	905	995	688	838
Mexico								40	135	231	232
Italy	106		132	337	401	316	225	275	241	187	140
Canada	79	73	103	108	149	294	202	175	161	108	110
Israel	102	162	516	394	80	111	73	116	79	87	90
Germany			114	93	77	76	81	82	85	79	67
Japan							48	62	73	60	61
Switzerland											52
New Zealand							43	52	58	32	39
France	19	16	29	35	35	28	30	40	29	29	31
Australia	17	42	31	50	59	59	55	37	42	32	29
Sweden	27	26	34	44	47	30	32	33	32	25	17
Other countries	49	42	72	45	45	51	55	61	88	73	58
Total	2 104	3 685	7 738	10 528	13 718	10 487	11 880	11 198	8 913	5 822	5 322

E.d.fl. Outflows of migrants to OECD countries, by country of destination

	VENEZUELA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	4 693	5 170	5 228	4 018	6 220	10 645	11 341	10 692	10 514	11 154	9 409
Spain	3 442	4 071	5 435	9 757	12 050	12 505	11 699	12 891	10 572	7 116	7 791
Mexico								263	743	1 310	1 664
Canada	475	572	554	710	1 259	1 235	1 221	1 373	1 259	1 385	1 005
Italy	472	0	499	1069	828	805	627	790	848	704	802
Chile				419	404	361	379	566	622	665	741
Germany			547	614	508	493	387	504	515	551	527
Australia	36	51	65	76	84	153	211	180	277	286	388
France	124	124	128	158	154	137	145	152	158	176	192
Japan							127	143	412	266	173
Switzerland											144
Netherlands	173	172	142	160	115	116	96	96	149	140	130
Israel	106	55	37	80	106	100	134	130	46	31	101
Belgium									102	80	80
Norway	30	29	36	20	21	30	49	95	141	84	67
Other countries	1 729	1 326	560	536	432	433	246	254	279	269	273
Total	11 280	11 570	13 231	17 617	22 181	27 013	26 662	28 129	26 637	24 217	23 487

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	938	477	450	325	357	371	520	416	661	456	341
Canada	27	12	14	18	31	31	36	26	20	16	22
United Kingdom	11	27	10	17	20	23	16	20	15	21	10
Other countries		2	2	3	5		1	3		1	1
Total	976	518	476	363	413	425	573	465	696	494	374

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	ARGENTINA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	661	791	997	1 009	1 746	2 293	3 536	4 810	5 188	4 629	6 395
United States	3 416	2 204	2 129	1 879	1 965	1 976	2 695	2 348	4 170	3 153	3 140
Italy	240	316	411	541	515		2 569	2 410		1 556	834
Canada	293	359	298	363	428	419	830	1 112	1 038	886	631
France	143	134	138	198	0	176	0	0	160	154	183
Germany	133	161	290	669	329	262	279	156	177	144	179
United Kingdom	62	45	104	119	119	145	118	123	122	197	146
Australia	146	129	137	145	173	200	323	413	181	151	144
Sweden	35	34	31	23	28	35	56	39	36	39	43
Netherlands	32	40	22	24	11	41	23	39	38	31	23
New Zealand							68	51	37	24	15
Ireland						16	32	26	5	10	14
Norway	5	5	6	4	11	5	6	9	4	12	14
Chile										20	11
Other countries	14	13	150	36	365	416	430	524	486	307	10
Total	5 180	4 231	4 713	5 010	5 690	5 984	10 965	12 060	11 642	11 313	11 782

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	THE BAHAMAS (COMMONWEALTH OF)										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	589	392	401	342	378	343	574	397	838	569	475
Canada	568	6	15	13	33	19	26	28	10	6	12
Other countries	2	2	3	2		6	7	10	11	6	3
Total	1 159	400	419	357	411	368	607	435	859	581	490

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	BARBADOS										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	1 884	906	871	663	650	778	1 006	718	1 203	878	535
Canada	155	120	84	173	233	232	237	170	120	91	107
United Kingdom	178	157	141	157	178	177	144	105	87	96	64
Other countries	7	9	10	14	11	20	12	12	10	15	10
Total	2224	1192	1106	1007	1072	1207	1399	1005	1420	1080	716

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	BELIZE										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	1 797	1 014	771	665	664	704	918	799	1 291	854	556
Canada	23	24	17	11	17	21	23	30	31	16	15
United Kingdom	26	24	15	32	29	25	16	18	15	36	15
Other countries	10	9	25	4	30	18	11	21	11	16	5
Total	1 856	1 071	828	712	740	768	968	868	1 348	922	591

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	BOLIVIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	66	89	104	129	218	289	648	709	1 103	1 813	4 778
United States	1 369	905	1 098	932	1 125	1 361	1 630	1 311	2 807	1 700	1 185
Italy								96			88
Canada	55	49	29	32	54	65	78	98	89	104	86
Chile										114	78
United Kingdom	23	29	23	36	51	48	70	76	64	103	78
Germany	69	50	37	45	71	65	48	50	46	81	76
Sweden	56	57	55	51	47	73	81	80	65	80	70
France	36	22	25	32		29			37	37	57
Netherlands	6	16	11	6	9	5	14	17	13	14	12
Other countries	24	23	90	35	153	156	156	178	153	109	38
Total	1 704	1 240	1 472	1 298	1 728	2 091	2 725	2 615	4 377	4 155	6 546

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	BRAZIL										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	4 510	3 925	3 885	3 091	4 074	4 583	7 028	5 745	8 808	7 960	8 867
Spain	273	411	477	500	683	695	782	779	1 049	943	1 738
Italy	512	619	604	726	579		1 751	1 928		1 226	1 313
Germany	199	258	249	295	455	530	830	845	967	969	1 015
United Kingdom	331	338	329	441	479	564	541	612	604	905	993
Australia	100	109	115	166	204	233	257	351	304	434	596
Canada	542	457	448	485	562	630	814	780	708	658	591
France	540	457	533	666		503			605	585	580
Netherlands	231	290	249	137	131	159	189	173	201	307	272
Sweden	78	111	125	128	114	119	192	146	183	192	212
Norway	31	16	48	22	56	36	55	67	51	68	70
Denmark										4	46
Ireland						31	37	36	14	21	31
New Zealand							66	54	62	33	27
Austria	31	42	39	50	48	43	26	21	25	32	20
Other countries	181	291	389	480	538	397	697	787	4 388	6 125	31
Total	7 559	7 324	7 490	7 187	7 923	8 523	13 265	12 324	17 969	20 462	16 402

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	CANADA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	11 365	7 551	7 591	6 408	7 682	7 815	9 607	8 473	12 387	9 753	8 539
Australia	696	671	742	777	925	977	1 030	1 281	858	981	1 046
United Kingdom	759	647	685	974	1 185	1 294	1 323	1 140	817	1 243	1 026
France	458	427	402	428		347			338	281	398
Sweden	3	85	121	73	85	80	91	81	71	81	115
New Zealand							90	121	113	133	90
Netherlands	51	65	66	54	56	85	60	62	43	49	69
Italy								109			46
Poland	44	23	22	46	36	73	7	17	24	35	40
Germany	31	41	36	54	46	31	39	30	45	21	36
Ireland						138	176	246	72	29	28
Canada	47	41	52	34	59	65	88	102	79	42	21
Luxembourg										9	18
Norway	15	8	9	11	12	7	16	6	7	14	18
Finland	1	1	3	17	47	47	31	29	45	7	13
Other countries	61	90	116	158	217	219	174	204	210	174	24
Total	13 531	9 650	9 845	9 034	10 350	11 178	12 732	11 901	15 109	12 852	11 527

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	CHILE										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	594	359	353	350	484	620	844	838	1 141	1 090	1 688
United States	1 881	1 200	1 148	1 073	1 142	1 183	1 549	1 346	2 851	1 585	1 249
Sweden	687	727	689	548	464	543	754	687	593	488	526
Canada	5	364	315	355	537	557	651	522	437	461	394
Australia	332	349	321	290	408	484	626	1 030	367	239	248
Italy								232			149
France	280	225	199	232	0	201	0	0	139	129	148
Germany	152	172	140	184	130	157	150	145	122	117	122
United Kingdom	92	126	112	144	129	109	98	88	88	95	74
Norway	156	172	234	138	141	121	84	108	65	63	56
Netherlands	52	54	43	33	24	33	39	39	30	41	34
New Zealand							16	19	28	16	16
Other countries	23	16	51	107	198	174	137	217	205	169	35
Total	4 254	3 764	3 605	3 454	3 657	4 182	4 948	5 271	6 066	4 493	4 739

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	COLOMBIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	302	848	1 267	1 801	4 194	7 334	12 720	13 852	15 409	16 527	23 995
United States	14 018	10 872	10 634	7 962	9 819	11 396	15 698	12 089	22 926	16 593	18 417
Canada	451	554	724	953	1 510	2 084	3 136	3 782	4 671	4 286	3 811
United Kingdom	381	375	946	1 002	1 279	1 496	1 580	1 844	1 115	1 043	889
France	358	269	288	353		317			347	478	576
Italy	240	322	300	453	360						518
Germany	204	241	271	272	315	261	291	312	287	313	380
Australia	92	77	146	173	221	285	320	362	265	322	336
Sweden	198	172	180	127	118	137	207	149	139	171	228
Netherlands	382	259	274	112	94	143	151	152	151	203	170
Norway	72	18	16	11	17	39	54	48	68	44	49
Chile										61	44
Denmark										19	13
Ireland						8	21	3	12	12	12
Other countries	55	72	498	207	1 118	1 010	943	1 197	889	606	32
Total	16 753	14 079	15 544	13 426	19 045	24 510	35 121	33 790	46 279	40 678	49 470

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	COSTA RICA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	1 887	1 138	1 000	868	970	1 161	1 402	1 227	2 376	1 517	1 114
Canada	142	97	61	65	87	110	126	121	110	93	118
Spain		12	20	22	36	23	27	40	46	35	45
Italy								36			27
Germany	19	34	18	29	31	25	23	20	14	22	22
United Kingdom	12	12	7	14	9	10	16	12	10	16	10
Sweden	5	9	12	7	10	3	15	5	5	10	10
Other countries	24	27	71	16	46	87	53	83	70	74	15
Total	2 089	1 329	1 189	1 021	1 189	1 419	1 662	1 544	2 631	1 767	1 361

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	CUBA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	15 661	11 393	10 889	7 727	11 236	11 227	21 481	15 394	39 871	24 891	14 050
Spain	893	1 191	2 088	1 602	1 889	2 506	2 703	2 466	2 870	2 696	3 546
Italy	377	512	542	646	539		1 535	1 355			840
Canada	380	371	307	309	557	657	885	697	658	664	589
Germany	187	235	255	310	308	306	364	320	271	290	313
France	130	135	148	164		173			143	138	174
Australia		8	3	17	12	13	11	24	16	34	110
Chile										107	98
United Kingdom	18	32	60	67	90	113	88	88	78	90	97
Sweden	168	103	86	96	67	144	202	90	93	67	82
Netherlands	34	76	53	40	36	34	30	48	45	49	51
Norway	7	7	31	23	30	36	30	50	37	45	32
Ireland						3	11	5	10	7	14
Other countries	69	50	609	106	791	796	560	778	654	428	24
Total	17 924	14 113	15 071	11 107	15 555	16 008	27 900	21 315	44 746	29 506	20 020

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	DOMINICA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	713	370	456	361	441	543	741	539	975	672	543
Spain										55	61
France	176	160	178	134		196			78	67	53
United Kingdom	64	53	47	73	63	73	50	34	47	53	52
Canada	58	44	42	84	82	59	107	67	44	46	45
Italy								57			23
Other countries	16	10	10	15	21	16	10	11	10	21	12
Total	1 027	637	733	667	607	887	908	708	1 154	914	789

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	DOMINICAN REPUBLIC										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	25 176	15 010	15 591	12 627	15 464	20 831	22 165	20 645	35 251	20 778	15 451
Spain	1 755	2 126	2 876	2 648	2 834	2 322	2 805	2 800	3 496	2 766	3 801
Italy	377	354	393	409	317			939			717
Germany	122	149	180	207	231	255	284	246	156	195	223
Canada	308	239	174	188	195	216	255	240	208	249	173
Netherlands	200	206	143	91	59	82	78	87	91	112	126
France	93	103	95	114		118			129	117	114
United Kingdom	17	31	54	51	63	56	34	20	36	59	56
Austria	66	69	59	68	103	95	58	10	13	36	30
Norway	12	17	28	11	31	21	23	20	21	21	26
Sweden	9	10	8	12	12	24	21	20	28	42	19
Other countries	6	11	21	106	152	166	137	183	173	157	16
Total	28 141	18 325	19 622	16 532	19 461	24 186	25 860	25 210	39 602	24 532	20 752

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	ECUADOR										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	292	510	1 173	1 951	6 370	10 031	19 477	21 371	25 536	25 769	43 091
United States	9 454	6 547	6 392	5 061	5 616	7 091	8 321	7 229	11 908	7 609	5 931
Italy	51	83	88	132	144			757			616
United Kingdom	43	53	80	199	329	656	954	743	582	546	493
Canada	489	417	388	429	538	444	774	492	401	376	377
Germany	63	93	127	214	166	183	180	190	141	194	182
France	58	56	74	93		74			68	98	102
Chile	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	72	81
Sweden	24	11	27	23	28	40	93	74	72	77	71
Netherlands	74	81	72	52	39	54	40	58	57	78	64
Australia	47	53	41	43	49	51	64	56	31	26	38
Norway	3	3	7	7	9	10	9	9	16	13	11
Other countries	13	5	54	118	212	282	217	349	290	279	28
Total	10 611	7 912	8 523	8 322	13 500	18 916	30 129	31 328	39 102	35 137	51 085

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	EL SALVADOR										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	24 073	13 663	10 716	8 738	9 602	12 174	13 430	17 157	35 796	18 927	10 343
Canada	1 051	733	598	599	766	803	928	680	561	511	470
Spain		76	75	74	98	80	111	93	128	112	151
Italy								93			88
Sweden	155	163	176	90	99	71	107	84	64	55	32
Australia	120	109	81	84	71	53	37	98	18	22	31
France	10	8	25	12		14			10	14	15
United Kingdom	13	23	14	16	13	10	12	7	15	15	10
Other countries	53	29	234	32	273	275	195	204	170	199	20
Total	25 475	14 804	11 919	9 645	10 922	13 480	14 820	18 416	36 762	19 855	11 160

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	GRENADA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	1 164	609	607	524	530	649	781	511	850	683	446
Canada	207	238	203	258	475	367	396	297	228	201	193
United Kingdom	83	107	106	107	109	105	67	71	60	68	68
Other countries	5	6	5	2	7	3	8	4	3	4	3
Total	1 459	960	921	891	1 121	1 124	1 252	883	1 141	956	710

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	GUATEMALA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	11 444	6 257	5 442	4 551	5 080	6 250	6 551	8 181	17 087	8 619	5 375
Canada	681	438	395	389	424	435	467	348	284	262	242
Germany	6	12	26	22	16	33	23	28	15	27	29
Italy								36			24
France	16	17	15	17		7			16	15	14
Netherlands	25	40	37	23	13	16	9	7	11	13	14
Other countries	30	43	1 694	45	1 670	289	162	248	185	258	24
Total	12 202	6 807	7 609	5 047	7 203	7 030	7 212	8 848	17 598	9 194	5 722

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	GUYANA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	10 794	7 038	7 220	4 929	4 877	5 543	7 434	5 631	8 290	6 840	4 932
Canada	2 758	1 896	1 505	1 944	2 585	2 237	2 762	2 000	1 383	938	1 114
United Kingdom	297	264	274	267	304	298	238	242	209	324	437
France	67	78	116	119		136			112	98	54
Other countries	42	50	59	45	24	51	42	42	50	39	31
Total	13 958	9 326	9 174	7 304	7 790	8 265	10 476	7 915	10 044	8 239	6 568

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	HAITI										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	14 428	10 408	9 280	7 263	8 215	9 740	15 979	11 552	21 229	13 290	12 291
France	1 920	1 571	2 082	2 734		2 744			2 922	2 981	2 771
Canada	2 017	1 386	1 031	1 171	1 026	1 667	2 132	1 726	1 511	2 057	1 248
Netherlands	51	55	29	41	63	79	69	28	33	46	53
Germany	10	16	14	23	11	11	11	18	9	14	14
Other countries	10	14	28	23	40	53	44	50	37	34	13
Total	18 436	13 450	12 464	11 255	9 355	14 294	18 235	13 374	25 741	18 422	16 390

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	HONDURAS										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	5 168	3 248	3 496	3 004	3 455	3 953	4 949	4 669	8 794	4 858	3 056
Spain		60	68	80	131	135	148	151	185	241	473
Canada	194	131	135	160	177	233	220	138	137	163	112
Italy								28			33
United Kingdom	11	14	3	13	12	11	10	7	10	13	21
Germany	12	11	14	17	23	7	42	19	19	25	16
France	10	3	10	13		8			5	6	11
Other countries	19	17	96	31	141	180	106	157	126	176	19
Total	5 414	3 484	3 822	3 318	3 939	4 527	5 475	5 169	9 276	5 482	3 741

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	JAMAICA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	22 567	13 978	13 973	11 232	12 271	13 674	18 953	12 314	21 324	15 098	12 070
United Kingdom	1 882	2 062	2 026	2 799	3 161	3 520	2 526	3 165	2 715	3 148	2 958
Canada	2 941	2 665	2 206	2 932	4 515	3 964	4 856	3 382	2 434	1 859	1 855
Germany	13	25	21	24	27	40	40	38	34	27	21
Ireland	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	5	2	1	12
Other countries	29	39	52	49	48	69	59	57	49	53	45
Total	27 432	18 769	18 278	17 036	20 022	21 272	26 441	18 961	26 558	20 186	16 961

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	MEXICO										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	189 705	103 234	76 531	56 093	63 840	77 089	83 979	122 258	231 815	111 630	67 062
Canada	1 308	1 084	1 054	1 125	1 517	1 467	2 004	1 654	1 717	1 846	1 798
Spain		263	352	344	451	437	567	593	763	584	932
Germany	163	159	179	217	233	222	221	205	212	272	313
France	213	144	180	180	0	170	0	0	169	163	242
United Kingdom	116	100	103	144	160	176	144	136	116	246	229
Italy								301			146
Australia	33	33	45	28	47	55	66	82	104	131	105
Sweden	16	36	55	35	43	43	69	73	78	72	74
Netherlands	57	49	60	31	27	82	72	76	65	87	57
Norway	22	3	13	24	15	18	16	29	17	31	21
Finland	2	2	3	1	8	6	4	2	6	6	17
Other countries	22	26	25	37	63	83	100	84	101	115	34
Total	191 657	105 133	78 600	58 259	66 404	79 848	87 242	125 493	235 163	115 183	71 030

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	NICARAGUA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	5 413	3 549	3 788	3 044	3 444	5 080	9 283	8 164	17 954	7 445	4 047
Spain		27	33	39	40	63	63	57	66	71	129
Canada	253	173	140	130	184	162	234	161	112	99	96
Sweden	7	26	24	15	18	17	27	28	23	17	24
Germany	19	20	29	25	33	34	28	28	18	27	20
Italy								29			19
France	14	18	4	7		3			15	1	11
Other countries	29	24	118	30	125	118	86	120	99	108	28
Total	5 735	3 837	4 136	3 290	3 844	5 477	9 721	8 587	18 287	7 768	4 374

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	PANAMA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	2 906	1 577	1 591	1 248	1 462	1 643	1 930	1 617	2 870	1 694	1 215
Spain		15	23	24	51	29	50	39	53	43	65
Canada	59	51	38	40	39	80	69	49	45	30	52
Italy								35			22
United Kingdom	7	9	10	5	8	21	12	12	27	25	12
Other countries	18	36	68	27	64	68	62	73	67	62	34
Total	2 990	1 688	1 730	1 344	1 624	1 841	2 123	1 825	3 062	1 854	1 400

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	PARAGUAY										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain		42	46	23	42	60	87	78	179	298	766
United States	214	165	198	175	178	202	285	234	386	310	212
Canada	30	16	18	37	45	68	97	89	64	69	54
Italy								78			31
France	11	7	12	19		10			13	12	17
Germany	13	9	22	12	11	17	10	31	16	26	13
Other countries	11	14	21	26	46	30	41	41	38	51	21
Total	279	253	317	292	322	387	520	551	696	766	1 114

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	PERU										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	8 927	6 659	7 375	6 130	6 980	7 904	10 063	7 965	15 016	10 349	8 551
Spain	1 488	2 322	3 117	2 933	3 958	3 645	4 713	6 490	8 206	6 368	8 291
Italy	228	263	305	383	253			883		1 147	1 377
Canada	748	576	465	479	566	710	927	884	858	1 345	1 008
France	289	251	229	255		275			206	209	275
Germany	205	278	297	299	316	356	344	283	268	281	265
Australia	120	139	102	136	134	184	176	261	156	207	232
United Kingdom	117	107	186	176	181	230	131	221	171	213	212
Sweden	332	288	270	205	205	226	283	253	247	185	193
Chile										170	128
Netherlands	64	52	71	40	32	100	76	77	94	96	72
Norway	49	18	19	23	34	24	25	25	36	28	30
Austria	29	25	40	36	39	41	23	13	27	11	18
Finland	8		8	4	14	7	2	10	11	7	13
Poland								3	5	6	11
Other countries	4	1	231	98	439	341	365	460	370	300	36
Total	12 608	10 979	12 715	11 197	13 151	14 043	17 128	17 825	25 666	20 916	20 701

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	702	331	351	321	282	331	483	334	529	389	305
Canada	18	12	11	15	29	26	30	15	23	9	10
Other countries				3	1	1	1	1		1	2
Total	720	343	362	339	312	358	514	350	552	399	317

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	SAINT LUCIA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	600	392	417	366	359	515	623	506	779	583	554
Canada	59	53	78	74	97	103	111	104	106	109	129
France	110	62	60	62		80			19	24	27
Other countries	1	9	4	6	5	7	8	9	7	4	9
Total	770	516	559	508	461	705	742	619	911	720	719

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	SAINT VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	824	439	461	374	388	491	624	450	623	513	375
Canada	195	155	139	177	336	287	303	254	229	209	213
Other countries	5	7	8		4	3	3	2	3	1	2
Total	1 024	601	608	551	728	781	930	706	855	723	590

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	SURINAME										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Netherlands	2 008	2 025	1 957	1 242	1 421	2 031	1 636	1 285	1 006	1 142	967
France	36	126	241	206		149			422	455	201
United States	161	111	119	120	97	125	222	159	202	198	161
Canada	42	25	13	15	15	28	26	28	16	17	16
Other countries	1	3	4	10	12	9	15	12	12	16	2
Total	2 248	2 290	2 334	1 593	1 545	2 342	1 899	1 484	1 658	1 828	1 347

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	7 239	4 474	4 814	3 774	3 958	4 832	6 612	4 514	7 305	5 726	4 740
Canada	1 968	1 576	1 255	1 802	2 662	2 086	2 047	1 397	1 031	802	797
United Kingdom	499	521	503	550	556	730	491	480	378	664	522
Australia	17	18	18	11	12	18	18	27	13	16	15
Germany	3	3	6	5	10	9	5	16	7	12	11
Other countries	21	36	28	24	20	64	56	44	42	42	32
Total	9 747	6 628	6 624	6 166	7 218	7 739	9 229	6 478	8 776	7 262	6 117

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	UNITED STATES										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Canada	3 784	2 943	2 812	3 859	5 288	5 058	5 117	4 267	4 133	3 734	3 712
United Kingdom	1 613	1 761	1 876	2 656	3 178	3 319	3 021	2 792	2 205	3 116	2 926
Australia	984	1 160	1 298	1 307	1 578	1 675	1 951	2 347	1 575	1 524	1 680
Germany	166	198	164	232	267	357	429	434	595	578	771
France	590	517	514	622		505			499	466	517
Sweden	33	285	578	397	293	358	430	344	286	311	423
New Zealand	363	281	335	348	335	268	346	424	413	352	327
Netherlands	160	168	225	181	181	267	217	195	199	230	235
Italy								396			192
Ireland						890	1 518	1 841	875	156	112
Spain		111	125	99	113	88	111	117	133	73	78
Poland	26	11	9	32	41	59	8	23	27	47	50
United States	44	38	42	37	36	29	57	41	67	51	45
Luxembourg	1				2	2		2	3	47	44
Finland	12	9	1	32	90	81	36	42	82	22	38
Other countries	162	200	292	465	723	681	819	781	852	683	82
Total	7 938	7 682	8 271	10 267	12 125	13 637	14 060	14 046	11 944	11 390	11 232

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	URUGUAY										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Spain	177	239	219	235	327	408	624	839	1 201	1 451	2 219
United States	688	471	485	352	412	475	579	496	924	634	585
Canada	147	93	113	103	114	113	176	140	150	183	154
Italy								377			86
France	34	23	46	38		24			19	27	37
Australia	64	59	43	63	76	71	80	119	52	41	35
Sweden	31	23	26	23	25	17	41	25	28	29	30
Germany	22	31	27	37	52	64	42	35	22	22	21
United Kingdom	10	11	12	15	15	11	23	12	10	17	19
Other countries	17	18	65	17	64	78	74	101	92	69	22
Total	1 190	968	1 036	883	1 085	1 261	1 639	2 144	2 498	2 473	3 208

E.d.an. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries, by country of acquired nationality

	VENEZUELA										
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
United States	2 418	2 103	2 156	1 952	2 385	2 659	4 476	3 575	6 557	4 735	5 243
Spain	197	326	439	529	703	752	908	1 324	1 581	1 744	2 730
Canada	425	433	299	330	388	438	563	610	739	798	793
Italy	121	121	215	252	255			1 011			452
United Kingdom	49	60	64	89	93	118	106	153	120	221	206
France	51	104	86	135		71			72	94	100
Australia	47	43	26	55	63	66	74	108	107	148	90
Germany	55	136	117	148	145	83	101	113	76	84	71
Netherlands	54	75	71	51	36	58	50	67	41	77	55
Sweden	12	15	18	23	27	20	33	20	34	32	24
Chile										14	14
Other countries	198	170	273	353	453	559	458	389	506	230	22
Total	3 627	3 586	3 764	3 917	4 548	4 824	6 769	7 370	9 833	8 177	9 800



Organization of American States

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This document is the second annual report of the Continuous Reporting System on International Migration in the Americas (SICREMI, for its acronym in Spanish). The report collects data from diverse sources (censuses, surveys, administrative records, etc.) in order to process and disseminate information regarding the magnitude, trends, and characteristics of international migration in the countries that participated in this second phase: Argentina, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Paraguay and Uruguay.

The methodology of this report is based on the Permanent Observation System on Migration (or SOPEMI) of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, adjusting to the needs of the region in accordance with a participatory process involving the countries of the Americas through a network of national correspondents and the participation of national and international organizations working in the field of migration.

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