

Suriname Migration Profile

A study on emigration from, and immigration into Suriname



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International Organization for Migration (IOM)



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Publisher: International Organization for Migration
Regional Coordination Office
87 Carmichael Street
South Cummingsburg
Georgetown, Guyana
Phone: (592) 2253745
Fax: (592) 2273675
E-mail: iomguyana@iom.int

Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the
Republic of Suriname
Henck Arronstraat #8
Paramaribo, Suriname
Phone: (597) 471756/471209
Fax: (597) 410411
E-mail: sec.minister@foreignaffairs.gov.sr

Prepared for IOM by: Social Solutions
Siriusstraat 14, Elizabethshof
Paramaribo, Suriname
Tel: (597) 457885
www.social-solutions.net

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Authors:

Marieke Heemskerk and Celine Duijves

E-mail: mheemskerk@yahoo.com

E-mail: celineduijves@hotmail.com



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- Mr G. van Dijk, General Manager, Suriname Business Development Center
- Mr W. Bilkerdijk, President, Suriname Business Forum/President, Manufacturers Association Suriname
- Ms Biharie, Policy Lawyer, Suriname Business Forum
- Mr H. Naarendorp, President, Chamber of Commerce and Industry (*Kamer van Koophandel en Fabrieken, KKF*)
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Acronym	Dutch	English
ABS	Algemeen Bureau voor de Statistiek	General Bureau of Statistics
ACT	Amazon Conservation Team	Amazon Conservation Team
AdeK	Anton de Kom (Universiteit)	Anton de Kom University
AMZ	Algemeen Maatschappelijke Zorg	General Societal Care
Anw	Algemene nabestaanden wet (Nederland)	Survivor Benefit
ATM	Arbeid, Technologische Ontwikkeling en Milieu, Ministerie van	Labour, Technological Development and Environment, Ministry of
AVRR	Programma voor Geassisteerde Vrijwillige Terugkeer en Re-integratie	Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration programme
BuZa	Buitenlandse Zaken, Ministerie van	Foreign Affairs, Ministry of
BVB	Bureau voor Burgerzaken	Bureau for Citizens Affairs
CARICOM	Caribische Gemeenschap	Caribbean Community and Common Market
CBB	Centraal Bureau voor Burgerzaken	Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs
CBS	Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (Nederland)	Central Bureau of Statistics (Netherlands)
CELAC	Gemeenschap van Latijns-Amerikaanse en Caribische Staten	Community of Latin American and Caribbean States (Spain)
CGM	Centrum voor de Geschiedenis van Migranten	Centre for the History of Migrants
CSME	Caribische gemeenschappelijke markt en economie	Caribbean Community Single Market and Economy
DNA	De Nationale Assemblée	The National Assembly
EU	Europese Unie	European Union
FIIAPP	Internationale Stichting “ Administratie en Overheidsbeleid” voor Ibero-Amerika	International and Ibero-American Foundation for Administration and Public Policies (Spain)
GBA	Gemeentelijke Basis Administratie (Nederland)	Community Civil Registry (Netherlands)
GPI	Gender Gelijkheids Index	Gender Parity Index
IMU	Integratie en Migratie Unit	Integration and Migration Unit
IND	Immigratie en Naturalisatie Dienst	Immigration and Naturalization Service
INSEE	Nationaal instituut voor de statistiek en economische studies (L’Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques)	National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies
IOM	Internationale Organisatie voor Migratie	International Organization for Migration
KKF	Kamer van Koophandel en Fabrieken	Chamber of Commerce and Industry
LAC	Latijns Amerika en het Caribische gebied	Latin America and the Caribbean
LVV	Landbouw, Veeteelt, Visserij, Ministerie van	Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries, Ministry of

MINOV	Ministerie van Onderwijs en Volksontwikkeling	Ministry of Education and Community Development
MKV	Machtiging tot Kort Verblijf	Short Stay Authorization
MP	Militaire Politie	Military Police
NER	Netto Instroom Ratio	Net Enrolment Rate
OGS	Ordering Goudsector, Commissie	Regulation of the Gold Sector, Commission on
PIO	Persoon van Indiaanse Origine	Person of Indian Origin
PLOS	Planning en ontwikkelingssamenwerking, Ministerie van	Planning and Development Cooperation, Ministry of
PSA	Personen van Surinaamse Afkomst	Persons of Surinamese Descent
RKZ	Rooms Katholiek Ziekenhuis	Roman Catholic Hospital
S.B.	Staatsblad	State Notification
SBC	Suriname Business Development Center	Suriname Business Development Center
SBF	Suriname Business Forum	Suriname Business Forum
SoZaVo	Sociale Zaken en Volkshuisvesting, Ministerie van	Social Affairs and Housing, Ministry of
SPSS	Statistisch Computerprogramma	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRD	Surinaamse dollar	Suriname dollar
SVB	Sociale Verzekerings Bank	Social Insurance Bank
UN	Verenigde Naties	United Nations
UNASUR	Unie van Zuid-Amerikaanse Naties	Union of South American Nations (Spain)
UNDP	Ontwikkelingsprogramma van de Verenigde Naties	United Nations Development Programme
VOJ	Voortgezet Onderwijs Junioren	Continued Education Junior level
WAJONG	Wet werk en arbeidsondersteuning jonggehandicapten (Nederland)	Work and Employment Support for Disabled Youngsters
WRR	Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid (Nederland)	Scientific Council for Government Policy (Netherlands)

COUNTRY MAP AND KEY STATISTICS

Figure 1. Map of Suriname with main roads, rivers and population centres

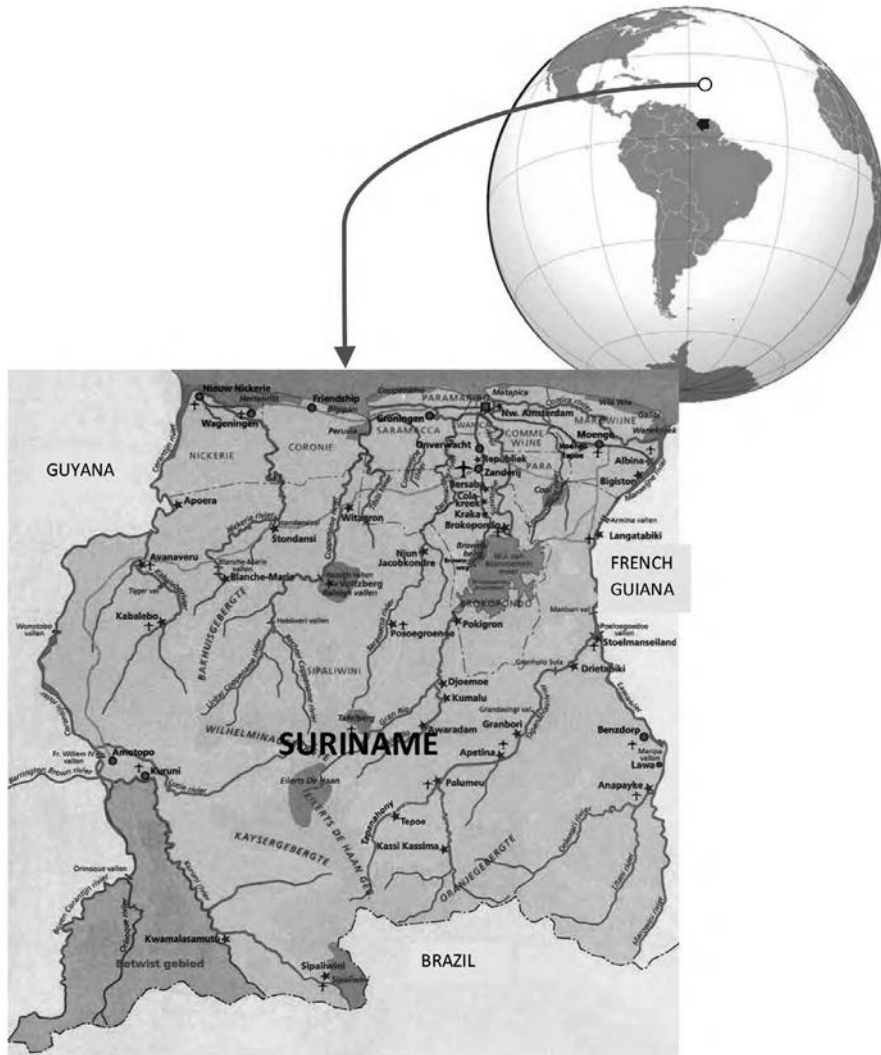


Table 1. Suriname facts and figures

General	
Total population (2012)	541,638 (ABS, 2013a)
Land area	161,471 km ²
Economics	
GDP (current euro)	€ 4.02 billion (World Bank, 2013)
Annual GDP growth	4.4% (World Bank, 2013)
Per capita national income (as of 2012)	€ 6,692 (ABS, 2013c)
% of population in severe poverty	2.0% (UNDP, 2013)
Hourly minimum wage (as of 2014)	€ 1
Unemployment rate, strict definition (only Paramaribo and Wanica districts) (2011 data)	8.0% (ABS, 2014)
Health	
Infant mortality rate	27.07 per 1,000 (UNDP, 2013)
Life expectancy at birth (as of 2013)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male • Female 	67.9 (UNDP, 2014) 74.3 (UNDP, 2014)
% of rural population with access to improved water source	88% (World Bank, 2013)
Fertility rate (births per women)	2.3 (World Bank, 2012)
Education	
Net enrolment rate (NER)* in primary schools (as of 2013)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boys • Girls 	96 (MINOV, 2014) 99 (MINOV, 2014)
Adult literacy (2012 data)	94.7% (UN, 2013)
Expected years of schooling (2012 data)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male • Female 	11.2 (UN, 2013) 12.9 (UN, 2013)
Gender equity	
Gender inequality rank, out of 187 countries	95 (UNDP, 2014)
Gender parity index (GPI) primary school (ratio of girls to boys) (2012)	1.32 (MINOV, 2014)
Migration	
Total migrant stock in Suriname, foreign-born and foreign citizens	41,670 (UN, 2013)
Total number of Surinamese (first-generation) living abroad	261,578 (UN, 2013)
Total number of persons of Surinamese descent (first- and second-generation) living in the Netherlands (as of 2013)	347,631 (CBS, 2014)
Annual remittances flow to Suriname	114 million (Multilateral Investment Fund, 2012)

Note: *NER = enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education (6–11 years), expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

This report presents the migration profile for Suriname. It has been developed in the context of the EU-LAC¹ project funded by the European Union, which is implemented by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in close coordination with its partner *Fundación Internacional y para Iberoamérica de Administración y Políticas Públicas* (FIAPP, International and Ibero-American Foundation for Administration and Public Policies). The broader purpose of the migration profile is to offer a country-owned tool for developing and advocating an evidence-based approach to migration policymaking. Such a policy can help reduce negative migration consequences and promote positive migration impacts at the micro and macro levels. Data sources included unpublished databases from government institutions, published databases from national and international organizations, interviews with key stakeholders and existing secondary data.

Historic trends in migration to and from Suriname

Migration to Suriname: Between 1630 and 1863, voluntary migrants to Suriname were primarily European colonists and Brazilian Jews. In addition, close to 450,000 Africans were forced to travel to Suriname as slaves. Upon the abolition of slavery (1863), indentured labourers were brought to Suriname to the plantation labour: Indians (~34,000), Javanese (~33,000) and Chinese (~2,600). In the early twentieth century, about 500 Jews who fled Nazi prosecution and a smaller group of Lebanese settled in Suriname. The socioeconomic and political uncertainty surrounding the independence period in 1975 and the period of political instability between 1980 and 1992 decreased migration flows to Suriname in the years after World War II. Return migrants dominated the immigrant flows during these years, while a small number of Chinese, Lebanese and others also arrived. After 1992, the number of migrants to Suriname increased again. Currently, Suriname hosts 35,040 foreign-born registered residents – mostly Guyanese, Dutch (including those of Surinamese origin), Brazilians and Chinese.

¹ See <http://eea.iom.int/index.php/what-we-do/migration-policy-and-research/eu-lac-project>.

Migration from Suriname: The first recorded emigration events date from the seventeenth century. Yet it was only in the eighteenth century when it became popular for wealthier colonists to send their children to the Netherlands for Dutch upbringing and education. In addition, several hundreds of Creoles travelled to the Netherlands. Education remained the main motive for migration in the nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century mostly for Creoles from high-income families, but after 1900 Surinamese from middle-income families sent their children abroad, too. In the 1950s and the 1960s, youngsters from lower-income families also began to study abroad. During this period, labour became a second migration motive, stimulated by high unemployment in Suriname and the recruitment of Surinamese workers by Dutch employers. In the 1970s and the early 1980s, the number of Surinamese migrants to the Netherlands soared, with over 100,000 persons leaving – mostly for political reasons. Presently, 347,631 persons of Surinamese descent (first or second generation) formally live in the Netherlands. Meanwhile, Caribbean countries, including French Guiana, have become increasingly interesting as migration destination.

Migration balance: In the 1960s, migration balance between Suriname and the Netherlands became – for the first time in history – negative, with more persons leaving than entering Suriname. In the following years, migration balance fluctuated. Since the start of the twenty-first century, migration balance has remained positive.

Institutional and regulatory framework

Suriname does not have a clearly outlined migration policy. Earlier efforts to lay the groundwork for such a policy resulted in the establishment of the Migration Institute (1981), the Interdepartmental Commission Population policy (2008), and the Integration and Migration Unit within the Ministry of Home Affairs. In addition, a foreign consultant drafted the “Contours of an Immigration Policy” (2012–2013).

In Suriname, the existing legal framework on migration consists of regional treaty laws, bilateral treaty laws and national laws. The most important regional agreements with regard to migration are the Treaty of Chaguaramas of the Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM) and the treaty law of Unión de Naciones Suramericanas (UNASUR, Union of South American Nations). In addition, Suriname has bilateral agreements with 37 countries whose citizens are eligible for a Tourist Card, and a visa waiver agreement with 28 countries. On a national level, the most important legal instruments with regard to migration

include the Constitution, the Aliens Act, the Aliens Decree, the Work Permit Aliens Act, the Criminal Code, and the January 2014 Act establishing the status of Persons of Surinamese Descent (*Personen van Surinaamse Afkomst, PSA*), which is also known as the PSA Act. The primary government ministries and departments dealing with migrants include the following:

- Ministry of Justice and Police (Department of Alien Service; Department of Alien Affairs);
- Ministry of Defence (Military Police);
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Consular Department);
- Ministry of Home Affairs (*Centraal Bureau voor Burgerzaken (CBB)*, Office of Alien Registration, Integration and Migration Unit);
- Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment (Department for Work Permits for Aliens).

Migration trends and characteristics in the past decade

Migration to Suriname

In 2013, 41,670 registered migrants (foreign-born or foreign citizens) – primarily Guyanese, Dutch, Brazilians and Chinese – lived in Suriname. In 2013, the Department of Alien Registration processed 9,891 applications for a long-term visa, for a total number of 12,091 persons – mostly Dutch, Chinese and Brazilians. Eighteen per cent of applications for long-term admission were from persons of Surinamese origin. The 2012 national census found that 3.7 per cent of Suriname-born residents had lived abroad for at least six months – mostly in the Netherlands (10,553), French Guiana (3,326) and the United States (861). Primary reasons for return were “Suriname is the home country”, “family reunion” and “completion of study”.

In the past decade (2004–2013), the number of work permits allocated to aliens fluctuated from 1,326 in 2007 to 742 in 2011. Most registered labour migrants were Chinese, followed by Guyanese and Dutch. On average, in the past decade, the number of female work permit recipients has been just one quarter of the total number of issued work permits. The largest share of work permits was issued for jobs in large and small commerce, restaurants and hotels. Available data do not allow for establishing how many migrants come for reasons of family or studies to Suriname.

Irregular migrants in Suriname include overstayers and persons who entered the country illegally. In the past two years, a total of 54,883 persons were registered as overstayers – mostly Brazilians (15,921), Dutch (12,845) and French (10,338). In the 2014 general pardon, 2,015 irregular migrants filed a request for legal admission, mostly Chinese and Haitians. In the 2009–2013 period, a total of 18 cases of trafficking in persons were investigated by the Police Corps of Suriname (*Korps Politie Suriname, KPS*), with a total of 38 victims.

Migration from Suriname

In 2013, 261,578 Suriname-born or Suriname citizens lived as registered migrants abroad; 122,103 of whom were men and 139,475 were women. The largest numbers of Surinamese migrants were found in the Netherlands (total: 191,182), France, including French Guiana (total: 51,169), and the United States (7,981). The past decade saw a decrease in the annual number of Surinamese who emigrated, from 3,517 persons in 2002 to 1,960 persons in 2012. At present, 184,098 Suriname-born registered migrants live in the Netherlands and 21,564 live in French Guiana. In addition, between 9,000 and 10,000 irregular Surinamese may be living in French Guiana and an unknown number live in the Netherlands. Migration flows have been decreasing in recent years though, and in the past decade (2003–2011) a total of 12,132 Surinamese migrated to the Netherlands.

Family migration has become a primary motive to leave Suriname. In the period of 2002–2011, 9,007 persons, representing three quarters of registered Suriname-born migrants in the Netherlands, moved to the Netherlands for the purpose of family migration. In the past decade (2003–2011), the number of Surinamese who were registered as student migrants in the Netherlands fluctuated between 224 (2003) and 59 (2007). These figures exclude Dutch passport holders. The General Bureau of Statistics (*Algemeen Bureau voor de Statistiek, ABS*) reports that in the 2004–2012 period, 291 Surinamese migrated abroad for the primary purpose of labour.

Socioeconomic conditions and impacts

Primary and junior secondary school attendance is open to migrant children regardless of their status. It is unclear whether irregular migrant children can also attend senior secondary and tertiary education. Brain drain is a valid concern: there is evidence that emigration has long-term negative effects on secondary and tertiary school attendance, and is negatively correlated to university graduation rates.

All residents of Suriname, including migrants, are obliged to have health insurance and may register with the National Basic Health Insurance programme of the Government. Proof of health insurance is required to apply for legal residency in Suriname, but the expenses discourage some migrants from filing their applications. Uninsured migrants typically pay small health expenses out of pocket, and travel for expensive care to their home country or French Guiana. Legally employed migrants in Suriname have a right to public pensions but do not have access to other social welfare payments. Return migrants who lived in the Netherlands can receive specified social security payments (e.g. pensions) in Suriname. There are various (financial) assistance programmes for Surinamese migrants in the Netherlands who wish to return to their home country.

In the past few years (2012–2014), around EUR 100–114 million remittances were annually sent to Suriname. An estimated 85 per cent of this money came from the Netherlands, and about half was sent through informal channels. There are no data on remittance flows from Suriname to foreign countries.

Conclusions and recommendations

At least since 2006, and possibly earlier, Suriname's migration balance has been positive. Despite the net entry of migrants, however, brain drain is a reality. Prospective students and skilled professionals leave the country while primarily low-skilled migrants enter. The need for high-skilled workers is partly resolved by the recruitment of foreign specialists. More durable strategies could be reaching out to persons of Surinamese descent abroad and launching education reforms. Migration has also led to gender imbalance, mostly because of the large influx of foreign male workers.

Suriname does not have an inclusive migration policy. Design and/or application of specific regulations still have room for improvement, and transparency of migration procedures can still be enhanced. Good data are indispensable for the development and monitoring of migration policy. However, data collected by different government departments were often inconsistent, not comparable, incomplete and not user-friendly.

It is recommended that the Government actively recruit Surinamese young professionals and graduates abroad, particularly in the Netherlands, with incentives and favourable working conditions. In addition, Suriname's Anton de Kom (AdeK) University must be internationally accredited, as this will make education in Suriname a more attractive option. Data from government departments must be made consistent and user-friendly. Several topics require more research, including remittance flows from Suriname and the capacities and desire of Surinamese migrants abroad to return.

NEDERLANDSE SAMENVATTING

Introductie

Dit rapport bevat het Migratie Profiel voor Suriname. Het Migratie Profiel is ontwikkeld binnen het kader van het EU-CELAC project, dat door de IOM in nauwe samenwerking met haar partner FIIAPP geïmplementeerd is. Het Migratie Profiel is een landelijk instrument voor het ontwikkelen en bepleiten van migratiebeleid dat gebruik maakt van de best beschikbare informatie en bewijsvoering. Een dergelijk migratiebeleid kan helpen om de negatieve effecten van migratie te beteugelen en positieve migratie-effecten te bevorderen. Informatie is vergaard door de analyse van ongepubliceerde databestanden van overheidsinstellingen, openbare databestanden van nationale en internationale organisaties, en secundaire data, en door middel van interviews met sleutelfiguren.

Historische trends in migratie

Migratie naar Suriname: Tussen 1630 en 1863 migreerden voornamelijk Europese kolonisten en Braziliaanse Joden vrijwillig naar Suriname. Daarbij werden er ongeveer 450,000 Afrikanen als slaaf gedwongen naar Suriname gebracht. Na afschaffing van de slavernij (1863) kwamen er contractarbeiders uit India (~34,000), het Indonesische eiland Java (~33,000) en China (~2,600) naar Suriname om op de plantages te werken. In het begin van de 20ste eeuw vestigden zich kleinere migrantengroepen in Suriname: ongeveer 500 Joden die het Nazi regime ontvluchtten en een kleiner aantal Libanezen. Tijdens de sociaaleconomisch en politiek turbulente jaren rondom de onafhankelijkheid (1975) en de periode van politieke instabiliteit (1980–1992) nam de migratiestroom naar Suriname af. In deze periode domineerden remigranten de immigratiestroom, en kwamen er kleinere aantallen Chinezen, Libanezen en anderen. Na 1992 kwamen er weer meer migranten naar Suriname. Momenteel wonen er in Suriname 35,040 personen die in het buitenland geboren zijn; voornamelijk Guyanezen, Nederlanders (incl. van Surinaamse origine), Brazilianen and Chinezen.

Migratie uit Suriname: De eerste formele berichten over emigratie uit Suriname dateren uit de 17e eeuw. Het werd echter pas in de 18e eeuw populair voor gegoede kolonisten om hun kinderen voor verdere opvoeding en onderwijs naar Nederland te sturen. Ook reisden er in deze eeuw enkele honderden Creolen naar Nederland. Onderwijs bleef gedurende the 19e eeuw en de eerste helft van de 20e eeuw het belangrijkste emigratiemotief; initieel vooral voor

welvarende Creoolse families maar na 1900 ook steeds meer voor Surinamers van middeninkomensgroepen. In de jaren vijftig en zestig van de vorige eeuw begonnen jongeren uit lagere inkomensgroepen ook naar het buitenland te vertrekken voor studie. In deze periode werd arbeid een tweede migratiemotief; gestimuleerd door de hoge werkloosheid in Suriname en de actieve werving van arbeidskrachten in Suriname door Nederlandse werkgevers. In de jaren zeventig en begin jaren tachtig nam het aantal Surinaamse emigranten naar Nederland explosief toe; meer dan 100,000 personen vertrokken, voornamelijk om politieke redenen. Momenteel wonen er 347,631 personen van Surinaamse afkomst (1^e of 2^e generatie) geregistreerd in Nederland. Het Caribisch gebied, incl. Frans Guyana, wordt steeds belangrijker als migratiebestemming.

Migratie balans: In de jaren zestig van de 20ste eeuw werd de migratiebalans tussen Suriname en Nederland voor het eerst in de geschiedenis negatief, met meer mensen die uit Suriname vertrokken dan dat er naar Suriname kwamen. In de daaropvolgende jaren heeft de migratiebalans gefluctueerd. Vanaf het begin van de 21^e eeuw is de migratiebalans positief gebleven.

Institutioneel kader en regelgeving

Suriname heeft geen duidelijk omlijnd migratiebeleid. Eerdere pogingen om de basis voor een dergelijk beleid te leggen resulteerden in de instelling van een Migratie Instituut (1981), de Interdepartementale Commissie Bevolkingsbeleid (2008) en de Integratie en Migratie Unit binnen het Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken. Ook heeft een buitenlandse consultant een conceptrapport “Contouren van een Immigratiebeleid” geschreven (2012–13).

Het wettelijke kader met betrekking tot migratie in Suriname bestaat uit regionale verdragen, bilaterale verdragen en nationale wetgeving. De meeste belangrijke regionale overeenkomsten gerelateerd aan migratie zijn het CARICOM verdrag van Chaguaramas en het UNASUR verdrag. Suriname heeft bilaterale verdragen met 37 landen wier burgers in aanmerking komen voor een Toeristenkaart, en een visumafschaffingsovereenkomst met 28 landen. Op nationaal niveau zijn de meest relevante legale instrumenten met betrekking tot migratie de Grondwet, de Vreemdelingenwet, het Vreemdelingenbesluit, de wet Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen, het wetboek van strafrecht, en de recente (2014) wet voor Personen van Surinaamse Afkomst. De voornaamste overheidsministeries en afdelingen die met migranten werken zijn:

- Ministerie van Justitie en Politie (Vreemdelingendienst, Vreemdelingenzaken);

- Ministerie van Defensie (Militaire Politie);
- Ministerie van Buitenlandse Zaken (Consulaire Zaken);
- Ministerie uitgegeven van Binnenlandse Zaken (CBB kantoor Vreemdelingenregistratie, Integratie en Migratie Unit);
- Ministerie van Arbeid, Technologische Ontwikkeling en Milieu (Afdeling. Werkvergunningen Vreemdelingen).

Migratie trends en karakteristieken in het afgelopen decennium, deel I Migratie naar Suriname

In 2013 woonden er 41,670 registreerde migranten (in het buitenland geboren of buitenlandse burgers) in Suriname, voornamelijk Guyanezen, Nederlanders, Brazilianen, en Chinezen. In 2013 behandelde de afdeling vreemdelingenregistratie 9891 verblijfsaanvragen voor in totaal 12,091 personen, voornamelijk Nederlanders, Chinezen en Brazilianen. Achttien procent van de verblijfsaanvragen betrof personen van Surinaamse origine. Volgens de 2012 census heeft 3.7 procent van de in Suriname geboren personen minstens 6 maanden in het buitenland gewoond, meestal in Nederland (10,553), Frans Guyana (3,326), of de VS (861). De belangrijkste redenen voor terugkeer waren: “Suriname is het thuisland”, “familiehereniging” en “afronding van de studie”.

In het afgelopen decennium (2004–2013) heeft het aantal aan vreemdelingen verschaftte werkvergunningen gefluctueerd tussen de 1326 in 2007 en 742 verschaftte werkvergunningen in 2011. De meeste geregistreerde arbeidsmigranten waren Chinezen, gevolgd door Guyanezen en Nederlanders. Het aantal vrouwen dat een werkvergunning ontving was in de afgelopen tien jaar gemiddeld een kwart van het totaal aantal uitgegeven werkvergunningen. De meeste werkvergunningen zijn afgegeven voor werk in de handel, restaurants en hotels. De data geven geen inzicht in het aantal migranten dat voor familie of studie naar Suriname gemigreerd is.

Irreguliere migranten in Suriname zijn “overstayers” en personen die het land illegaal binnengekomen zijn. In de afgelopen twee jaar werden er 54,883 overstayers geregistreerd; vooral Brazilianen (15,995), Nederlanders (13,014), en Fransen (10,353). Tijdens het 2014 generaal pardon vroegen 2015 irreguliere migranten legaal verblijf aan, voornamelijk Chinezen and Haïtianen. In de periode 2009–2013 zijn er in totaal 18 gevallen van mensenhandel in Suriname onderzocht door het Korps politie Suriname, met in totaal 38 slachtoffers.

Migratie trends en karakteristieken in het afgelopen decennium, deel II ***Migratie uit Suriname***

In 2013 woonden er 261,578 in Suriname geboren personen of Surinaamse staatsburgers als geregistreerde migranten in het buitenland: 122,103 mannen en 139,475 vrouwen. De grootste aantallen Surinaamse migranten woonden in Nederland (191,182), Frankrijk -incl. Frans Guyana (51,169) en de VS (7,981). In de afgelopen tien jaar is het aantal Surinamers dat emigreert gedaald, van 3517 personen in 2002 naar 1960 personen in 2012. In deze periode (2003–2011) emigreerden er in totaal 12,132 Surinamers legaal naar Nederland. Momenteel wonen er 184,098 in Suriname geboren geregistreerde migranten in Nederland, en 21,564 in Frans Guyana. Daarbij wonen er nog tussen de 9,000 en 10,000 irreguliere Surinamers in Frans Guyana en een onbekend aantal in Nederland.

Familiemigratie is de belangrijkste reden geworden om Suriname te verlaten. In de periode 2002-2011 verhuisde driekwart van de in Suriname geboren migranten naar Nederland met als hoofdreden “familie” (9,007 pers.). In het afgelopen decennium (2003–2011) is het aantal Surinamers dat als studiemigrant in Nederland geregistreerd stond gefluctueerd tussen de 224 (2003) en 59 (2007). Surinamers met een Nederlands paspoort zijn in deze cijfers niet meegenomen. Het ABS Suriname rapporteert dat er in de periode 2004 tot 2012, 291 Surinamers emigreerden met arbeid als hoofddoel.

Sociaaleconomische situatie en effecten

Migrantenkinderen hebben toegang tot lagere school en VOJ onderwijs, ongeacht hun verblijfsstatus. Het is onduidelijk of irreguliere migrantenkinderen worden toegelaten tot onderwijs op VOS en tertiair niveau. Braindrain is een gegronde zorgpunt: er is bewijs dat emigratie langdurige negatieve effecten heeft op deelname aan voortgezet en hoger onderwijs, en er is een negatieve correlatie tussen emigratiecijfers en slagingspercentages van de universiteit.

Alle inwoners van Suriname, inclusief migranten, zijn verplicht een ziektekostenverzekering af te sluiten, waaronder de Nationale Zorgverzekering. Een bewijs van ziektekostendeckering is verplicht bij een verblijfsaanvraag maar de hieraan gerelateerde kosten weerhouden sommige migranten ervan om een aanvraag in te dienen. Onverzekerde migranten betalen kleine gezondheidsuitgaven in de meeste gevallen direct contant, en reizen voor duurdere ingrepen naar hun thuisland of Frans Guyana. Migrant die legaal in Suriname werken hebben recht op een pensioensuitkering maar niet op andere sociale uitkeringen. Remigranten die in Nederland gewoond hebben

kunnen bepaalde sociale voorzieningen (bv. pensioen) in Suriname ontvangen. Er zijn verschillende (financiële) ondersteunings-programma's voor Surinaamse migranten in Nederland die naar Suriname terug wensen te keren.

In de jaren 2012–2014 is jaarlijks rond de €100–114 miljoen in geld- en goederenverzendingen naar Suriname gestuurd. Een geschatte 85 procent van dit geld kwam uit Nederland en ongeveer de helft werd via informele kanalen verzonden. Er is geen informatie over de waarde en vorm van geld- en goederenverzendingen vanuit Suriname naar het buitenland.

Conclusies en aanbevelingen

Er wordt geconcludeerd dat Suriname's migratiebalans vanaf 2006, en mogelijk eerder, positief geweest is. Ondanks het netto overschot aan migranten is braindrain een realiteit. Toekomstige studenten en hoogopgeleide professionals verlaten het land, terwijl er voornamelijk laaggeschoolde migranten binnen komen. Het aantrekken van buitenlandse specialisten lost de vraag naar geschoolde arbeid gedeeltelijk op. Het is echter mogelijk duurzamer om personen van Surinaamse afkomst in het buitenland te werven en het onderwijsstelsel te hervormen. Migratie heeft ook geleid tot een verschuiving van de genderbalans, vooral door de grote toestroom van mannelijke arbeidsmigrantten.

Suriname heeft geen geïntegreerd migratiebeleid. Er is ruimte voor verbetering van de vorm en toepassing van specifieke regelgeving, en voor verbeterde transparantie bij migratieprocedures. Goede data zijn onontbeerlijk voor het ontwikkelen en monitoren van migratiebeleid. De data die door de verschillende overheidsinstanties verzameld worden zijn echter vaak inconsistent, niet vergelijkbaar, incompleet en niet gebruikersvriendelijk.

De onderzoekersbevelen aan dat jonge Surinaamse professionals en afgestudeerden in het buitenland, met name in Nederland, aangetrokken worden met stimulerende maatregelen en aantrekkelijke arbeidsvoorwaarden. Suriname's ADEK Universiteit moet international geaccrediteerd worden zodat studie in Suriname aantrekkelijker wordt. Overheidsdiensten zouden hun data consistent met elkaar en gebruikersvriendelijker moeten maken. Verschillende onderwerpen vragen om nader onderzoek, waaronder migratie gerelateerde geld- en goederenstromen die Suriname verlaten, en de capaciteiten en wil om terug te keren onder personen van Surinaamse afkomst in het buitenland.

I. INTRODUCTION

I.1 Background

This report presents the migration profile for Suriname. A migration profile is a tool for developing and advocating an evidence-based approach to migration policymaking (IOM, 2011a). Migration profiles offer an internationally compatible yet nationally relevant framework for monitoring migration processes against the background of existing regulatory systems, policy frameworks and international cooperation initiatives. This migration profile covers a wide range of migration issues and statistics on immigration, collected from various sources. In addition to describing the migrant stocks and their characteristics, it also describes the current systems for tracking migratory events over time and suggests ways for improving migration-related data collection for policy purposes.

This migration profile for Suriname was developed in the context of the EU-funded project entitled “Strengthening the dialogue and cooperation between the European Union-Latin America and the Caribbean to establish management models on migration and development policies (EU-CELAC project)”, which is implemented by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in close coordination with its partner, the International and Ibero-American Foundation for Administration and Public Policies (Fundación Internacional y para Iberoamérica de Administración y Políticas Públicas, FIIAPP). Component 1 of the EU-CELAC project promotes better knowledge of migration flows via data collection, processing and sharing. In addition, it focuses on training and capacity-building for governments to produce, update and analyse data. In line with this objective, migration profiles of various countries (Ecuador, Jamaica, Nicaragua and Peru) have been produced; this process involves consultation with many different actors. The Suriname migration profile was developed upon the request of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

There is a growing consensus that migration is not only induced by socioeconomic, environmental and political factors, but also significantly impacts various development areas at the macro and micro levels. Migration policy can help reduce negative migration consequences and promote positive migration impacts. Accurate and timely data are indispensable for sound and effective policy decision-making. Ultimately, the migration profile is to serve as a capacity-building instrument for government entities and other stakeholders involved in the different facets and stages of migration events while fostering enhanced cooperation between them.

1.2 Objectives of the Suriname migration profile

The broader purpose of the migration profile is to be a country-owned tool for evidence-based migration policymaking. The specific goals of the migration profile are to:

- provide a comprehensive historical overview of migration stocks and flows into and out of Suriname, with particular emphasis on the impact of past migration events on present-day Suriname;
- describe Suriname migration policies and regulations, and identify policy measures that either obstruct or facilitate migration and return migration;
- analyse – based on available data and stakeholder information – current immigration trends and the characteristics of foreign migrants entering and living in Suriname, in terms of their motivations, skills and possible contributions to national development;
- analyse – based on available data and stakeholder information – current emigration trends and the characteristics of Surinamese migrants leaving Suriname and living abroad, in terms of their motivations, skills and possible contributions to the development of Suriname;
- identify the socioeconomic impacts of migration on migrants in Suriname and on Suriname as a country, pinpointing areas where negative impacts of migration may be lessened and areas where positive contributions of migration to individuals and the nation may be strengthened; and
- identify migration data gaps and inconsistencies, and suggest ways to improve migration data collection, storage and analysis.

Since the first migration profiles were developed in 2005, under the auspices of the EU, migration profiles have increasingly been used worldwide for “migration mainstreaming”. That is, the findings and recommendations developed as by-products of migration profile exercises have been incorporated into a broader policymaking context and countries’ development agendas, addressing issues such as poverty reduction, labour market regulation and employment policies (IOM, 2011a). It is anticipated that the Suriname migration profile will serve this purpose.

I.3 Key definitions

Migrant: The 2011 *IOM International Migration Law No. 25: Glossary on Migration* defines “migrant” as such: “At the international level, no universally accepted definition for “migrant” exists. The term “migrant” was usually understood to cover all cases where the decision to migrate was taken freely by the individual concerned for reasons of “personal convenience” and without intervention of an external compelling factor; it therefore applied to persons, and family members, moving to another country or region to better their material or social conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family” (IOM, 2011b:62).

In order to understand the living and working conditions of migrants, as well as the vulnerabilities they are exposed to and the contributions they make to their country of origin and host countries, it is important to distinguish documented migrants and irregular migrants, and migrants who migrated for different reasons.

Documented migrant: A migrant is considered “documented” when he or she “...entered a country lawfully and remains in the country in accordance with his or her admission criteria” (IOM, 2011b). Documented migrants can be divided into groups of those with the intention to stay for a relatively short period (on a visa) and those who stay for long (those with a residency permit).

Irregular migrant: An irregular migrant is a “person who, owing to unauthorized entry, breach of a condition of entry, or the expiry of his or her visa, lacks legal status in a transit or host country” (IOM, 2011b). In this category, we distinguish those persons who have entered a transit or host country lawfully but have stayed for a longer period than authorized (overstayers), and migrants who both entered and stay in the country without the proper documents.

Chain migrant: Chain migration refers to the process where foreigners from a certain city or region tend to migrate to the same area as others from their city or region. It can also refer to the process where relatives or persons from the same city or region who have previously migrated to a new country sponsor others to migrate to the same city/country by providing financial means

for the passage and assisting with other migration issues such as residency papers and finding employment and housing. In Suriname, this term specifically applies to Chinese and Lebanese migrants.

Economic migrant: “A person leaving his or her habitual place of residence to settle outside his or her country of origin in order to improve his or her quality of life. This term is often loosely used to distinguish from refugees fleeing persecution, and is also similarly used to refer to persons attempting to enter a country without legal permission and/or by using asylum procedures without bona fide cause. It may equally be applied to persons leaving their country of origin for the purpose of employment” (IOM, 2011b).

Skilled migrant: “A migrant worker who, because of his or her skills or acquired professional experience, is usually granted preferential treatment regarding admission to a host country (and is therefore subject to fewer restrictions regarding length of stay, change of employment and family reunification)” (IOM, 2011b).

Temporary migrant worker: This refers to a skilled, semi-skilled or untrained worker who remains in the destination country for definite periods as determined in a work contract with an individual worker or a service contract concluded with an enterprise. This is also known as contract migrant worker.

Return migration: This refers to the movement of a person returning to his or her country of origin or habitual residence usually after spending at least one year in another country. This return may or may not be voluntary. Return migration includes voluntary repatriation.

In this document, reference is made to a person of Surinamese origin (*Surinaamse origine, SO*) and a person of Surinamese descent (*persoon van Surinaamse afkomst, PSA*), which under the Surinamese law are slightly different concepts. The full legal definitions of these terms are provided in Chapter 3. In brief, the concepts may be defined as such:

Person of Surinamese origin: This term is applicable to a person who does not have the Surinamese nationality, and who either was born in Suriname or whose parent or parents was/were born in Suriname.

Person of Surinamese descent: This refers to a person who does not have the Surinamese nationality, and who either was born in Suriname or whose at least one of the parents or grandparents was born in Suriname.

I.4 Methods

Data were collected from the following sources:

- Existing unpublished databases from various government institutions working with migrants, including the Consular Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the Department of Alien Registration and the Department of Alien Service of the Ministry of Justice and Police;
- Existing published databases from national and international organizations, such as the Suriname General Bureau of Statistics, the Dutch Bureau of Statistics, the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) Population Division and others; these datasets were available either in hard copy or online;
- Interviews with key stakeholders, including representatives from different government ministries and departments of Suriname, representatives of foreign governments in Suriname and abroad, and other migration experts and key sources;
- Existing secondary data in the form of published and unpublished reports, websites, newspaper articles and other written sources; of particular use were the websites of the National Assembly (*De Nationale Assemblée, DNA*) and various Surinamese government ministries and institutions.

Statistical data were analysed using Excel and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), and were usefully represented in graphs and tables. Expert insights, existing (written) information and information extracted from raw datasets were analysed in a complementary manner, and observed differences and inconsistencies between different sources were explained, where possible.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs sent the first draft of the report for review to all consulted stakeholders and to additional stakeholders identified during the research process. Subsequently, the consultant presented the draft report during a validation meeting organized by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (18 November 2014). All stakeholders were invited to this meeting and had the opportunity to give their comments and suggestions (see Annex IX for the list of participants). All comments and suggestions were processed by the consultant.

Based on the input gathered, specific stakeholders were consulted once again and specific data were double-checked and, where necessary, adjusted. The consultant finalized the report with all additional input on 12 December 2014.

I.5 Report outline

In subsequent pages, the report proceeds as follows:

Chapter 2 presents data on historic immigration and emigration trends. It explains the changing migration motives through time, and analyses changes in the composition of migrant flows.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of Suriname laws and regulations that are relevant to understanding the Suriname migration context and the data from various government sources.

Chapter 4 analyses migration stocks and migration flows into Suriname. It characterizes the immigrant stocks and flows in terms of origin, main motives and skills, and describes different forms of irregular migration into Suriname.

Chapter 5 analyses migrant stocks and flows of Surinamese abroad. It characterizes current emigrant stocks and flows in terms of destination countries, main motives for leaving and migrants' skills.

Chapter 6 analyses the socioeconomic impacts of migration, paying particular attention to education, health, the labour market and remittances.

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions and recommendations. It synthesizes key observations from the migration profile and draws lessons that may guide the development of evidence-based migration policy in Suriname.

2. HISTORIC TRENDS IN MIGRATION TO AND FROM SURINAME

2.1 History of migration to Suriname

Present-day Suriname used to be the home to many distinct indigenous cultures. At present, indigenous peoples make up 3.8 per cent of the national population (ABS, 2014). The large majority of Suriname's population consists of (the descendants of) forced and voluntary migrants, who arrived in the past 500 years, including:

- Creoles and Maroons – descendants of African slaves;
- Hindustani, Javanese and Chinese – descendants of indentured labourers from, East India, the island of Java in Indonesia and China, respectively;
- Lebanese – descendants of Lebanese merchants and businessmen;
- Dutch boeroes – descendants of poor Dutch farmers who tried to establish farms in the New World;
- Chinese new migrants – migrants who arrived as labour migrants in the past decades, and their descendants;
- Brazilians – migrants who came to Suriname from the early 1990s onwards to work in the gold industry, and their descendants;
- And others, including Jews and migrants from the Caribbean.

These migration flows are briefly discussed in this chapter.

2.1.1 From 1630 to 1863

The first Europeans who came to Suriname were Dutch traders who visited the area along with other parts of South America's Wild Coast. In 1630, English settlers made a first attempt to settle in the area. This effort failed, and in 1652 Lord Willoughby, the Governor of Barbados, established a colony in Suriname. "Willoughbyland" consisted of around 120 sq km and a fort. Willoughby was joined by a number of Jewish colonists, who came to manage the newly established plantations. In 1663, most of the work on about 50 plantations was done by indigenous peoples and 3,000 African slaves. There were around 1,000 Europeans there.

The European colonists were joined by Brazilian Jews, who were attracted by religious freedom granted by the English to all settlers. The Jews were received with open arms, because the colony needed colonists and the Brazilian Jews had a lot of experience in plantation-based agriculture. The Jewish colonists originally settled near Jodensavanne, which became the centre of the Jewish community in Suriname (Puper and Meurs, undated).²

In 1667, the area was concurred and occupied by the Dutch. They established a plantation economy, which depended on forced labour performed by African slaves. Between 1680 and 1780, the number of plantations grew from 200 to 591, and the number of slaves from 2,800 to 53,000. The latter number of slaves remained more or less constant up to the early nineteenth century (Koninklijke Bibliotheek van Nederland, 2013). Between roughly 1,500 and 1,850 Dutch ships transported an estimated 550,000 Africans, of whom about 90,000 died underway. Most of the survivors ended up in Suriname, but the exact total number of Africans who had been forced to migrate to Suriname remains unknown.

On 1 July 1863, slavery was abolished in Suriname. On that date, about 35,000 persons of African descent were released from slavery. Ex-slaves were not truly free though; they had to continue their work on the plantations for another 10 years against a small fee. The descendants of former African slaves are Creoles and Maroons (descendants of runaway African slaves).

By the end of the seventeenth century, migration from the Netherlands to Suriname was stimulated by the colonial government. Towards this end, children from an orphanage in Amsterdam were sent to Suriname and divided among Dutch planters. In 1690, 27 boys and 20 girls were sent off, and two years later another 65 boys and 25 girls. As the number of plantations grew in the first half of the eighteenth century, so did the number of planters' families who settled in Suriname. In addition, another group of Dutch arrived in the first half of the nineteenth century: the colonists. Anticipating the need for farm labour after the abolition of slavery, the Dutch Government developed the so-called colonization project. In this project, poor Dutch farmer families were enticed to come to Suriname. Within the eight-year duration of this project, from 1845 to 1853, 398 colonists arrived from the Netherlands and 68 children were born. In May 1853, only 223 colonists survived a typhus epidemic. Fifty-six colonists returned to the Netherlands. The 167 colonists who stayed in Suriname are the predecessors of the present boeroes.

² Educational website for students and teachers: http://www.surinamewebquest.nl/cultuur_overige.html.

2.1.2 From 1863 to World War II

In order to replace slave labour on the plantations, the Dutch Government imported large numbers of Asian contract workers. Between 1853 and 1875, Chinese indentured labourers started arriving in Suriname – just over 2,600 persons. No free return passage was included in Surinamese indenture ship contracts with the Chinese, and a mere 0.1 per cent were estimated to have paid for a passage back. Half a decade later, a second wave of Chinese entered Suriname as “free migrants”. This second migration wave lasted up to the Great Depression of the 1930s (Tjon Sie Fat, 2009).

Larger numbers of contract labourers were recruited in the former British India. The British Government had experience in the use of Indian indentured labourers to replace slave labour, and granted the Dutch permission to contract Indians as a means to alleviate poverty in its colony. Between the end of State supervision and 1916, when the British ended this practice, more than 34,000 British Indians arrived in Suriname. Only a small number of them returned. Few descendants of former Indian indentured labourers continue to feel a strong connection to India, among others, because most cannot trace their distant families.³ Nevertheless, between 2005 and 2014, a total of 233 Surinamese received a Person of Indian Origin (PIO) card and 12 Surinamese were registered as Overseas Citizen of India.

In 1890, the Dutch Government also started recruiting contract labourers in its own colony of Java, to reduce British influence. Between 1890 and the start of World War II, which ended the arrival of contract labourers, almost 33,000 Javanese immigrants entered Suriname (Hoefte, 1987). Only a quarter of the Javanese used the free home passage.

Around the same period, the first Lebanese came on their own account to Suriname for the purpose of trade. They remained a small migrant group, but were successful in the establishment of large trading firms (e.g. Beyrouth Bazar). At present, about 500 persons of Lebanese descent live in Suriname (Puper and Meurs, undated).

Some decades later, during World War II, about 500 Jews settled in Suriname, mostly coming from the Netherlands, to flee Nazi prosecution (Puper and Mears, undated). By this time, Jews had left the plantations to become merchants, lawyers and other professionals, and the Jewish community settled more prominently in Paramaribo (ibid.).

³ Personal communication with Her Excellency Ms Subashini, Ambassador of India to Suriname, 8 October 2014.

2.1.3 From 1945 to 1992

The period between the end of World War II and 1992, the end of Suriname Interior War (*Binnenlandse Oorlog*), is characterized by low migration figures as compared with the preceding and following periods. Reasons for the limited migration to Suriname included the uncertain socioeconomic and political outlook surrounding independence (1975) and the period of political instability (1980–1992). Particularly in the years of the Interior War (1986–1992), an armed conflict between the military government and Maroon guerrilla groups, Suriname was considered an unattractive destination country due to violence, the scarcity of consumption goods, and restrictions on civil liberties.

An important group of migrants in the second half of the twentieth century consisted of return migrants – they were those who were born in Suriname, had left to study or work abroad, and now returned. In the 1950s, hundreds of students, nurses, teachers and labourers travelled to the Netherlands, but a similar number left again for Suriname (Figure 3). Around the same period, about 50 families of Sindhi traders arrived from India in Suriname. The descendants of these families are currently mostly involved in trading of consumer goods (e.g. Kirpalani) and most of them possess a Suriname passport.⁴ Furthermore, oral sources suggest that towards the end of this period (1980s and early 1992), the first Brazilian gold miners started to enter Suriname to search for gold in the country's interiors⁵ (De Theije and Heemskerk, 2009).

In addition to return migrants, smaller numbers of Chinese, Lebanese, other Caribbean nationals, and other nationalities came to Suriname in this period. We have not been able to find concrete data about these other groups of migrants entering Suriname in the late twentieth century.

2.1.4 After 1992

After the reestablishment of democracy and peace in 1992, increasing numbers of migrants came to Suriname. In 2012, for example, Suriname's eighth national census⁶ counted 35,040 residents of Suriname who were born abroad. The UN DESA Population Division (2013) provides slightly higher figures

⁴ Personal communication with Her Excellency Ms Subashini, Ambassador of India to Suriname, 8 October 2014.

⁵ Interiors are mining areas.

⁶ The national census only counted persons who were in Suriname for more than six months, or who had the intention to stay for more than six months, on the census night. Mobile populations such as goldminers, who move around between mining areas, were counted on the location where they were encountered (personal communication with Ms. U. Groenfelt, Manager, Census Office, General Bureau of Statistics, 7August 2014).

of international migrants who have entered Suriname in the past years in part due to the different definitions used (see Chapter 4). The UN data on trends in the international migrant stock in Suriname show a growing estimated number of female and male migrants living in Suriname. According to these estimates, migration into Suriname may have more than doubled in the past 20 years (Table 2) (see Annex II for complete data).

Table 2. Migrant stock in Suriname (registered migrants only) by gender, 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2013

	1990	2000	2010	2013
Total	18,031	27,507	39,474	41,670
Male	9,705	14,915	21,561	22,785
Female	8,326	12,592	17,913	18,885

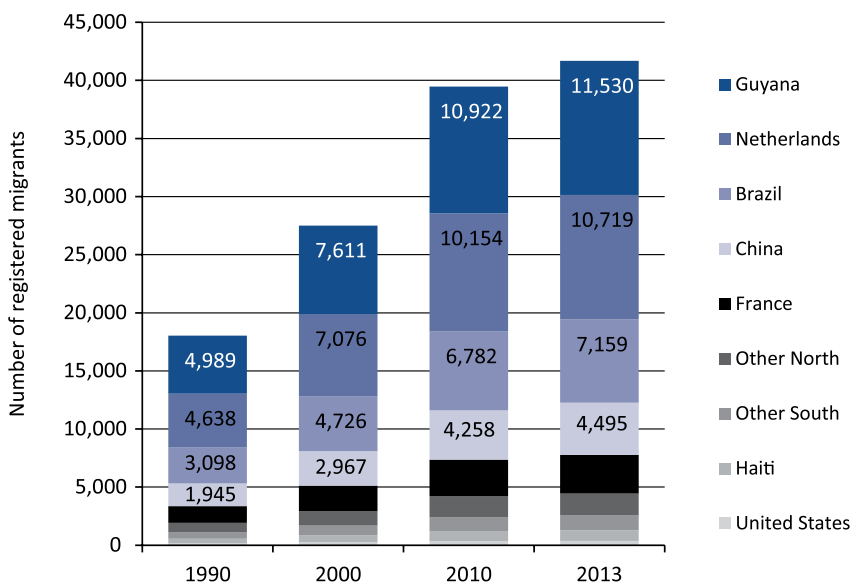
Source: UN DESA Population Division, Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2013 Revision.

Since only registered migrants are listed in the UN DESA Population Division data tables, the figures underestimate the true numbers of migrants. Brazilians, for example, do not need a visa to enter Suriname as long as their stay does not exceed three months.⁷ Upon entry, however, authorities do not track where people go and many people disappear from the records. For some groups, these underestimations may be more than 100 per cent (see Chapter 4).

The largest group of registered migrants is composed of Guyanese, followed by Dutch citizens (Figure 2). It must be taken into account that a significant share of Dutch nationals who have migrated to Suriname are of Surinamese origin. Anthropologist Zuurbier (2009:4), for example, extrapolates that in the 1995–2002 period, annually about 900–1,100 Surinamese Dutch migrated back to Suriname. The same is probably truth for a large share of French nationals living in Suriname. We suspect that many of them are persons from the Suriname–French Guiana border region who were born in Suriname and have acquired French citizenship. The third and fourth largest migrant groups in Suriname are Brazilians and Chinese, respectively (Figure 2).

⁷ Personal communication with Ms Babel, Head, Department of Alien Service, Ministry of Justice and Police, 7 August 2014.

Figure 2. Migrant stock in Suriname by country of origin, 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2013



Source: UN DESA Population Division, Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2013 Revision.

2.2 History of migration out of Suriname

2.2.1 Early migration: From seventeenth century to World War II

Suriname highland indigenous peoples⁸ have historically moved in and out of what now are known as Suriname, Brazil, French Guiana and Guyana. Also, nowadays, members of these previously nomadic tribal groups continue to cross national borders, on foot or by canoe, to live for extensive periods of time in indigenous communities of their kin abroad (ACT, 2007). Also, Maroons living in east Suriname regularly cross the borders into French Guiana, for shorter or longer periods of time. Since these groups are moving within their tribal territory, discussion on migration to and from Suriname does not focus on them. Nevertheless, any population policy should pay specific attention to Suriname's indigenous and Maroon peoples and consider their particular livelihoods and traditions.

⁸ These groups include the Trio (which is a compilation of 12 tribes), the Wayana and the Akuryo. They live in south Suriname, mostly in the villages of Kwamalasamutu, Apetina, Palumeu, Tepu, Sipaliwini and Alalapadu, and several smaller settlements (ACT, 2007).

The first official records of migration from Suriname to the Netherlands date from 1687, when seven individuals – composed of three free persons and four indigenous slaves – were brought to the Netherlands by a son of then colony Governor Cornelis van Aerssen van Sommelsdijck (Budike, 1982:13). The migration was financed by the State, which most likely used it as a means to appease the indigenous groups. One of the purposes of the journey was to give the younger members of the group the opportunity to learn reading, writing and/or speaking Dutch, in addition to housekeeping (for girls) or finding a suitable profession (for boys).

In the eighteenth century, it became popular for colonists with sufficient means to send their children at a young age to the Netherlands for further upbringing and education (Budike, 1982). In addition, several hundreds of Suriname residents of African descent (Creoles), both slaves and free persons, travelled to the Netherlands, as well as smaller numbers of indigenous individuals. Most of them returned to Suriname sometime after (Budike, 1982). Slaves typically migrated as housekeeping staff and as escort of the slave owners' children, who were sent off to be raised and educated abroad. In some cases, slaves were sent or taken to the Netherlands for vocational training, and there are records of Creole women who came as concubines. In addition, around 1765 the council of the Dutch Reformed Church financed the housing of Surinamese orphan boys at an orphanage in Amsterdam, to teach them Christian principles and a profession. Many of these orphans stayed in the Netherlands, but their precise numbers are not on the official records (Budike, 1982).

Migration of Creoles to the Netherlands increased further in the nineteenth century. These Creoles were primarily from high-income families. Continued education in the Netherlands was a prerequisite for climbing the social ladder in Suriname.

2.2.2 Migration between World War I and World War II

Between World War I and World War II, the main motive for migration was also education. Surinamese from the high-income groups continued to make up the majority of the migration stream, but during this period Surinamese from middle-income groups also managed to study in the Netherlands. Some students paid for their education, while others received colonial scholarships that were available for continued education and vocational training. A smaller number of Surinamese from low-income groups also migrated, mostly as working students (*werkstudenten*) to cover their daily living expenses. In addition, an increasing number of Surinamese came to the Netherlands to work, as nurses or musicians for example (CGM, 2010a).

Numerous Surinamese who came to the Netherlands in this period did not return to Suriname after they completed their studies, mostly because of the limited employment and development perspectives in Suriname prior to 1940. In the Netherlands, however, it was not always easy for Surinamese to find employment. One reason for this was that several Dutch companies maintained an employment prohibition (*werkverbod*) for Surinamese (Budike, 1982).

In this period, several Surinamese who had come to the Netherlands migrated to the United States and, as militaries, to the “Dutch Indies” (Indonesia) (Budike, 1982). The total number of Surinamese in the Netherlands in this period was most likely fewer than 1,000.

2.2.3 Labour and study migration: 1945 to 1960s

In the decades following World War II, studying abroad, as a means to upward mobility, continued to be an important migration motive. Studying abroad became ever less of a privilege for children from high- and middle-income groups. As the flourishing bauxite sector enhanced economic growth, a growing number of Surinamese families could send their children abroad – typically to the Netherlands – to study. In addition, smaller groups of students had obtained a Dutch or Surinamese Government study grant or travelled abroad as working students. Even though not all students completed their education, in the period of 1955–1970 several thousands of Surinamese students obtained their college or university degrees in the Netherlands (Budike, 1982).

In this period, the second migration motive was labour. In the 1950s, European countries increasingly needed foreign workers to keep up with economic growth. Around the year 1954, migration flows to the Netherlands increased. In this period, several large Dutch industrial and shipping firms began to actively recruit workers in and from Suriname (Budike, 1982). Around the same time, Dutch hospitals and other care institutions (e.g. retiree homes) actively began recruiting women in and from Suriname to be trained and to work as nurses and caretakers, in order to remedy the severe shortage of qualified personnel (CGM, 2010b). In the Netherlands, labour migrants could earn about five times more than in Suriname and they had access to diverse social welfare services such as child benefits and State health insurance. This enabled the Surinamese working class to improve their economic position.

Three other trends affected emigration from Suriname in this period. First, structural unemployment⁹ had risen to about 25 per cent, which reduced job opportunities in Suriname (Budike, 1982). Secondly, for persons – mainly women – who wished to become nurses, there were too few training opportunities in Paramaribo hospitals, while nurse trainees and qualified nurses were direly needed in Dutch hospitals. Lastly, particularly for women, migration overseas often was a means of emancipation and change (CGM, 2010b). Budike (1982) estimates that during the period of 1955–1970 several thousands of Surinamese women migrated to the Netherlands. Even though the departure of a share of the labour force reduced pressure on the Suriname labour market, the downside of this matter was that qualified workers were leaving the country (Budike, 1982).

A share of the Surinamese workers experienced adaptation problems and had difficulties at the time living and working in the Netherlands. Nevertheless, as time went by migrants adapted and many Surinamese did not return to their home country for various reasons. Migrants met a partner, raised a family and got settled, which made return migration more difficult. Of the women who came as nurse trainees to the Netherlands in the 1950s, an estimated quarter returned to Suriname at some point in time (CGM, 2010b).

Until the 1960s, migration balance was neutral with similar numbers of people who left and those who came. In the 1960s, migration balance between Suriname and the Netherlands became negative, with more emigrants than immigrants and return migrants (Figure 3). In the mid-1960s, employment prospects in Suriname improved because of a number of large development projects that were carried out. However, these projects did not provide structural employment and workers' rights were minimal. As a result, many workers used their earnings to save for migration to the Netherlands.

In this period, a shift was seen in gender balance and age makeup of migration from Suriname. Up to the mid-1960s, adult men dominated the migration stream. From 1965 up to the mid-1990s, the numbers of male and female migrants were similar. Recruitment of nurses and family reunion (*gezinshereniging*) played an important role in this trend. In this period, the number of children who migrated increased; parents perceived migration as an opportunity to create a better life for their children, especially after the Surinamese teachers' strikes in 1969 and 1973 when many schools closed down (Budike, 1982).

⁹ Structural unemployment is a form of unemployment where, at a given wage, the quantity of labour supplied exceeds the quantity of labour demanded, because there is a fundamental mismatch between the number of people who want to work and the number of jobs that are available. Structural unemployment is generally considered to be one of the "permanent" types of unemployment, where improvement – if possible – will only occur in the long run.

Also, in the 1960s, a few hundred¹⁰ Surinamese who lived in the Netherlands migrated to Germany, where many of them found employment as industry workers and colporteurs. In addition, some dozen¹¹ Surinamese girls became sex workers in Germany (Budike, 1982).

2.2.4 Migration explosion: 1970s to 1992

In the 1970s, the number of Surinamese who migrated to the Netherlands soared, mostly for political reasons (Budike, 1982). Economic perspectives were weak and people had little trust in the political leadership, which polarized the population along ethnic lines. There were continuous strikes, of which the largest one occurred in 1973 when workers of virtually all economic sectors discontinued their work. When it also became clear that the Netherlands wanted to speed up the political independence of Suriname, Surinamese massively left the country: about 7,000 in 1970 and approximately 10,000 in 1971 and in 1973 (Figure 3). In this migration climate, Surinamese from all sections of society left: men and women, children and retirees. Inhabitants of the districts also started to leave the country in greater numbers during this period. In addition, around the year 1970, a couple dozen¹² underage girls left Suriname monthly to work in brothels in Belgium, Germany, Scandinavia and other Western European countries.

In the 1970s, however, the economy of the Netherlands started to decline and this factor, in combination with increased discrimination by parts of Dutch society, reduced the socioeconomic opportunities of particularly the underprivileged Surinamese. Most migrants settled in the large cities. The large number of Surinamese who settled in Bijlmermeer, a neighbourhood of Amsterdam, can largely be explained by the operation of cheap housing corporations (*woningbouwcorporaties*) at this location.

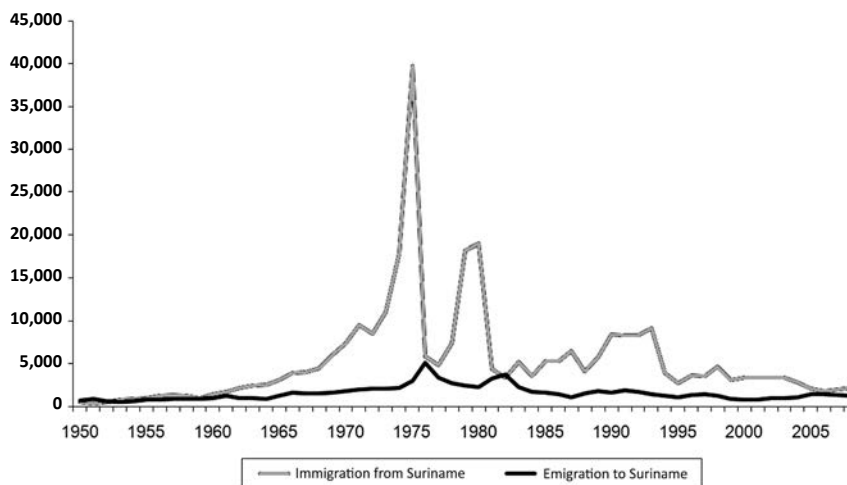
Outmigration peaked in 1975, the year of independence, with 40,000 Surinamese migrating to the Netherlands. They were driven away by the political climate and fear of race riots, and by the Dutch Government's Central Bureau Settlement policy (*Centraal Bureau Vestigingsbeleid*), which guaranteed housing for all newcomers. The Bureau did not have the capacity, however, to accommodate the huge influx of Surinamese migrants. By the end of 1975, when migration stream came to a halt, about 7,500 migrants had been placed in 94 temporary shelters while another 15,000 requests remained unprocessed.

¹⁰ No specific data on their numbers were found.

¹¹ No specific data on their numbers were found.

¹² No specific data on their numbers were found.

Figure 3. Migration streams between Suriname and the Netherlands between 1950 and 2005



Source: Lucassen and Lucassen, cited in CGM 2010. Available from www.vijfeeuwenmigratie.nl/sites/default/files/bronnen/figuur2.2.pdf.

Note: Immigration and emigration figures are based on data from the civil registry. People who do not register upon arrival and those who do not request removal from the registry are not included.

After a similarly rapid decrease in migration numbers from 1976 to 1978, a second migration wave took place in 1979 and 1980. After independence, it had been arranged that for a period of five years Surinamese citizens with a valid passport could enter the Benelux countries without a visa and stay in the destination for up to three months. Many Surinamese who came to the Netherlands in these years stayed beyond what had been legally allowed, for family reunion, work, study or other reasons. Many of these people eventually obtained a legal residency status. Before the regulation that ended the free migration regime took effect, an additional ~40,000 Surinamese decided to leave their homeland (Figure 3) (CGM, 2010a).

Introduction of visa requirements was not the only reason why Surinamese left their country in the first years after independence. An important motive was the military coup on 25 February 1980, and the related political uncertainty. This event and the period of civil unrest known as the Interior War (*Binnenlandse Oorlog*, 1986–1992) drove a substantial number of Surinamese citizens across national borders. Most of them went to the Netherlands. Many Maroons from the Marowijne area, which experienced excessive violence during the Interior War, sought asylum in French Guiana during this time.

2.2.5 Present-day migration trends: Period after 1992

Data from the Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics suggest that in the past decade, the number of new Surinamese migrants to the Netherlands has been decreasing (Figure 4) (CBS, 2014). At present, 347,631 persons of Surinamese descent¹³ live in the Netherlands (data as of 1 January 2013) (CBS, 2014). Of this group, 184,098 persons were born in Suriname. These data do not include persons who stay in the Netherlands without a legal residency status. The main ethnic groups among Dutch citizens of Surinamese descent are Creoles and Hindustani (CGM, 2010a).

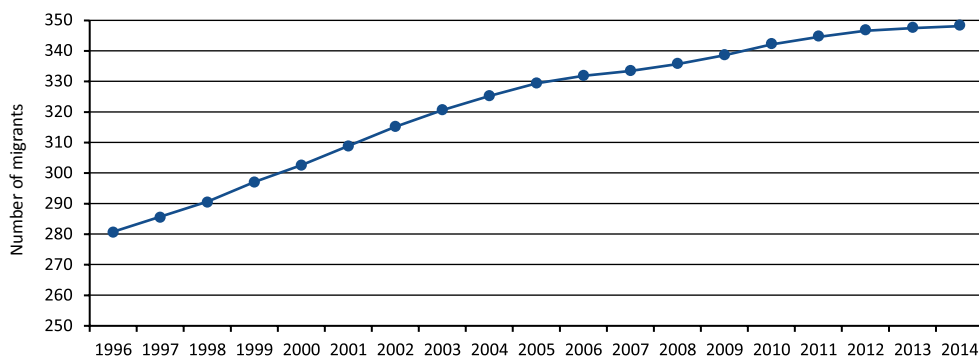
Meanwhile, Surinamese Maroons continue to migrate to neighbouring French Guiana. The presence of family, coupled with the generous European-standard social welfare packages offered to French residents, makes French Guiana a popular destination.

Also, other Caribbean countries have become increasingly interesting as migration destinations. In 2002, Surinamese were the largest immigrant group in Guyana, representing 27.9 per cent of all migrants in this country. These migrants are mostly Surinamese women (Baraldi and Gainza, 2012). Motives to migrate continue to be work, studies and family reunion.

In the meantime, significant numbers of Surinamese have migrated to other countries. Data from the UN DESA Population Division confirm that most Surinamese emigrants went to the Netherlands (Table 3). In addition, we found that by 2013 Surinamese emigrants lived in France (23,549 persons), the Caribbean region (4,575 persons) – mostly in the Netherlands Antilles – French Guiana (27,620), Guyana (4,662) and the United States (7,981) (Table 3). In subsequent chapters, these migrant populations are discussed in greater detail.

¹³ The Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics defines a person of Surinamese descent (*herkomst*) as: (1) one who was born in Suriname; and (2) one whose mother was born in Suriname, or whose father was born in Suriname if the mother was born in the Netherlands.

Figure 4. Number of registered first- and second-generation Surinamese in the Netherlands, 1996–2014



Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2014.

Table 3. Destination countries of Surinamese migrant stocks, 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2013

	1990	2000	2010	2013
Asia	47	153	149	157
Philippines	30	134	122	127
Other Asia	17	19	27	30
Europe	158,195	188,979	211,641	215,086
Russian Federation	294	324	14	14
Austria	11	14	17	18
France	267	284	22,781	23,549
Netherlands	157,443	188,128	188,553	191,182
Switzerland	68	77	101	108
Other Europe	112	152	175	215
Caribbean	2,876	3,818	4,360	4,575
Aruba	721	1,273	1,479	1,520
Caribbean Netherlands	2,005	2,305	366	403
Curaçao	0	0	1,722	1,833
Dominican Republic	103	126	140	142
Sint Maarten (Dutch part)	0	0	500	516
Other Caribbean	47	114	153	161

	1990	2000	2010	2013
Central America	33	30	37	40
South America	15,130	18,921	30,982	32,655
Brazil	120	233	273	276
French Guiana	13,703	16,165	26,489	27,620
Guyana	1,163	2,426	4,126	4,662
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	106	61	40	39
Other South America	38	36	54	58
Northern America	3,824	6,851	8,599	8,915
Canada	533	839	897	934
United States	3,291	6,012	7,702	7,981
Australia and New Zealand	78	103	139	150
Australia	72	89	119	128
New Zealand	6	14	20	22

Source: UN DESA Population Division.

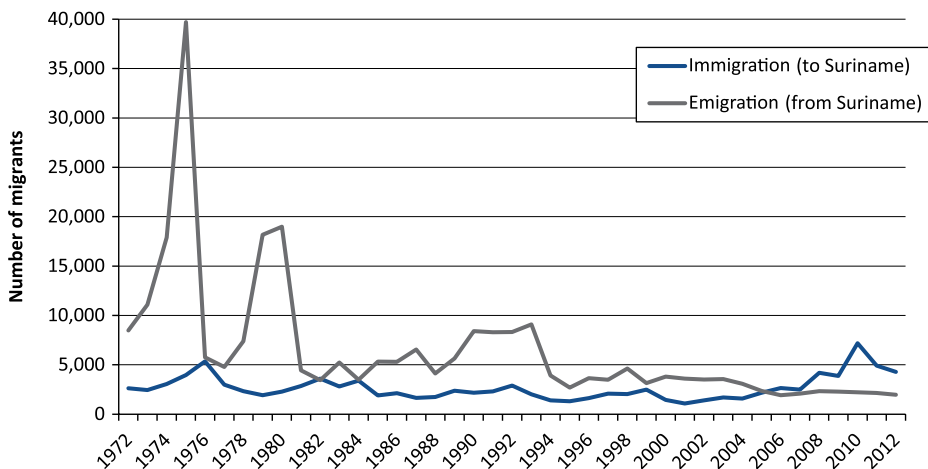
2.3 Migration balance from a historical perspective

Policymakers are concerned with migration balance because Suriname has a small population and workforce. Human capital is essential for Suriname's national socioeconomic development. Prior to the 1950s, migration balance was positive, with more persons entering Suriname than leaving. In the 1950s, however, there was swift migration, in which Surinamese citizens started to leave in relatively larger numbers to study and work in particularly the Netherlands. Even though many persons annually returned, the balance started to shift and remained negative for the next half century, with more persons leaving Suriname than returning (Figure 5) (see Annex III for complete data).

Migration balance in Suriname showed a sharp depression in 1975, the year of independence, and another depression in the 1980s, the year of the military coup (Figure 6). For the next fifteen years, migration balance has fluctuated and since the start of the twenty-first century, it has turned increasingly positive. In 2010, Suriname registered almost 5,000 more immigrants than emigrants. The peak in 2010 can be explained by the general pardon granted by the Ministry of Justice and Police in that year, which called upon undocumented foreigners to register without repercussions for their status. Nevertheless, also in 2011 (migration balance: 2,758 persons) and 2012 (migration balance: 2,324 persons), Suriname's migration balance has remained positive, with more persons entering the country than leaving (Figure 6).

Note that the migration balance depicted in Figure 6 only applies to registered migrants. Including irregular migrants would particularly elevate immigration figures and hence result in a larger emigration–immigration difference and a more positive migration balance (see Chapters 4 and 5).

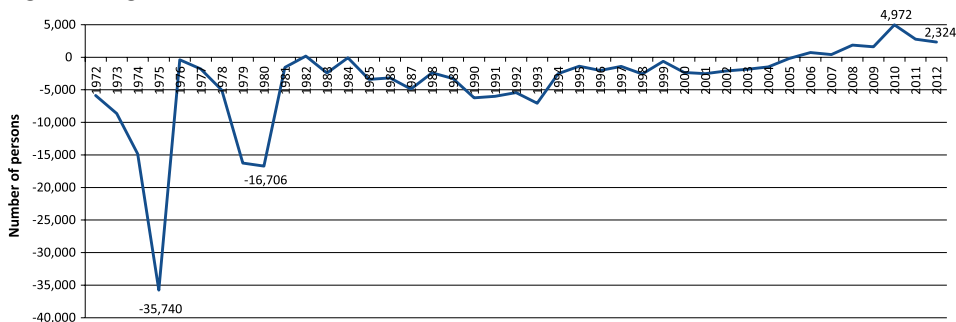
Figure 5. Immigration to and emigration from Suriname, 1972–2012



Source: Suriname Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs (*Centraal Bureau voor Burgerzaken, CBB*) for immigration data; Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics for emigration data.

Note: Immigration in 2010 was high because of the general pardon by the Ministry of Justice and Police. This figure included migrants from different years. With regard to emigration data, for the years 2000–2012, data from the Central Bureau of Statistics (Netherlands) and the Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs (Suriname) were adjusted with data on migration to countries other than the Netherlands.

Figure 6. Migration balance, 1972–2012



Source: Suriname Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs for immigration data; Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics for emigration data.

Note: For the years 2000–2012, emigration data from the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics and the Suriname Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs were adjusted with data on migration to countries other than the Netherlands.

3. INSTITUTIONAL AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK

3.1 Suriname and migration policy

One of the objectives of this migration profile is to provide a basis for the development of evidence-based migration policy. At present, Suriname does not have a clearly outlined migration policy that describes what forms of migration into Suriname are desired and how these processes will be stimulated and facilitated, and what types of migration should be discouraged and how.¹⁴ Neither is there a comprehensive policy on management of the positive and negative impacts of immigration and emigration. There are regulations in different areas. For example, in order to prevent brain drain, the Government of Suriname has an arrangement with the Dutch Government, which stipulates that Surinamese doctors who specialize in the Netherlands may not be registered in the Netherlands, and thus they all return.¹⁵ However, such agreements are often stand-alone arrangements and not integrated within a broader policy or overseen by one specific government institute.

Since its independence, the Surinamese Government has undertaken several actions to obtain better insights into migration trends and develop migration policy. In 1981, the Surinamese Government established the Migration Institute. Following are among the tasks of the Institute:

- Collect migration data and exchange them with other countries;
- Conduct studies about the causes of migration and its consequences in terms of the political, socioeconomic and educational development of Suriname;
- Research possibilities and regulations to reduce the negative effects of migration and draft related policy;
- Research possibilities for shelter and facilities in the context of migration;
- Advise the Government on migration issues.
(Migratie Instituut, 1983)

However, the Institute was abolished in 1987.

¹⁴ Personal communication with K. Lo A Njoe, Coordinator, Integration and Migration Unit, Ministry of Home Affairs, 5 August 2014.

¹⁵ Personal communication with Dr M. Eersel, Director for Health, Ministry of Health, 10 September 2014.

In 2007, the former Ministry of Planning and Development Cooperation (*Ministerie van Planning en Ontwikkelingssamenwerking, PLOS*) established the Second Commission on Population Policy (*Tweede Commissie Bevolkingsbeleid*). The Commission consisted of representatives of different ministries. Its primary task was to formulate population policy for Suriname, based on available data and input from relevant stakeholders. The Commission – in collaboration with other experts – prepared a draft policy paper setting out proposals for population policy to be pursued in Suriname for the period of 2009–2014. However, putting together a policy document proved to be a very complex exercise because requested data were not always available, data were not collected consistently and continuously by various ministries, or data were not available in the requested form. Besides, different definitions were used for the same concepts. The Commission concluded that Suriname appeared to have little experience and expertise in the field of population policy (PLOS, 2009). It identified three possible interventions to better attune population policy to labour market and development needs:

- Local supply through targeted investment and upgrading of training;
- Deployment of existing and expected immigrants (without specific immigration encouragement policy);
- Specific immigration encouragement policy.

The Commission was abolished later on though.

In the 2010 government declaration, the President of Suriname stated that the Government perceives migration as an instrument for development whereby the diaspora will play a central role. Because of the (foreseen) contributions of Surinamese in the diaspora to national development, diaspora policy plays a crucial role within the broader migration policy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Ministry has indicated that the migration policy builds upon the following general premises:

- Migration policy has a liberal nature;
- The diaspora and immigration to Suriname are tools for development;
- The diaspora must be engaged in national development aspects such as human capital, which is essential for Suriname's national socioeconomic development due to its fairly small population;
- Different sectors are of particular interest for skilled people and investors in the diaspora, including health, agriculture, ICT and infrastructure.

These interests have been presented in the National Development Plan 2012–2016.¹⁶

The migration policy also includes registration of all irregular migrants.¹⁷

The consultant received Chapter 4 of the draft migration policy from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which discusses movement of persons. Points of attention are as follows:

- Migration as a tool for development (labour);
- Diaspora and remittances;
- Immigration and remigration;
- Brain drain;
- Legislation and migration;
- Establishment of mechanisms for data collection with all relevant stakeholders;
- Development of migration programmes focused on integration, education and health;
- Development of a special programme for return of Surinamese nationals with a criminal past;
- Security/monitoring of movement of persons, involving all relevant actors by sharing information (national and international);
- Trafficking in persons;
- Preparations for joining the International Organization for Migration (IOM).¹⁸

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs addresses diaspora policy through the following policy means and interventions:

A. Identifying national development goals and capacity (e.g. investment, knowledge, remittances)

- Firstly, the Government of Suriname identified the national development goals.
- Subsequently, the Government and the diaspora jointly designed a strategy to facilitate a stronger diaspora involvement in development.

¹⁶ Personal communication with Ministry of Foreign Affairs Deputy Permanent Secretary L. Redan, 18 November 2014.

¹⁷ Personal communication with Ministry of Foreign Affairs Deputy Permanent Secretary L. Redan, received from IOM on 30 December 2014.

¹⁸ Chapter 4, draft migration policy, from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2011.

- Simultaneously, an inventory of relevant existing Dutch policies and laws impacting efforts was made, aimed at increasing the involvement of the diaspora.

The consultant has not been able to verify whether these policy activities have been completed, who have been involved (e.g. persons or organizations from the diaspora) and what outcomes have been produced.

B. Knowing the Surinamese diaspora

Suriname recognizes that it is instrumental to know the characteristics of its diaspora for the purpose of making an effective match. For this reason, mapping exercises are scheduled to – among others – list the locations of the diaspora, understand what the diaspora has to offer, what it is willing to offer and what the expectations are. Data collection also includes a mapping of existing and active diaspora-related organizations. A Web-based mapping exercise will soon be launched (to be carried out by IOM).

In order to be able to further develop and execute the Migration Policy drafted by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Suriname joined IOM membership in June 2013, which will enable it to obtain technical assistance. In collaboration with IOM, there are two important projects: “Diaspora Mapping” and the “Regional Project on the Involvement of the Diaspora for Entrepreneurship”. The project “Exchange of Expertise with Hospitals” is already being implemented. In 2014, legal recognition of persons of Surinamese descent began, which is an important step in the diaspora policy.¹⁹

In 2012–2013, under the auspices of the Ministry of Home Affairs, a consultant from the Dutch Scientific Council for Government Policy (*Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid, WRR*) wrote a report titled “Contours of an Immigration Policy” (*Contouren van een Immigratie Politiek*). This report has not (yet) been approved by the Surinamese Government.²⁰

The Surinamese Government 2012–2016 development plan report titled “Suriname in Transformation” contains a paragraph on population policy (Government of Suriname, 2012). In this report, the Government emphasizes the need for population policy in the context of nation-building. The report

¹⁹ Personal communication with Ministry of Foreign Affairs Deputy Permanent Secretary L. Redan, 18 November 2014.

²⁰ Personal communication with K. Lo A Njoe, Coordinator, Integration and Migration Unit, Ministry of Home Affairs, 5 August 2014.

also calls for research on the impact of foreigners on the economy, politics and demography of Suriname. With regard to the legal framework related to migration, the report recommends the following:

- Introduction of a diaspora policy with regard to the simplification of the movement to Suriname for foreign citizens of Surinamese descent;
- Appointment of honorary consuls of Surinamese origin in strategic sectors to involve them more closely in national development.

With regard to data, the report states that the unavailability of recent demographic data on the correct social situation targeting the exact composition of the foreign and national population of Suriname complicates an adequate demographic analysis. The report also announced the establishment of the Migration Institute (Government of Suriname, 2012).

At present, the Ministry of Home Affairs houses the Integration and Migration Unit. The tasks of this unit are largely comparable to those of the earlier Migration Institute. Among others, the Integration and Migration Unit has called for a more obligatory civic integration policy.²¹

In subsequent sections, legislation relevant to migration is discussed in detail.

3.2 Key domestic legislation and recent migration policy developments

The existing legal framework in Suriname on migration consists of regional treaty laws, bilateral treaty laws and national laws.

3.2.1 Regional law

Caribbean Community and Common Market Treaty of Chaguaramas

Suriname incorporated the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas of the Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM) into national legislation in 1995. The free movement of persons is a critical component of Chapter 3 of the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas, which establishes the Caribbean Community Single Market and Economy (CSME) (Symmonds, 2008). Professor Elizabeth

²¹ Personal communication with K. Lo A Njoe, Coordinator, Integration and Migration Unit, Ministry of Home Affairs, 5 August 2014. See also http://www.dna.sr/media/40548/OB_BINNENLANDSE_ZAKNEN__2014.pdf.

Thomas-Hope, who does research on international migration and migration policy in the Caribbean, states that:

The implementation of the CSME has been slow, but a number of initiatives have been taken across the region to date. These include: legislation to modify the need for a work permit and unconditional landing so as to permit ease of entry and indefinite stay; introduction of an umbrella training body (Caribbean Association of National Training Agencies) and a common certification (Caribbean Vocational Qualification), and of a CARICOM Passport and Skills Certificate; and the right to portability of social security benefits. The statutory provision for labour mobility is the Caribbean Community (Free Movement of Skilled Persons) Act, which gives selected categories of workers from CARICOM countries preferential treatment whereby a work permit is not required but they should be in possession of a Certificate of Recognition of CARICOM Skills Qualification (or Skills Certificate) to be landed unconditionally (IOM, 2012).

The Free Movement of Skilled Persons Act is fully operational in Suriname, permitting free entry to reside with the purpose of labour.

Treaty Law Creating the Union of South American Nations

Suriname ratified the treaty establishing the Union of South American Nations (Unión de Naciones Suramericanas, UNASUR) in 2010. This treaty is a subregional treaty effective within the Americas region. Below are migration-relevant excerpts of this treaty law:

As indicated in Article 3, UNASUR has the following objectives:

- ff) The development of an infrastructure for the interconnection of the region and among our peoples, based on sustainable social and economic development criteria;
 - jj) The consolidation of a South American identity through the progressive recognition of the rights of nationals of a Member State resident in any of the other Member States, with the aim of attaining a South American citizenship;
 - ll) Cooperation on issues of migration with a holistic approach, based on an unrestricted respect for human and labour rights, for migratory regularisation and harmonisation of policies.
- (Castelen et al., 2012)

United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (Palermo Convention)

Suriname has been part of the Palermo Convention and the Protocols thereto since 25 May 2007. This Convention includes: the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime; and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.

3.2.2 Bilateral treaty law

Besides agreements with countries within UNASUR and CARICOM, Suriname signed bilateral agreements with various other countries. Most agreements dictate reciprocity concerning visa requirements for the nationals of the countries involved. These agreements do not include labour migration and permits for a period longer than 90 days, which are part of national law. Regarding the Tourist Card, there are treaties signed with 37 countries, including the Netherlands. As a result of treaties with 28 other countries, no visa is required for nationals from those countries, including Brazil.

Another bilateral agreement is the memorandum of understanding (MoU) with the Government of the Netherlands, which requests more rapid determination of nationality and identity of irregular Surinamese in the Netherlands by Surinamese authorities, and which arranges the readmissions of the citizens of both countries.

3.2.3 National law

The Constitution of Suriname states that all Surinamese are allowed entrance into Suriname and are free to move and reside within Suriname territory, provided that restrictions are imposed by law (Article 3, Section 3).²²

The Alien Act (*Vreemdelingenwet* 1991 (S.B. 1992, No. 3)) and the Aliens Decree (*Vreemdelingenbesluit* 1995 (S.B. 1995, No. 85)) are applicable to migration.

²² Grondwet van de Republiek Suriname (S.B. 1987, no. 116), gelijk zij luidt na de daarin aangebrachte wijziging bij S.B. 1992, no. 38. See http://www.dna.sr/media/18316/grondwet_suriname.pdf.

The Work Permit Aliens Act of 1981 (S.B. 1981, No. 162) stipulates the provisions applicable to aliens with regard to work. Article 6 states that a work permit will be rejected if the stay permit of the alien is rejected or if the alien is declared persona non grata. Article 7 indicates that a work permit can be rejected if the labour supply is present in the country or reasonably can be expected.²³

The Work Permit Aliens Act (*Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen*) stipulates that: “It is forbidden for an employer to have an alien work for him without permission of the Director of Labor.”²⁴ The work permit must be requested jointly by the employer and the employee. A request for a work permit is not considered if the alien does not possess and has not requested a residency permit that is valid for performing labour.

No work permit is required when the foreigner falls under the following categories:

- Foreigner married to a Surinamese national;
- Foreigner covered by the 2014 PSA Act;
- Return migrant of Surinamese origin whose current nationality is non-Surinamese;
- Foreigner who has a refugee status;
- Foreigner who will work as a civil servant;
- Foreigner with a “CARICOM skilled national” status.

Trafficking in persons is described in the Criminal Code (S.B. 2006, No. 42). The former Article 307 has been revised in alignment with the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the associated Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children. In 2003, the Working Group on Counter-trafficking in Persons was established through appointment by the Minister of Justice and Police. This interdepartmental working group has, as its general task, to advise on and coordinate the planning, preparation and execution of government activities aimed at combating trafficking in persons.²⁵

²³ Wet van 24 oktober 1981, houdende regelen met betrekking tot het verrichten van arbeid door vreemdelingen (Wet Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen) 1 (S.B. 1981, no. 162), gelijk zij luidt na de daarin aangebrachte wijzigingen bij S.B. 2002, no. 23. See http://www.dna.sr/media/16384/werkvergunning_vreemdelingen.pdf.

²⁴ S.B. 1981, no. 162, last modified by S.B. 2002, no. 23, Article 3.

²⁵ Trafficking Protocol. See <http://gov.sr/sr/ministerie-van-juspol/werkgroepen/werkgroep-counter-trafficking-in-persons.aspx>.

Article 2 of the Act establishing the status of Persons of Surinamese Descent (*Personen van Surinaamse Afkomst, PSA*, S.B. 2014, No. 8) – also known as the PSA Act – permits persons of Surinamese descent to freely travel and obtain residency in Suriname. A PSA status is granted to a person who does not have Surinamese nationality and who:

- was born in Suriname, except when the parents of the person are not or were not of Surinamese descent and when, at the time of birth of the person, are or were temporary in Suriname in Foreign Service, for study or for any other reason;
- was not born in Suriname, but has at least one parent who – on the basis of paragraph 1 of this article – is of Surinamese descent;
- was not born in Suriname, but has at least one grandparent who – on the basis of paragraph 1 of this article – is of Surinamese descent.

Suriname does not recognize or allow dual citizenship. However, Minister Edmund Leilis of Home Affairs recently stated that Suriname encourages dual citizenship, even though the country officially has no dual citizenship.²⁶ The Minister of Foreign Affairs confirmed that the Surinamese Government is presently looking into the possibility of granting professional athletes of Surinamese origin dual citizenship.²⁷

The Government of Suriname does not have a single ministry of department responsible for migration management. Immigration-related operational activities are carried out by multiple ministries and offices (Table 4). Besides general task descriptions, no detailed policy documents about the involved ministries were encountered.

²⁶ See <http://www.srherald.com/suriname/2014/07/11/leilis-suriname-stimuleert-dubbele-nationaliteit/>.

²⁷ Interview at Radio 10 News, 16 October 2014.

Table 4. Main government agencies with migrant- and/or migrant policy-relevant tasks

Ministry/Department	Primary task
Ministry of Justice and Police	
Department of Alien Service (<i>Vreemdelingendienst</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervise the admission and stay of aliens in Suriname. • Execute orders for deportation, expulsion or extradition of aliens.
Department of Alien Affairs (<i>Vreemdelingenzaken</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Process applications for residency and permanent residency. • Process applications for naturalization. • Prepare orders for deportation of aliens who are not allowed to stay in Suriname.
Working Group on Counter-trafficking in Persons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advise on and coordinate the planning, preparation and implementation of government activities aimed at combating trafficking in the broadest sense.
Ministry of Defence	
Military Police (<i>Militaire Politie</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor border crossing at the Johan Adolf Pengel (JAP) International Airport and designated border crossing points in Suriname (the districts of Nickerie (South Drain), Marowijne (Albina) and Paramaribo (Zorg en Hoop Airport). • Carry out specialist exploration activities (e.g. checking the authenticity of travel documents at border crossings and other forensic work). • Take charge of border security operations, namely, control and monitoring of the safety of civil aviation by means of ensuring security of passengers in the border area.
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	
Consular Department (<i>Consulaire Zaken</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure compliance of Suriname with international rules, regulations and provisions on consular matters (including consular laws, consular manuals, Vienna Convention and the law on administrative fees). • Handle matters relating to the rights, duties and personal interests of Surinamese abroad. • Process applications for admission to Suriname of nationals from countries where no free-movement regulation exists, Stateless persons, refugees and asylum-seekers. • Process visa applications and extension of Tourist Cards (<i>Toeristenkaarten</i>). • Attend to matters concerning people of Surinamese decent.
Ministry of Home Affairs	
Integration and Migration Unit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collect, track and analyse current demographic data to support and design the preparation and implementation of the population policy.
Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs (<i>Centraal Bureau voor Burgerzaken, CBB</i>), Office of Alien Registration (<i>Vreemdelingenregistratie</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for the registration of aliens entering Suriname. • Provide competent authorities with information on alien registration.
Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment	
Department for Work Permits for Aliens (<i>Werkvergunningen Vreemdelingen</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Process work permit applications of non-Surinamese. The work permit is granted by the Director of the Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment (<i>Ministrie van Arbeid, Technologische Ontwikkeling en Milieu, ATM</i>).

3.3 Immigration

The Government of Suriname makes a distinction between two types of foreigners:

- Foreigners who need a visa;
- Foreigners who do not need a visa.

The type of visa that a foreigner needs to enter Suriname depends on his or her classification.

3.3.1 Foreigners who need a visa

Tourist Card: Persons who wish to visit Suriname for tourism purposes and who are intending to stay in the country for less than three months and therefore are required to apply for a visa may use a Tourist Card (*Toeristenkaart*). For persons of Surinamese origin, duration of their stay in the country may be extended for up to six months. The Tourist Card was introduced in 2011 and can be used by foreigners of Surinamese origin and the nationals of 37 selected countries.²⁸ The Tourist Card can be obtained upon presentation of a valid passport and a return ticket (a return ticket is not required if the traveler enters Suriname by land or by boat). Persons who claim Surinamese origin must be able to prove their claim. The Tourist Card can be used for a single entry and does not apply for those who wish to visit Suriname for business purposes.

Persons from French Guiana are not allowed to use the Tourist Card when they travel from Suriname to other destinations.

Upon entering Suriname with a Tourist Card, the foreigner is granted a 30-day stay, which is stamped on the Tourist Card and the passport. To obtain the remaining 60 days of legal stay, the foreigner needs to register with the Department of Alien Service. Persons who can prove to be of Surinamese origin are allowed to stay for six months.²⁹

²⁸ Austria, Belgium, the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Canada, Chile, Cuba, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Portugal, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, the United States, Uruguay and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.

²⁹ See <http://www.gov.sr/sr/ministerie-van-buza/counsulaire-aangelegenheden/toeristenkaart.aspx>.

The General Manager of the Suriname Business Development Center (SBC) expressed his concern that the law is violated when Tourist Cards are issued to persons who do not qualify as tourists. He also questioned the issuance of long-term admission visas to persons who entered on a tourist visa. The General Manager argued for more transparency and better control, particularly in the case of low-skilled migrants, in order to protect the Surinamese business community.³⁰

General visa: Tourists from countries that do not have an agreement with Suriname have to apply for a tourist visa at a Surinamese consulate. Citizens of countries without an embassy or a consulate in Suriname may apply for a visa by mail or e-mail at the nearest embassy or consulate in the region. Another possibility is to apply for a visa on arrival. For this type of application, a referent of the applicant needs to submit the application to the Consular Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Suriname.³¹

Short Stay Authorization: Visitors who are required to apply for a visa and who intend to exceed a three-month stay in Suriname are obliged to apply for a Short Stay Authorization (*Machtiging Kort Verblijf, MKV*). The Surinamese Government introduced the MKV in 2009 (Article 3, Aliens Act 1991; Article 12, Aliens Decree 1995). The application for an MKV needs to be submitted to a Surinamese consulate three months prior to departure for Suriname. Aliens of Surinamese origin are exempted from the MKV procedure.

When applying for an MKV, the applicant needs to indicate the purpose of visit, such as:

- family reunification (family in this context includes the father, mother, and dependent minor family members);
- internship or study;
- labour; and
- others, such as volunteering, medical treatment, long-term holiday.³²

As evidence of an approved MKV application, the applicant receives a Short Stay (*Kort Verblijf, KV*) visa – a type of entry visa – from the embassy or consulate of Suriname in the country of residency. Upon entry into Suriname, the alien must register at the Department of Alien Service within eight days. Subsequently, the alien needs to register at the desk (*loketdienst*) of Alien Affairs within 14 days for an application for a residency permit.

³⁰ Personal communication with Mr G. van Dijk, General Manager, SBC, 11 August 2014.

³¹ See <http://www.gov.sr/sr/ministerie-van-buza/counsulaire-aangelegenheden/visumdienst.aspx>.

³² See http://www.gov.sr/media/784875/webeditie_84_de_overheid_2013_maart_22_dwt_formaat.pdf.

Residency permit: When the residency permit is granted, it can be obtained from the Alien Affairs desk. The alien needs to register at the Department of Alien Service (*Vreemdelingendienst*) within two weeks after picking up the permit. At the Department of Alien Service, the permit is registered and stamped with a confirmation that it has been registered. Subsequently, the alien needs to register at the Office of Alien Registration within the Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs. Aliens of Surinamese origin are exempted from the residency permit application procedure.³³

3.3.2 Foreigners who do not need a visa

Persons who do not require a visa are:

- nationals of the 28 countries³⁴ with which Suriname has signed a visa waiver agreement, based on reciprocity;
- CARICOM nationals, who are allowed to move freely in Suriname for a period of six months, based on the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas; also CARICOM skilled nationals, who are allowed to reside in Suriname for labour purposes (S.B. 2006, No. 19);³⁵
- refugees, sailors and aircrew are exempted from visa requirements (Article 11 of the Visa Instruction, S.B. 1983, No. 68). Sailors need to register their boats with the Maritime Authority of Suriname, where the immigration service will stamp on their passports the permission to stay in Suriname waters for up to a month. In case the sailor wishes to stay longer than a month, he or she needs to apply for a visa at the Consular Department.

³³ See <http://www.gov.sr/sr/ministerie-van-juspol/diensten/hoofdafdeling-vreemdelingenzaken.aspx>.

³⁴ Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, the Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Brazil, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Hong Kong, China (only for holders of passports issued by the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region), Israel, Jamaica, Japan, Malaysia (30-day, visa-free tourism purposes), Montserrat, Netherlands Antilles, the Philippines, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Singapore, Trinidad and Tobago, and the Republic of Korea. Visa-free entry to Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica and Cuba is only applicable to holders of official and diplomatic passports. Visa-free entry to the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela is only for diplomatic passport holders.

³⁵ Haiti has not completed its implementation of the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas and is therefore not a full participant in the Single Market and Economy. Haiti is exempted from free movement; only holders of official diplomatic passports can move freely (personal communication with Mr Alexandre and Mr Frere, Consulate Staff of Haiti in Suriname, 18 November 2014).

Persons from the countries with which Suriname has a visa waiver agreement need to register with the Department of Alien Affairs. During their legal stay in Suriname, they are allowed to apply for a residence permit at the desk (*loketdienst*) of Alien Affairs.

CARICOM nationals who wish to stay for a period longer than six months need to submit an application for this purpose to the desk of Alien Affairs. Upon entry, CARICOM skilled nationals need to register at the Commission on Free Movement of Persons (*Vrij Verkeer Personen, VVP*) of the Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment. The Commission verifies the certificate of the “skilled person”. Afterwards, the individual needs to register at the Alien Affairs to obtain a permit for permanent stay. This allows the person to move freely in Suriname. This permit for permanent stay differs from the permit of permanent stay issued to aliens of Surinamese origin. Obtaining the permit for permanent stay does not make the CARICOM skilled national a resident of Suriname. If the CARICOM skilled national wants to settle permanently in Suriname, this person needs to apply for a permit at the Alien Affairs desk.

CARICOM citizens are exempted from paying admission and settlement expenses.³⁶

For a longer stay in Suriname, an application for permanent residency, stay for an undefined period or long stay needs to be submitted. Applications are categorized into the following:

- Aliens who have been in Suriname legally for five years;
- Aliens who are part of a family of an alien who already has a residence permit; and
- Aliens who are part of a family of a Surinamese national.

3.3.3 Return migrants and persons of Surinamese origin

Special legislation exists for aliens of Surinamese origin and persons with a PSA document. An alien of Surinamese origin is:

- a person born in Suriname who, at present, has a nationality other than Surinamese;

³⁶ See <http://www.gov.sr/sr/ministerie-van-buza/counsulaire-aangelegenheden/visumdienst.aspx>.

- a person who is included in Articles 2, 3 and 4 of the Law on Nationality and Residency (S.B. 1975, No. 171, as last amended by S.B. 2002, No. 22) and at present has a nationality other than Surinamese;
- a person who is born outside of Suriname to a parent or parents born in Suriname and with whom the person has or had a juridical family relationship, and at present has a nationality other than Surinamese; or
- the spouse or minor children who are part of the family of the alien described in 1, 2 and 3.³⁷

The Surinamese Government – through the January 2014 PSA Act – has been encouraging persons of Surinamese descent to contribute to the development of the country. A person with PSA status is defined in Section 3.2.3 (as stated in Article 2, PSA Act, S.B. 2014, No. 8). A person of Surinamese descent, when in possession of a PSA document, can make use of several privileges:

- No visa is required for the duration of five years of stay in Suriname after issue of the document.
- The person of Surinamese descent can stay for six months in Suriname, and this may be extended to another six months if the person can prove that he or she will be able to find and pay for his or her own housing.
- The person of Surinamese descent has the opportunity to register himself or herself as a resident within six months or apply for an extension of his or her permit within 12 months.
- The person of Surinamese descent may work even without a work permit.

There are different terms for the family members of persons of Surinamese descent.³⁸ Return migrants who wish to stay permanently in Suriname can make use of special arrangements with the Dutch Government on their social benefits.

³⁷ See <http://www.consulaatsuriname.nl/>.

³⁸ See <http://www.gov.sr/sr/ministerie-van-buza/counsulaire-aangelegenheden/personen-van-surinaamse-afkomst.aspx>.

Case 1. José and Maria: Struggling with legality

Brazilian José Oliveiro (47) and his wife Maria (53) came to Suriname in 1999. They were missionaries in Roraima, and had heard that Brazilian prisoners in Guyana and Suriname needed support from the church. Upon their arrival, the church helped them get settled, but apart from occasional donations they did not earn any money. In order to earn a living, Maria started to work as a cook in the gold mining areas. After falling ill with malaria a couple of times, however, she had to leave the gold mining fields. In the subsequent period, the couple performed a variety of loose-end jobs: Maria started to clean and look after the children of Brazilians who were working in the interior, and José drove a taxi both in the city and the gold mining fields, and also worked as a part-time goldminer.

Meanwhile, work in the prison of Santa Boma had gotten started, and through the church the couple collected food for prisoners, particularly those without families in Suriname. They worked together with a Surinamese pastor, who also helped them with their residency papers. Both Maria and José had legal residency for three years in a row, but the next year Maria's passport expired. Because she had not been to Brazil to vote in the election, which is obligatory, she could not renew her passport at the Brazilian Embassy in Suriname and she did not know what to do to fix this. Hence, her residency permit expired and for the next three years she stayed illegally in Suriname. Only then she found out that her sister could pay a fine in Brazil, and she obtained a new passport. In 2010, the couple, staying in Suriname illegally, took advantage of the general pardon to register. After signing up for the process, they had to arrange their documents and pay the submission fee of USD 150 per person. Maria had just found a new job as a domestic help, and she asked her employer for an advance on her salary so she could register for admission. That very day, however, her husband was fined for driving without proper documentation, and she had to use her money to pay the fine. This happened twice and the money that she had hoped to use for her admission application was gone.

The couple started saving up money again, but by the time that they were ready to submit their applications their health insurance had expired. In order for the files to be complete, they needed to renew the insurance, but this would cost a lot of money because of Maria's increasing health problems. They did not have money.

Finally, in 2014, Maria and José were able to re-enter the legal admission process through – ironically – illegal means. Instead of buying health insurance for both of them, they paid USD 600 to a Suriname middleman who made arrangements so that their files could enter the admission process as “complete”. They would have liked to immediately file for permanent residency, but this would have cost USD 1,000. They are now waiting for the ministerial ordinance and highly desired stamps on their passports to show that they are legal residents of Suriname.

4. MIGRATION TRENDS AND CHARACTERISTICS IN THE PAST DECADE: MIGRATION TO SURINAME

4.1 The migrant stock

Suriname's eighth national census³⁹ (2012) counted 35,040 residents of Surinamese origin, or 6.5 per cent of the total population, who were born abroad. The census also counted between 33,053 and 36,39340 persons with foreign nationalities.

The UN DESA Population Division provides figures on the international migrants living in Suriname in 2010 and 2013 (Table 5). In 2013, a total of 41,670 migrants were living in Suriname. These migrants were either foreign-born or foreign citizens. This figure represents 7.7 per cent of the national population.

Table 5. Migrant stock in Suriname (registered migrants only) by gender, 2010 and 2013

	2010	2013
Total	39,474	41,670
Male	21,561	22,785
Female	17,913	18,885

Source: UN DESA Population Division, Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2013 Revision.

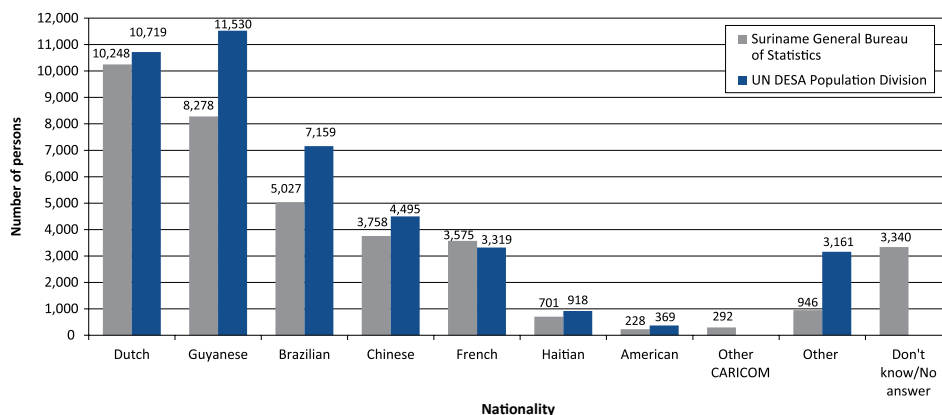
The difference between the General Bureau of Statistics and the UN DESA figures may be explained by the fact that the UN data include both foreign-born migrants and foreign citizens. The General Bureau of Statistics, by contrast, counted foreign-born and foreign citizens separately.

The largest group of registered foreign nationals in Suriname may be persons with Dutch nationality (ABS, 2013a), though according to the UN data Guyanese (born in Guyana or Guyanese citizens) are the largest migrant group. After Guyanese and Dutch, the next largest groups of foreign migrants in Suriname are Brazilians, Chinese and French (Figure 7).

³⁹ The national census only counted persons who were in Suriname for more than six months, or who had the intention to stay for more than six months, on the census night. Mobile populations such as goldminers, who move around between mining areas, were counted on the location where they were encountered (personal communication with Ms U. Groenfelt, Manager, Census Office, General Bureau of Statistics, 7 August 2014).

⁴⁰ The difference of 3,340 persons includes those who said they did not know what their nationalities were (Surinamese or other) or persons whose nationalities were not recorded.

Figure 7. Migrant stock in Suriname, according to data from the Suriname General Bureau of Statistics and UN DESA Population Division



Note that the UN DESA and the General Bureau of Statistics data only count registered migrants. Irregular migrants, which account for a significant share of the migrant stock in Suriname, are not included. True numbers of migrants living in Suriname are likely much higher. The Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname estimates that about 40,000 first-generation Guyanese may be living in Suriname, which is about four times as many as the registered number of migrants.⁴¹ In 2001, the Brazilian Foreign Ministry estimated that there were over 20,000 Brazilians living in Suriname (Government of Brazil, Foreign Ministry, 2001) and more recent sources provide similar or even higher numbers (De Theije and Heemskerk, 2009; Oliviera and Kanai, 2011). Hence, also the true number of Brazilian migrants in Suriname may be several times the official figures. Irregular migration is discussed in detail in Section 4.7.

4.2 Recent arrivals in Suriname

Data concerning legal arrivals of persons into Suriname and concerning migration are collected by various organizations such as the General Bureau of Statistics (Traffic and Transport Statistics),⁴² the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Border Management System), the Ministry of Home Affairs (Suriname Civil Registry), and the Ministry of Justice and Police (Department of Alien Registration and Department of Alien Service). Not all relevant variables are clearly defined in

⁴¹ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

⁴² Complete data on the total number of non-resident arrivals via all ports by country/region of residence (ABS, 2013) are provided in Annex IV.

various data systems and hence the data from different institutions cannot easily be compared. Furthermore, many migrants do not appear in national statistics.

Foreign nationals who wish to enter Suriname broadly fall into three categories (see Chapter 3):

- Foreign nationals who require a visa (*visumplichtigen*);
- Foreign nationals who may enter the country without a visa and stay for a limited period, including citizens of CARICOM Member States and citizens of selected other countries that have a visa waiver arrangement with Suriname;
- Persons of Surinamese descent (those with PSA status) who have requested and obtained this status (see Section 4.3).

Persons who need a visa and plan to come to Suriname for a short period of time (less than three months) can apply for a tourist visa at the border or the airport. Those who plan to stay for more than three months need to apply for a Short Stay Authorization (*Machtiging tot Kort Verblijf, MKV*) at the embassy or consulate in the country of origin, three months prior to departure to Suriname.⁴³

The Surinamese Government introduced the MKV in 2009, but data about the number of MKV applications are only available for 2014 because data were not entered digitally in preceding years.⁴⁴ In the period of January–July 2014, a total of 918 foreign nationals applied for an MKV; of these applicants, the majority planned to stay between 4 and 12 months. Five persons applied for an MKV for a stay of less than three months, which is surprising because an MKV is only necessary for a stay longer than three months (Table 6).

Table 6. MKV applications by length of stay, January–July 2014

	Less than 3 months	3–6 months	7–12 months	13–18 months	19–24 months	More than 24 months	Undetermined period	Missing
Number of applications	5	446	362	7	43	5	12	38

Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

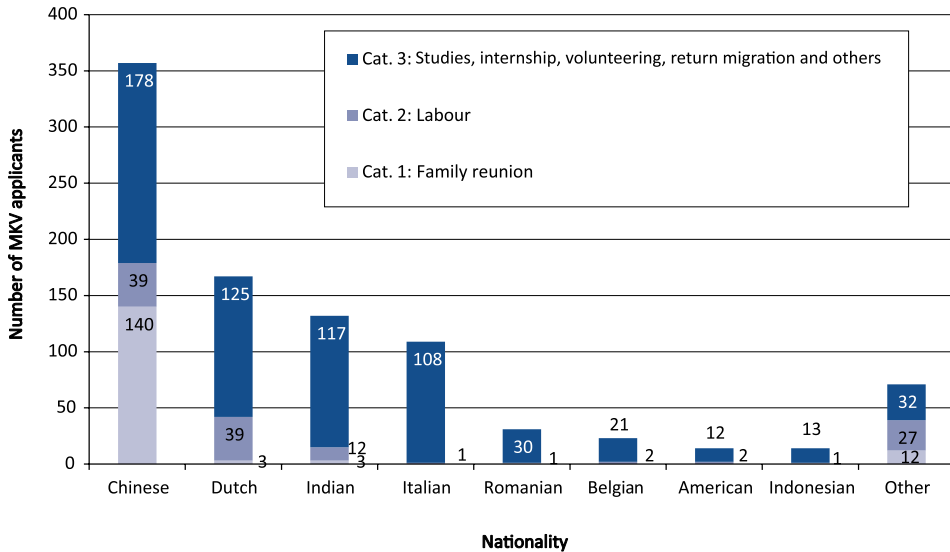
In the first half of 2014, most MKV applications were done by Chinese nationals, followed by citizens from the Netherlands, India and Italy. Three quarters of applicants (76.1%; 699 persons) were male, 217 applicants were

⁴³ Article 3, Alien Act 1991 j.o. Article 12 Aliens Decree 1995.

⁴⁴ During the validation meeting, a representative from the SBF indicated that MKV data for 2009–2011 are available at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, but the consultant has not received these data.

female; the sex of each of the remaining applicants was not recorded. MKV applications were typically submitted for one adult applicant (95.2% of cases), but in a few cases the applications involved a child or children (3.9%), a family (adult and child/children; 0.4%), or an applicant and his or her spouse (0.4%). More than two thirds of MKV applications were done for studies, internship, volunteering, return migration and other reasons (Figure 8).

Figure 8. MKV applications by nationality, January–July 2014



Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

Note: Complete data with all nationalities are provided in Annex I.

In Figure 8, category 3 (studies, internship, volunteering, return migration and others) also includes persons who have been approved to enter Suriname through a shortened (*verkorte*) procedure.⁴⁵ The paperwork for these foreigners is processed faster, so that they do not have to wait long in their home countries before they enter Suriname. This procedure has been applied, among others, to foreign engineers and other technical experts who have come to Suriname to work for the state-owned oil company Staatsolie Maatschappij N.V. Foreigners entering through the shortened procedure probably account for the largest share of foreigners in category 3, and include all Italians and Romanians and most Indians.

⁴⁵ Personal communication with Ms Jangroep, juridical staff, Department of Alien Affairs, 4 December 2014.

Foreigners from countries that have a visa waiver arrangement with Suriname, nationals of CARICOM Member States and persons of Surinamese origin⁴⁶ are exempted from the MKV procedure. For this reason, the MKV data do not show the total number of foreign nationals who plan to stay in Suriname for longer than three months.

Persons who wish to extend their MKV or persons who are exempted from the MKV procedure can apply for a longer stay in Suriname. These applications are also registered with the Department of Alien Affairs (*Vreemdelingenzaken*) and may include applications for permanent residency (*vestiging*) and citizenship (*naturalisatie*). The Department of Alien Affairs digitized its system in 2010, and for this reason data for previous years are not available.⁴⁷ Also, because the Department has been improving its data registry system in the past years, data for 2010–2011 are incomplete and could not be analysed.

Table 7 lists the total number of stay permit applications between 2012 and 2014 (up to July), and the total number of persons that were included in these applications.⁴⁸ These numbers include both new applications and renewals, and as such the same person may be counted in different years.

Table 7. Stay permit applications, 2012, 2013 and 2014 (up to July)

	2012	2013	2014 (up to July)
Number of applications	8,024	9,891	5,075
Total number of persons listed	9,929	12,091	6,598

Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

Note: All applications in which the nationalities of applicants had been indicated were counted. Applications in which only codes had been registered and which did not have any other information were excluded.

With regard to gender, of the 9,819 applications filed in 2013, 5,802 were filed by male migrants and 4,061 by female main applicants. This does not mean though that more men than women entered the country, because applicants can

⁴⁶ For this regulation, persons of Surinamese origin include: (a) persons born in Suriname who currently have a nationality other than Surinamese; (b) persons who are subject to Articles 2, 3 and 4 of the Law on Nationality and Residency (G.B. 1975, no. 171, as last amended by S.B. 2002, no. 22) and presently have a nationality other than Surinamese; and (c) foreign-born persons who do not have Surinamese nationality, with at least one parent born in Suriname and with whose parent(s) the persons have or have had a legally established family relation; and (d) the spouse and minor children that belong to the family of the migrants named under a, b and c.

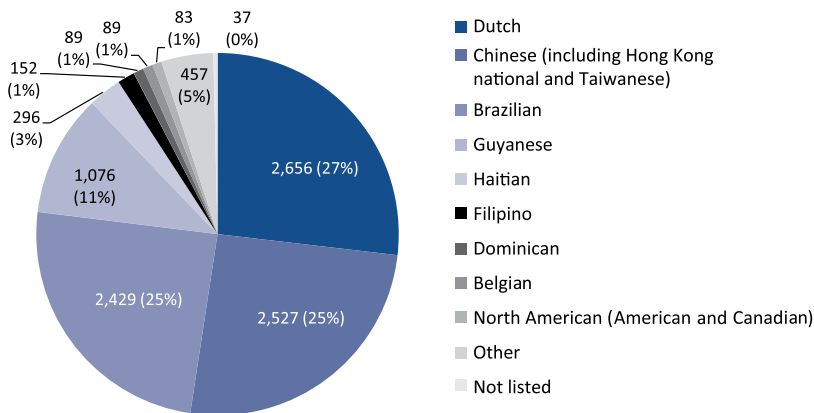
⁴⁷ Personal communication with Ms I. Kindooi, Deputy Director, Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

⁴⁸ Family members such as spouses and minor children that apply at the same time file a combined application for multiple persons.

apply on behalf of their families. The data do not allow for establishing the true gender balance based on the number of persons involved.

Among applicants for a stay permit, Dutch, Chinese and Brazilians account for about a quarter of the total. They are followed in number by Guyanese (10.9% of applications), Haitians (3.0%) and Filipinos (1.5%) (Figure 9).

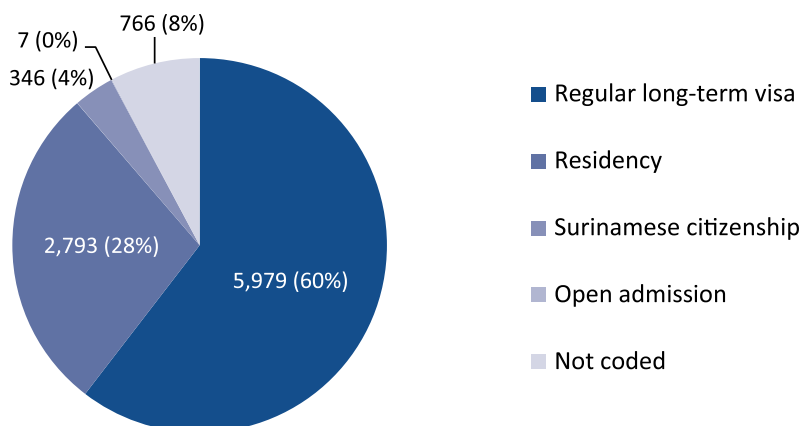
Figure 9. Long-term visa applications by nationality of the main applicant, 2013



Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

Applications are registered by category. A distinction is made between long-term stay (typically one or two years), residency or Surinamese citizenship (*naturalisatie*) (Figure 10), and applications within these categories can either be a first application or an extension. In addition, Dutch citizens, Dutch citizens of Surinamese origin, Dutch citizens of Surinamese origin who are return migrants, other persons of Surinamese origin, and other aliens are grouped under different codes.

Figure 10. Number of visa applications by main stay permit category, 2013



Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

The data from the Department of Alien Affairs of the Ministry of Justice and Police show that in 2013, most applications for a long-stay visa were for regular long-term admission (which includes the TO, VTO, TN, TNSO, VTNSO and VTNO types of visa). Regular long-term admission visa applications accounted for 60 per cent (5,979 applications) of the total number of applications.

Within this larger category, we distinguish three main groups:

- Foreign citizens – neither of Surinamese origin nor Dutch citizens – who applied for long-term admission (TO; typically for one or two years) or the renewal thereof (VTO). Most applicants for these types of visa were Brazilians, followed by Chinese. (Total applications: 4,730)
- Dutch citizens who applied for general long-term admission (TN) or the renewal thereof (VTN). (Total applications: 550)
- Foreign nationals of Surinamese origin, including Dutch citizens of Surinamese origin applying for long-term admission (TNSO) or the renewal thereof (VTNSO); Dutch citizens of Surinamese origin applying for long-term admission who are return migrants (TNSOR) and other aliens of Surinamese origin (TVSO). (Total applications: 699)

The next largest category of visa application is for permanent residency, for persons of Surinamese origin (VESTSO; 1,361 applications) and other aliens (VESTO; 1,432 applications), with a total of 2,793 applications in 2013 (accounting for 28% of total number of stay permit applications). Most migrants

of Surinamese origin applying for permanent residency had Dutch nationality, and most other foreigners who applied for this visa were Chinese (Figure 12).

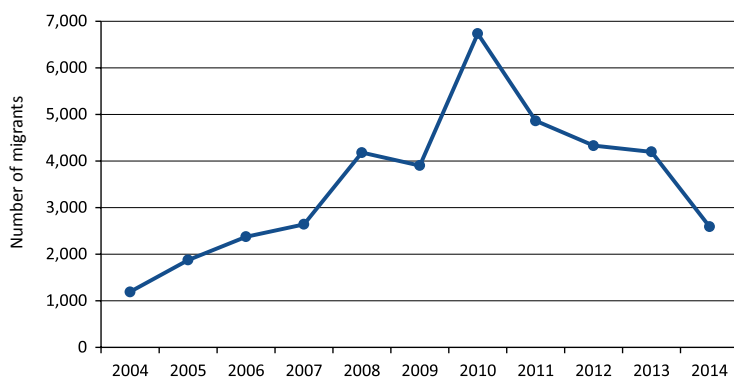
The last main category of visa application is for obtaining Surinamese nationality. Applicants of this visa type are either persons of Surinamese origin (NATSO; 133 applications) or other aliens (NATO; 213 applications), most of whom were Guyanese.

In 2013, a total of 2,193 applicants for long-term admission were persons of Surinamese origin. Most of these persons (86.5%) had Dutch nationality, again reinforcing the strong historic connection between Suriname and the Netherlands. Since 2014, these persons have been making use of the facilitating admission and labour conditions for foreign nationals of Surinamese origin or the so-called persons of Surinamese descent, who are holding the PSA status. Persons of Surinamese descent and the PSA Act are discussed in the next section.

After obtaining a long-term admission visa, aliens have to register at the Suriname Civil Registry. Figure 11 shows the number of newly registered foreign nationals who legally migrated to Suriname between 2004 and 2014, according to the Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs data. The data suggest that the number of newly registered migrants has decreased in the past three years.

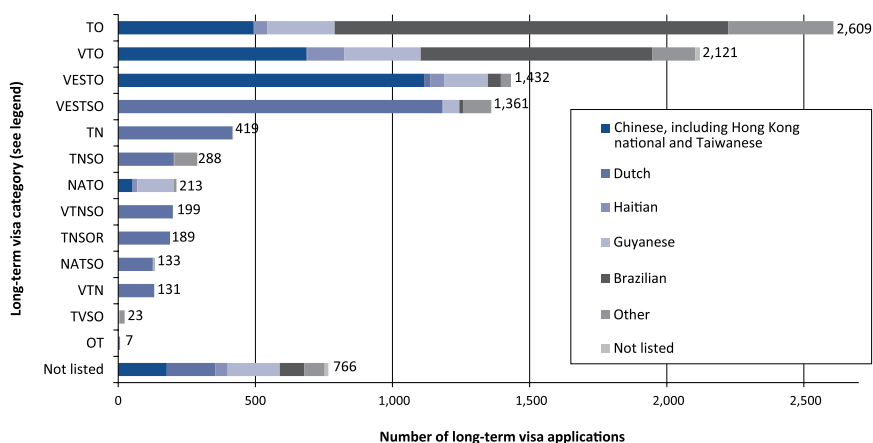
The peak of new registries in 2010 can be explained by the general pardon for irregular migrants in 2010, which enabled migrants who were living in Suriname without proper documentation to become legal residents. We expect that the number of registered migrants will again increase in 2014 because of the second general pardon in the said year.

Figure 11. Number of migrants registered at the Suriname Civil Registry, 2004–2014



Source: Suriname Civil Registry.

Figure 12. Number of stay permit applications by visa category and nationality, 2013



Legend:

TO = Admission of other aliens	VTNSO = Extension of admission of Dutch nationals of Surinamese origin
VTO = Extension of admission of other aliens	TNSOR = Admission of Dutch nationals of Surinamese origin who are return migrants
VESTO = Residency of other aliens	NATSO = Surinamese citizenship of foreign nationals of Surinamese origin
VESTSO = Residency of foreign nationals of Surinamese origin	VTN = Extension of admission of Dutch nationals
TN = Admission of Dutch nationals	TVSO = Admission for stay of foreign nationals of Surinamese origin
TNSO = Admission of Dutch nationals of Surinamese origin	OT = Open entry
NATO = Surinamese citizenship of other aliens	

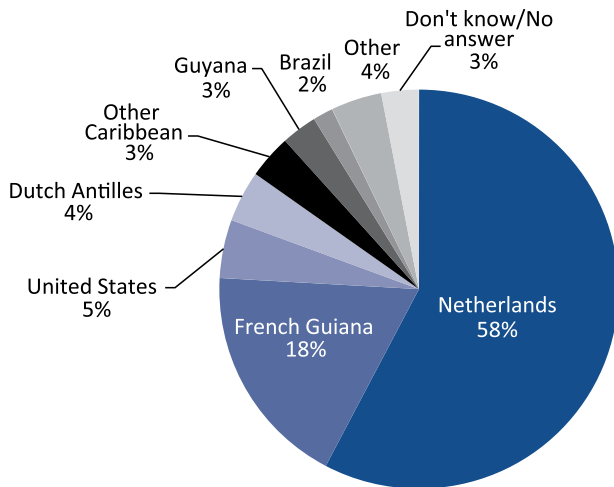
Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

4.3 Return migrants and persons of Surinamese descent

Data from the eighth national census (2012) indicate that 18,287 Suriname-born currently residing in Suriname, which represent 3.7 per cent of the total population, have lived abroad for at least six months. These persons account for the largest share of return migrants, and also represent the largest share of Surinamese who live in two countries. Of these persons, 52.8 per cent (9,664 persons) are male.

Netherlands is the country in which the highest number of Suriname-born return migrants have lived (10,553 persons), followed by French Guiana (3,326 persons), the United States (861 persons) and the former Netherlands Antilles (762 persons) (Figure 13).

Figure 13. Shares of return migrants by country where they have lived



Source: General Bureau of Statistics, *Resultaten Achtste (8e) Volks- en Woningtelling in Suriname* (Volume I), 2013.

When asked for the reason for returning, almost one third of the Suriname-born persons who had lived abroad reported “Suriname is the home country” (31.2%) as the main factor (ABS, 2013a). Other important reasons for returning to Suriname after living abroad were family reunion (11.3%), completion of studies (10.7%) and homesickness (7.0%) (as in case 2). The reasons for returning to Suriname have shifted somewhat over the years (Figure 14). Even though the fact that Suriname is the home country has remained the number one reason for return in the past decades, this reason has become relatively less important after the 1975–1984 period.

Whereas completion of studies used to be an important reason for returning prior to 1975, this motive became relatively less important in later years. This trend may indicate that fewer Surinamese went to study abroad, or that a larger share of those who studied abroad stayed in the host country after completion of their studies, for example, to gain work experience or because they settled down. On the other hand, family reunion and, to a lesser extent, retirement have increased in relative importance (Figure 14).

Case 2. Denise and Robert: Returning to Suriname for family

At the age of 18, upon completion of high school, Denise left Suriname to study in the Netherlands. She had lived in the Netherlands for some years as a child because her Surinamese parents had also studied and lived in the Netherlands. She recalled that in fact she was not even asked if she wanted to go; it was self-evident that she would leave and study abroad. As she had a Dutch passport and family in the Netherlands, the Netherlands was a logical choice.

In the Netherlands, she met her now-husband Robert, also of Surinamese origin. After completion of high school, Robert worked for some years in Suriname and then left to study in the Netherlands. Denise obtained her master's degree in psychology, but she did not want to immediately return to Suriname. Instead, she wanted to gain work experience in the Netherlands, where she felt she could get better professional guidance. Also, her husband gained professional experience in the Netherlands, though he was ready to return to Suriname and was waiting for her to give the go ahead.

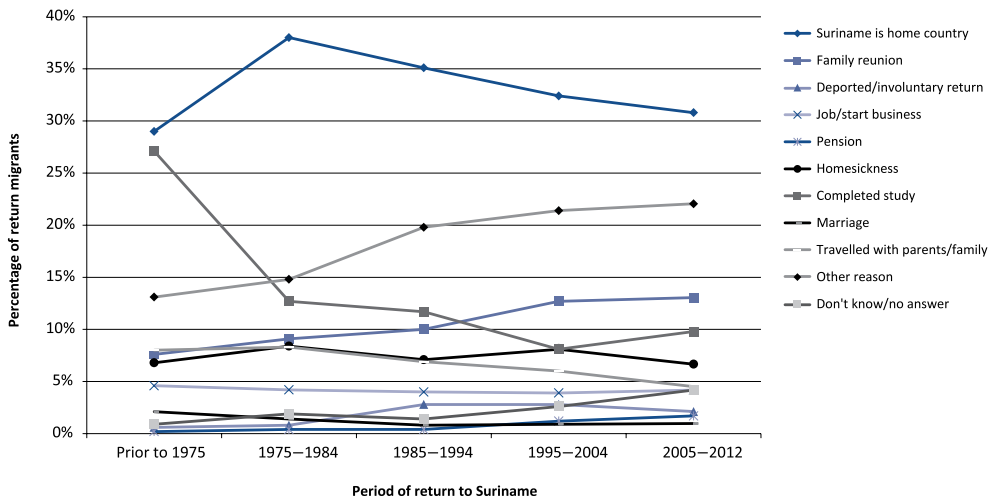
It was never a question whether the couple would return to Suriname; only when. The main motive was family. The parents of both Denise and Robert were living in Suriname, and particularly now that they were getting older, the couple wanted to be closer to them. They wanted to be able to help out when needed, and they wanted their children to interact with their grandparents while they were still in good health. The climate and letting the children grow up outside the Netherlands were secondary considerations. When reorganization at the firm where Robert worked was making his job in the Netherlands more vulnerable, they decided that it was time to go. That was two and a half years ago, after Denise had lived, studied and worked for 17 years in the Netherlands.

Denise and her family did not use the Dutch arrangement for return migrants, because it would imply handing in their Dutch passports, which they did not want to do. They did not know how it would be to return and whether they would be able to find a job; they wanted to keep their options open. In addition, Denise had health problems and if necessary, she wanted to be able to rely on the Dutch health-care system.

Denise's family had little problems with the residency procedures and their adaptation. It did not take long before her husband was hired at a telecommunications firm, and Denise started working as a psychologist in a joint-venture clinic. Their main concerns with regard to living in Suriname were health and educational systems. In terms of education, Denise was less concerned about the teaching level but more about the ways that teachers approached children: "How I have experienced [education], I did not want for the children." In practice, this has worked out fine.

Living in the Netherlands is not an option anymore, unless their situation in Suriname would change dramatically, for example if they would develop a need for specialized medical care or move into a poor financial situation. Even though Denise would love to keep her children with her, she will support their studies abroad if they want to, if their educational opportunities are better elsewhere and if the family can afford it. After all, it would be good for their personal development; there is a world outside they need to explore.

Figure 14. Shares of return migrants in Suriname by main reason and period of return



Source: General Bureau of Statistics, *Resultaten Achtste (8e) Volks- en Woningtelling in Suriname* (Volume I), 2013.

In 1983, the Suriname Migration Institute carried out a study among 84 return migrants who had lived in the Netherlands and returned to Suriname less than two years prior to the study. This study found that the main reasons for migration from Suriname to the Netherlands had been studies, the poor socioeconomic situation in Suriname and family reunion. The reasons for returning were compared with those measured thirty years later in the national census, and included in order of importance: “homesickness for Suriname”, “to help build Suriname”, “unemployment in the Netherlands”, “family circumstances” and “completion of the study” (Migratie Instituut, 1983).

Starting from August 2014, the Government of Suriname made it possible for foreign citizens of Surinamese descent to request and obtain the official PSA status. The PSA status applies to persons who were either born in Suriname or whose at least one parent or grandparent was Suriname-born. (The exact legal definition is explained in Chapter 3.) Acquisition of the PSA status is voluntary, and application for this status is required. The consultant was unable to obtain data about the number of persons who applied for the PSA status from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

4.4 Labour migration

4.4.1 General facts and figures on labour migration

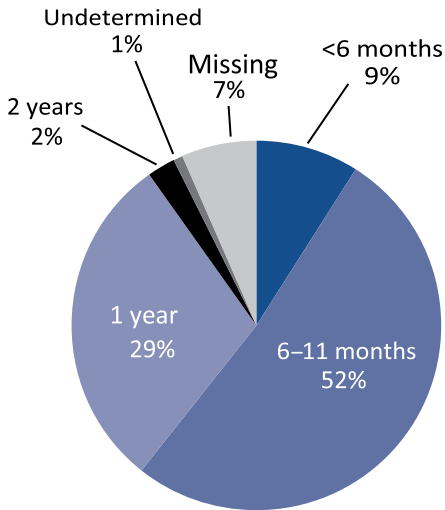
Even though data from the Department of Alien Affairs show otherwise (Figure 8), all other indicators suggest that most migrants who come to Suriname do so for economic reasons. Three groups can be distinguished:

- Migrants who are legally in the country and start their own business – they need to register with the Chamber of Commerce;
- Migrants who are legally in the country and work for employers – the employers need to apply for work permits granted by the Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment;
- Irregular migrants who are looking for a job in the informal sector, such as the gold mining business, the sex industry, construction and so forth – this category also includes persons who are informally employed in the formal sector.

In 2014 up to July, 122 persons who applied for a Short Stay Authorization (or an MKV) listed “labour” as the purpose of their travel to Suriname. Most applications were submitted for a period of 6–11 months (45 applications) and 12 months (36 applications) (Figure 15). Most MKV applicants for labour originated from Europe (in particular, the Netherlands) and China (Figure 16). Recent labour migrants from India are typically high-skilled engineers and IT professionals.⁴⁹

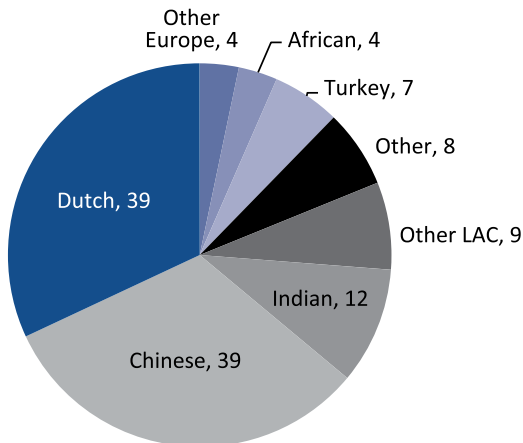
⁴⁹ Personal communication with Her Excellency Ms Subashini, Ambassador of India to Suriname, 8 October 2014.

Figure 15. MKV applications for labour purposes by planned length of stay



Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

Figure 16. Number of MKV applicants for labour by country/region of origin



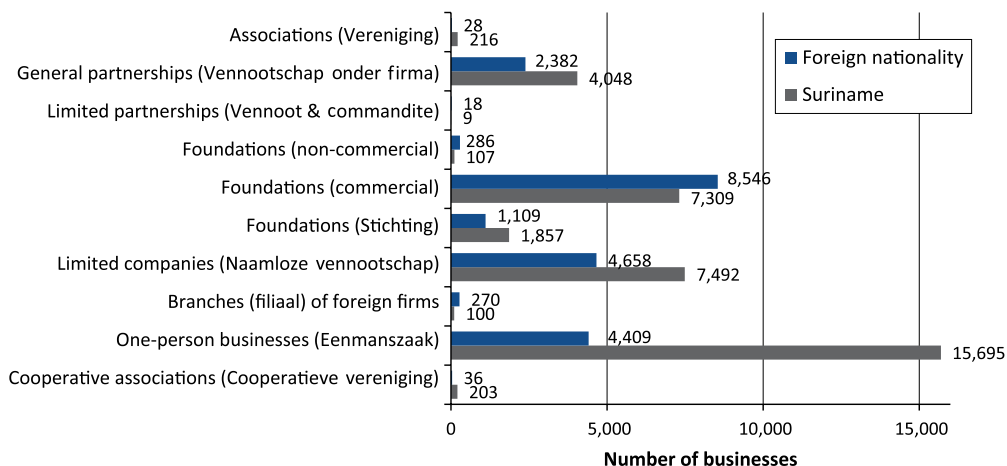
Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

4.4.2 Migrants with independent trades or businesses

The Suriname Chamber of Commerce registers firms and associations that have been legally established in Suriname. Its figures show that in 2014, a significant number of Suriname firms, foundations and associations were owned by persons with a nationality other than Surinamese (Figure 17). In this year,

8,546 commercial foundations, 7,058 limited companies and partnerships, and 4,409 one-person businesses were in the hands of foreign nationals.

Figure 17. Number of registered firms, associations and foundations by nationality (Surinamese or foreign) of the owner



Source: Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2014.

The largest number of foreign firms was registered as retail market (*detailhandel*; 3,332 firms). The next largest economic sectors where foreign-owned firms are active are industry (1,027 firms), hospitality (930 firms) and finance (460 financial institutions).

4.4.3 Labour migrants with work permits

A work permit is a written authorization issued by the Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment, which is requested by an employer who wants to hire an employee who does not have Surinamese nationality.

In the past decade, individuals from 89 different countries were granted work permits by the Ministry. Table 8 shows the number of granted work permits per region. Data in the table give an impression of the diversity in the registered labour migrant population in Suriname.

Table 8. Nationalities of labour migrants who were granted work permits between 2004 and 2013

Region	Total number of granted permits from 2004 to 2013	Nationalities of work permit applicants
Africa	99	Algerian, Cameroonian, Ghanaian, Kenyan, Malian, Mauritanian, Moroccan, Namibian, Nigerian, South African, Tanzanian, Zambian, Zimbabwean
Asia	3,792	Belarusian, Bengali region, Chinese, Filipino, Indian, Indonesian, Japanese, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, Korean, Malaysian, Pakistani, Russian, Sri Lankan, Taiwanese, Thai, Vietnamese
Australia and the Pacific	34	Australian, New Zealander
Europe	1,532	Belgian, British, Bulgarian, Danish, German, Finnish, French, Greek, Irish, Italian, Croatian, Macedonian, Moldavian, Montenegrin, Dutch, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Spanish, Swedish, Ukrainian
Latin America and the Caribbean	2,973	Argentine, Aruban, Barbadian, Belizean, Brazilian, Chilean, Colombian, Cuban, Dominican, Grenadian, Guyanese, Haitian, Jamaican, Mexican, Nicaraguan, Panamanian, Peruvian, Salvadorian, Saint Lucian, of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, of Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguayan, Venezuelan
Middle East	249	Afghan, Azerbaijani, Egyptian, Jordanian, Lebanese, Palestinian, Tajik, Turkish
North America	349	American, Canadian

Source: Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment, Department for Work Permits for Aliens (*Afdeling Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen*), Labour Market Subdirectorate.

Note: Data as of 18 July 2014.

Table 8 shows that from 2004 to 2013, a number of Caribbean nationals applied for a work permit in Suriname. At present, the free movement of skills in the CSME applies to the following categories of persons:

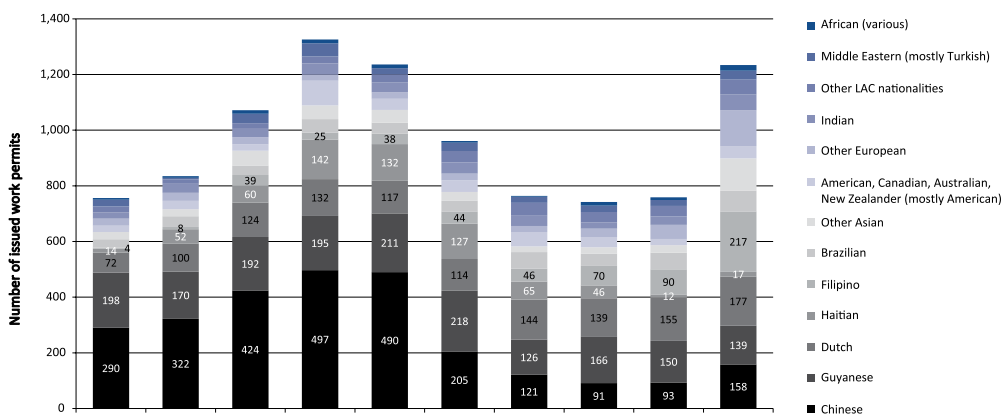
- Graduates: persons who have obtained at least a bachelor's degree from a recognized university;
- Media persons: persons whose primary source of income is drawn from media and media-related work or persons who are qualified to enter this field;
- Artists: persons who are active in or qualified to enter a particular field of art with the specific purpose of earning a living;
- Musicians: persons who are active in or qualified to enter a particular field of music with the specific purpose of earning a living;
- Sports persons: persons who are active in or qualified to enter a particular field of sports with the specific purpose of earning a living as a professional or semi-professional.

Caribbean work permit applicants in Suriname most likely were not classified into one of these categories.

In the past decade (2004–2013), the total number of issued work permits fluctuated from 1,326 in 2007 to 742 in 2011. Further analysis of the labour migrants of different nationalities shows that in most years of the past decade, the largest group of labour migrants who obtained a work permit consisted of Chinese nationals (Figure 18). The second largest group in most years, and the largest group of work permit recipients in 2009 and 2011, consisted of Guyanese. Within this group of migrants, it is interesting to note that of the 1,076 approved long-term visa applications in 2013, only 139 Guyanese requested a work permit.

The third largest group consisted of Dutch labour migrants, who actually represented the largest group of work permit recipients in 2012. Other nationality groups of labour migrants were significantly lower.

Figure 18. Number of issued work permits by nationality, 2004–2013



Source: Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment, Department for Work Permits for Aliens (*Afdeling Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen*), Labour Market Subdirectorate.

Note: Data as of 18 July 2014.

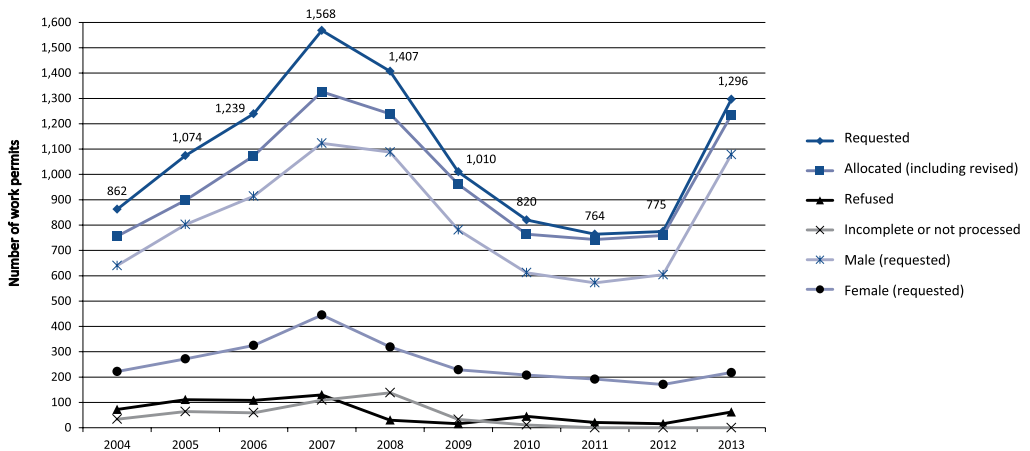
Data from 2013 show two deviations from this trend. Firstly, in this year Filipinos represented the largest group of registered labour migrants. This figure can be explained by the opening of the first aid section at St. Vincentius Hospital in the same year, which is largely operated by Filipino medical specialists.

Correspondingly, in 2013, it was found that a relatively large number of work permits were given to Europeans other than Dutch. The largest subgroup within this group consisted of Italians (43 individuals). Their elevated presence

in the registered labour pool in 2013 may be explained by the temporary hiring of Italian engineers by Staatsolie Maatschappij N.V. All Italian work permit applicants were male.

When the number of applications and the number of allocated work permits in the past decade are compared, the data suggest that numbers are increasingly converging (Figure 19). This observation is in line with the decrease in the number of refusals and incomplete or unprocessed work permit requests. For all years, more men than women applied for and received work permits. On average, in the past decade, the number of female work permit recipients has been just one quarter (24.0%) of the total number of issued work permits (Figures 19 and 21).

Figure 19. Requested, allocated and refused work permits by gender, 2004–2013

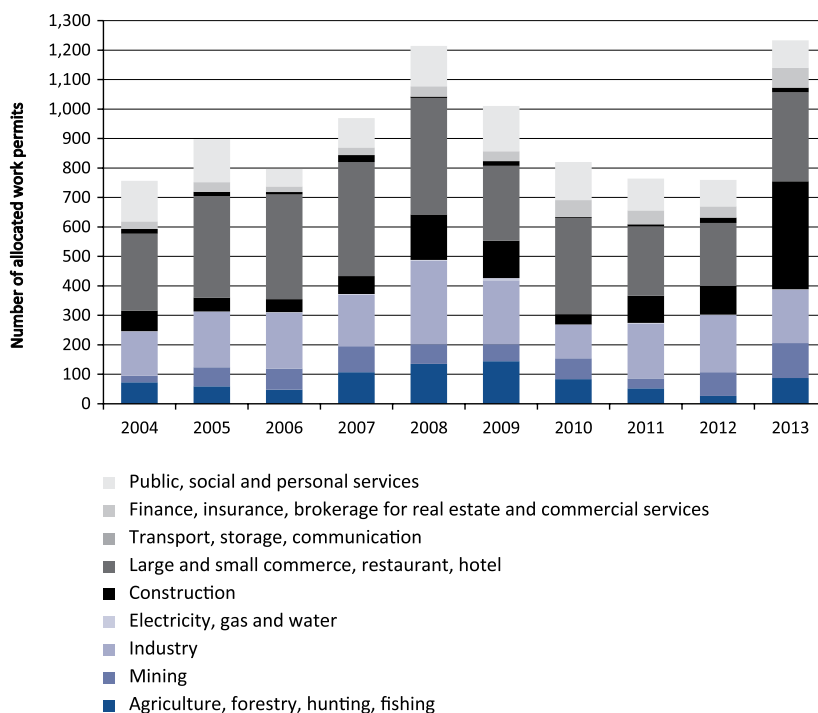


Source: Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment Department for Work Permits for Aliens (*Afdeling Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen*), Labour Market Subdirectorate.

Note: Data as of 18 July 2014.

In all years but 2013, the largest share of work permits was issued for jobs in large and small commerce, restaurants and hotels (Figure 20). In 2013, relatively more individuals received work permits for construction-related jobs. Another sector where many aliens found (registered) employment was industry. Few foreign nationals received work permits to work in electricity, gas and water; transport, storage and communication; finance, insurance, real estate brokerage and commercial services; and mining.

Figure 20. Number of allocated work permits by economic sector, 2004–2013



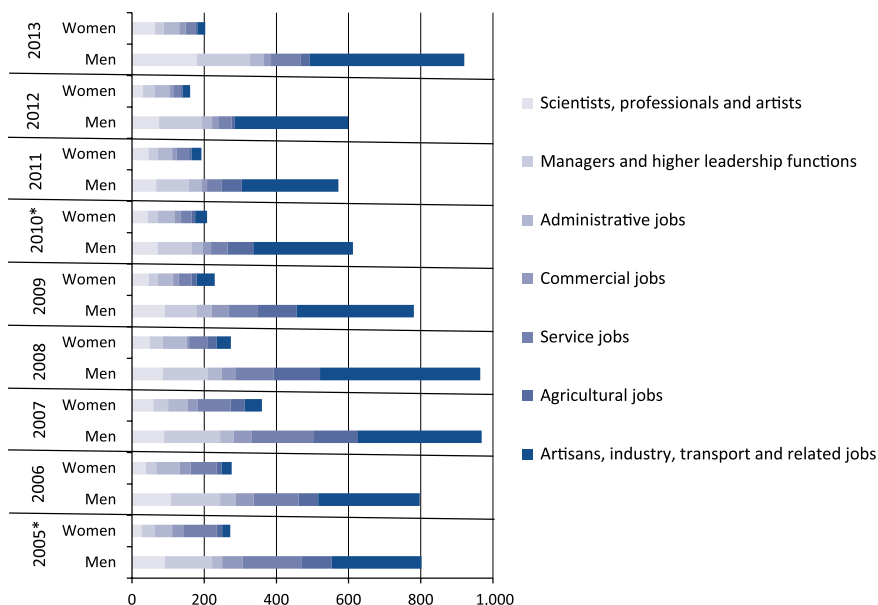
Source: Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment, Department for Work Permits for Aliens (*Afdeling Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen*), Labour Market Subdirectorate.

Note: Data as of 18 July 2014.

Migrant workers who received work permits from the Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment in the past decade possessed a variety of skills (Figure 21). The largest group of male workers who received work permits consisted of artisans, industrial workers and transport service providers. The number of migrant men who sought work permits for service or agricultural jobs has decreased slightly through the years. This decrease occurred in spite of the considerable need for foreign agricultural labour.⁵⁰ Among women, there was not one professional field that obviously dominated. Nevertheless, a slight shift is noticeable through the years, where in more recent years relatively more migrant female scientists, professionals and artists have received work permits, while the number of work permits issued to women in the services sector has decreased.

⁵⁰ Personal communication with Mr Breinburg, Permanent Secretary of Agriculture, at the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries, 5 September 2014.

Figure 21. Allocated work permits by profession and gender, 2005–2013



Source: Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment, Department for Work Permits for Aliens (*Afdeling Werkvergunning Vreemdelingen*), Labour Market Subdirectorate.

Notes: Data as of 18 July 2014.

*Includes only data for requested work permits rather than allocated work permits.

The Suriname Business Forum (SBF) voiced concern about the large number of foreign labourers who enter Suriname, and wonders whether these people are needed. The SBF calls for a needs assessment for the business sector and other economic sectors, to find out whether the local labour market fulfils existing labour needs. If the local workforce is able to fill the existing labour needs, foreign labourers should not be invited. In addition, the SBF asserts that the business sector must assess existing levels of education and training of Surinamese labourers, in the context of working towards a reduction of the unemployment rate.

4.4.4 Migrants in the informal sector

Labour migrants work not only in the formal sector but also in the informal sector. Due to the undocumented nature of informal labour, data pertaining to this sector are at best informed estimates. Data on issued stay permits and work permits do not provide much insight into this matter. For example, 2,429 Brazilians received stay permits in 2013. Only 75 Brazilians received work permits in the same year. It cannot be concluded, however, that the remaining 2,354 Brazilians

were working informally, because some of them may have been independent entrepreneurs (registered at the Chamber of Commerce and Industry) and others may have been economically inactive, such as children and stay-at-home mothers. Moreover, there were persons who had neither a stay permit nor a work permit, and hence they cannot be counted at all. Nevertheless, available studies and informed estimates suggest that the largest migrant groups in the informal sector are Brazilians, Guyanese and Chinese.

Brazilians started arriving in Suriname in larger numbers in the early 1990s. They primarily came to work in the small-scale gold mining business (De Theije and Heemskerk, 2009). Following in the footsteps of these *garimpeiros* are other Brazilians such as shop and bar owners, operators of gold-buying houses and sex workers who enter Suriname hoping to financially benefit from the booming small-scale mining industry.⁵¹ At present, the small-scale gold mining sector (gold miners and service sector) is likely to be the largest informal business sector in Suriname. Brazilian women and men migrants living in small-scale gold mining areas are often low educated. A recent study showed that more than one third had not completed primary school (Heemskerk and Duijves, 2013).

Because Brazilians can enter Suriname without a visa, most Brazilian labour migrants enter Suriname at the JAP International Airport. Others cross the borders coming from French Guiana or Guyana, either through the official border post or in an irregular manner.

Guyanese migrants started entering Suriname in larger numbers in the 1970s and the 1980s. Nowadays, Guyanese can be found in all economic sectors. They dominate the artisanal fisheries sector (men), and can also be found in construction, the police force, transportation (e.g. taxi, bus), domestic jobs, stores gold mining and the sex industry.⁵² Extrapolations from the number of fishing boats suggest there may be between 1,200 and 2,400 Guyanese fishers⁵³ working in Suriname.⁵⁴ The village of New Nickerie and the waterways provide the main access routes for Guyanese to enter Suriname, and vice versa. The majority of passengers who cross the border in Nickerie bypass the Suriname immigration services, using the so-called back track route.

⁵¹ De Theije and Heemskerk (2009), De Theije and Bal (2010), and Hoogbergen and Kruijt (2004) have described the Brazilian migrant community in Suriname.

⁵² For Guyanese women, men and transvestites working in the sex industry in Suriname, see: Heemskerk and Uiterloo, 2009; and Heemskerk, Duijves and Uiterloo, 2011. (Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.)

⁵³ The Guyanese-dominated fishers' communities in Suriname are described in two studies commissioned by the State-owned oil company Staatsolie Maatschappij N.V., namely Heemskerk (2010) and Heemskerk and Duijves (2011).

⁵⁴ Personal communication with Ms M. Wirjodirjo, Head, Department of Inland Waterways and Deep-sea Fisheries, 8 September 2014.

New Chinese are typical chain migrants who rely on an extensive network of family members and/or individuals from the same region in China to migrate to places where they can fill a labour niche.⁵⁵ New Chinese adopt a large variety of economic strategies in Suriname, though language barrier and the fact that skills and diplomas of Chinese migrants are often not recognized in Suriname complicate labour market participation. Sinologist Tjon Sie Fat (2009) reports that “most economic strategies employed by New Chinese in Suriname are transplanted, be it construction companies, contract labour in construction or fishery, barber shops/beauty parlours, urban agriculture, catering, or certain forms of retail trade”. Chinese who are lacking a Surinamese network enter the retail trade and catering niches. They start as informal vendors (e.g. of roast meat), continue in market stalls/open food stalls, followed by small cook shops, restaurants and so on, progressing from the informal sector to formal economic participation (ibid.). Many Chinese start working in the informal sector, but as they stay longer and if there is a pragmatic reason, they will make an effort to obtain legal work documents. Chinese usually enter Suriname at the JAP International Airport.

4.4.5 Suriname and the need for foreign labour

As has become clear from the analysis presented earlier, foreign labourers can be found in virtually all economic sectors, though their presence stands in certain sectors. For example, Guyanese dominate the artisanal fisheries sector; Haitians form the main labour force in the agriculture sector (e.g. banana plantations); Indonesians have a strong presence in the tuna fishing industry; many Filipinos and Cubans come as medical specialists and nurses; and Chinese have a strong presence in retail trade, restaurants, and increasingly the construction sector.

It is generally agreed that in specifically the agriculture sector there is an identified need to complement Suriname’s labour force with labourers from abroad. Already, a large share of agriculture-field labour is performed by migrants, and the Surinamese Government supports the arrival of even more migrants to meet the labour needs. For example, the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries recently facilitated the arrival of Hmong Vietnamese from French Guiana for employment in Suriname’s agriculture sector.⁵⁶ The Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries plans to work in closer collaboration with the Ministry of Education and Community Development

⁵⁵ Personal communication with Paul Tjon Sie Fat, sinologist, 2 August 2014.

⁵⁶ Personal communication with Mr Breinburg, Permanent Secretary of Agriculture, at the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries, 5 September 2014.

(*Ministerie van Onderwijs en Volksontwikkeling, MINOV*) to determine how Surinamese can be trained to better meet the needs of the agriculture sector.

In Suriname, as in many other countries, there are concerns that labour migrants are competing with Surinamese for available jobs. With Suriname having a formal unemployment rate of 8 per cent⁵⁷ (2011 data; ABS, 2014), the question of whether Surinamese citizens are being displaced by migrant workers is legitimate. The Suriname General Bureau of Statistics has data on the educational attainment of unemployed persons in Suriname, and these data should be considered when performing a labour needs assessment. While little is known about the educational level and particular skills of migrant populations in Suriname, all indicators suggest that most are low-skilled labourers who enter the informal sector. Surinamese entrepreneurs and businesspersons call for better control on the entry of particularly low-skilled migrants.⁵⁸

In recent years, the country has also received high-skilled professionals to work in, for example, the medical and mining sectors. Also, among Chinese migrants, observers reported a shift in the migrant population, which used to be primarily composed of low-skilled rural Chinese and now includes individuals with higher educational attainment.⁵⁹

Health is one sector for which skilled foreigners, mainly Filipinos and Cubans, have been actively recruited to fill labour gaps.⁶⁰ Filipinos primarily work as emergency room doctors and specialized nurses, whereas Cubans are primary health-care doctors (mostly in the interior), intra-medical specialists, technicians, optometrists, radiotherapists and eye doctors. With Cuba, Suriname has an agreement in which the Surinamese Ministry of Health indicates what specializations are needed and the Cuban Ministry of Health delivers. At present, 28 Cuban health specialists work in Suriname via this arrangement, and a smaller number (5 to 8) of Cubans have come through other venues. Migrants make up approximately 10 per cent of the total number of staff members of the Ministry of Health. The Ministry does not plan to recruit additional migrants. Instead, it strives to work with the Surinamese Government to upgrade the educational institutions in the country.⁶¹

⁵⁷ This figure, representing 11,676 persons, is calculating using the strict definition of unemployment. The figure only pertains to the districts of Paramaribo and Wanice. It is likely that much higher unemployment rates will be recorded if the interior districts (Sipaliwini, Marowijne, Brokopondo) and the rural coastal districts (e.g. Coronie) are included.

⁵⁸ Personal communication with Mr G. van Dijk, General Manager, SBC, 11 August 2014.

⁵⁹ Personal communication with Mr S. Tsang, Deputy Chairman, Fa Tjauw Song Foei, 17 September 2014.

⁶⁰ Personal communication with Dr M. Eersel, Director for Health, Ministry of Health, 10 September 2014.

⁶¹ *Ibid.*

Representatives from the business sector lament that efforts to recruit foreign labourers are frustrated by a lack of transparency with regard to the obtainment of Short Stay Authorizations (MKV) and other relevant documentation. In the perspective of the General Manager of the SBC, some firms have to “beg” for visa and work permits, while other firms are immediately accommodated.⁶² Moreover, there are fears that due to violations of the labour law, foreign-owned firms with foreign workers pose unfair competition for Surinamese companies that do comply with the regulations. Legal Surinamese workers, for example, cannot be expected to accept the extremely low salaries and substandard working conditions (e.g. work days of more than eight hours) that some foreign workers are willing to accept. Furthermore, if foreign contract labourers come in to work on certain projects, for example through a bilateral agreement or credit line between Suriname and another country, it should be clear whether these foreign workers will return to their home countries upon completion of the job and if not, where they will stay.

The SBC proposes that representatives of trade and industry become part of a committee with the Ministry of Justice and Police and other relevant actors to find solutions for these various issues.⁶³ In addition, the business sector calls for an independent study specifically on the need for foreign labour in different economic sectors, including health and construction. Present efforts by the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries to certify agricultural firms in order to prevent malpractices such as child labour and other violations of the labour law are in line with these proposals.⁶⁴

⁶² Personal communication with Mr G. van Dijk, General Manager, SBC, 11 August 2014.

⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ Personal communication with Mr Breinburg, Permanent Secretary of Agriculture, at the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries, 5 September 2014.

4.5 Family migration

We use the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics definition of family migration, which includes family reunion (*gezinshereniging*),⁶⁵ jointly migrating family members (*mee-emigrerende gezinsleden*)⁶⁶ and family establishment (*gezinsvorming*).⁶⁷

Short Stay Authorization (MKV) requests for the first half of 2014 show that in this period, 159 persons applied to obtain this authorization to visit their families. By far, the largest share of applicants consisted of Chinese, followed by Haitians and others from Latin America and the Caribbean. The largest group of persons applied to stay for a period of one year (Table 9).

Persons of Surinamese descent, CARICOM citizens, Brazilians and others who do not need to apply for an MKV are not included in Table 9 because we do not know for what reason they came to Suriname or how long they plan to stay. Data from the General Bureau of Statistics show that 59,705 non-resident aliens entered Suriname in 2012 for family visit. However, we have no way of establishing whether these persons came for holidays, family business, specific family events or family migration.

Table 9. Number of MKV applications with the purpose to visit/stay with family, by nationality of the applicant and requested duration of stay

Nationality	Less than 6 months	6–11 months	1 year	2 years	Unknown	Total
Chinese	6	12	120	1	1	140
Haitian	0	6	0	0	0	6
Indian	0	3	0	0	0	3
Indonesian	0	1	0	0	0	1
Other LAC	0	4	0	0	0	4
Dutch	0	0	0	3	0	3
Romanian	1	0	0	0	0	1
Other	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total	7	27	120	4	1	159

Source: Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police.

⁶⁵ *Family reunion* refers to taking up residence in the destination country by members of family units that already existed prior to the person's migration, whereby one or more family members join family members who earlier migrated to the destination country. Examples are spouses, underage children and parents who go live with their children. The Netherlands holds that family members other than the spouse or underage children may receive a residency permit in the category "extended family reunion" (*verruimde gezinshereniging*) if these family members in the country of origin were also part of the household, and if the Secretary of Justice stipulates that leaving these family members behind would be "disproportionally hard".

⁶⁶ *Jointly migrating family members* are family members (e.g. of a labour migrant) who migrate in the same year as the labour migrant.

⁶⁷ *Family establishment* refers to taking up residence in the destination country to get married, to live in registered partnership, or to live together with a partner who already lives in the destination country and with whom the person has not lived together before.

4.6 Study migration

Not many migrants come to Suriname for education purposes. In the past one and a half year, between January 2013 and 10 August 2014, the Border Management System registered a total of 1,549 persons who entered Suriname to study. Under the category “study” were, among others, persons who came to conduct research towards fulfillment of the requirements for a college or university degree, interns and persons who came to attend a presentation. Some persons in this category came to Suriname for just one day.

The Border Management System data show that by far the largest group of persons who entered Suriname for study purposes were Dutch nationals (914), followed by Belgians (220) and US citizens (32) (Border Management System, consulted 11 August 2014). The General Bureau of Statistics reported that 2,280 non-resident aliens came to Suriname in 2012 for studies (ABS, 2013). However, the concept of “study” is not defined and the data do not allow for determining how long these persons stayed in Suriname. “Study” is no self-contained category within the MKV application procedure. In this data system, “study” is part of category 3, which includes studies, internship, volunteering and return migration. Hence, data from the MKV registry cannot be used to extract the number of MKV applications that were filed for study purposes.

4.7 Irregular migration to Suriname

4.7.1 Irregular migrants: Facts and figures

As defined in the introduction, an irregular migrant is a “person who, owing to unauthorized entry, breach of a condition of entry, or the expiry of his or her visa, lacks legal status in a transit or host country” (IOM, 2011b). Estimating the number of irregular migrants is difficult because of the simple fact that they are not registered and counted, and typically wish to stay away from the national authorities. The largest irregular migrant groups in Suriname are Brazilians, Guyanese and Chinese.

Brazilians: Because Brazilians do not need a visa to enter Suriname, most irregular migrants with a Brazilian passport are so-called overstayers – these are persons who have entered a transit or host country lawfully but have stayed for a longer period than authorized. In 2012, a total of 19,643⁶⁸ Brazilians legally

⁶⁸ This figure records every border crossing as one case, and hence it is likely that a substantial share of the total number consists of persons who have crossed the border more than once.

entered Suriname; the estimated number according to official authorities is 19,607 and they declared themselves as tourists (ABS, 2013b). In addition, smaller numbers of Brazilians enter the country illegally at the borders with French Guiana and Guyana. There are no reliable estimates of the total number of Brazilians residing in Suriname, as people move between Suriname and its neighbouring countries. Most common estimates of the number of Brazilians working in Suriname's gold mining sector linger around 20,000–25,000 persons, which would represent about 4 per cent of the population in Suriname⁶⁹ (see also: De Theije and Heemskerk, 2009; De Theije and Bal, 2010; Hoogbergen and Kruijt, 2004). Others have estimated the total number of Brazilians as high as 40,000 (DevSur, 29 March 2014⁷⁰), while yet other estimates, on the other hand, are much lower. For example, the Presidential Commission on Regulation of the Gold Sector estimates about 3,000 Brazilian gold miners in Suriname, and more or less similar numbers in the relevant service sector.⁷¹ The latter figure corresponds with the number of registered Brazilians (between 5,000 and 7,000) and would imply that the largest share of Brazilians live and work legally in Suriname.

Guyanese: As Guyana is a CARICOM Member State, its citizens may enter Suriname without a visa. For this reason, many persons regularly travel between these neighbouring countries. In 2012, for example, a total of 42,556 Guyanese⁷² legally entered Suriname (ABS, 2013b). A share of these persons enter illegally when they exceed their legally allowed six-month stay. In addition, many Guyanese travel using the back track route, and enter the country illegally. The Guyanese Embassy in Suriname estimates that a total number of 40,000 first-generation Guyanese may be permanently living in Suriname.⁷³ Added to this figure are large numbers of second-generation Guyanese in Suriname; mostly children of the Guyanese who came to Suriname in the 1970s and the 1980s. These figures imply that about three quarters of Guyanese in Suriname are staying in the country without proper residency papers. Under the Constitution of Guyana, a child that is recognized by a Guyanese mother or father automatically has the right to Guyanese citizenship and passport. In contrast to Suriname, Guyana does recognize dual citizenship.

⁶⁹ Personal communication with Mr J. Ribeiro, Chair, Fundação BRASUR, 5 August 2014.

⁷⁰ DevSur interview with His Excellency Marcelo Baumbach, Ambassador of Brazil to Suriname. Available from <http://www.devsur.com/brazilian-ambassador-undocumented-criminal-brazilians-nationality/2014/03/29/>.

⁷¹ Personal communication with Mr G. Dompig, Chairman, Management Unit, Commission on Regulation of the Gold Sector, 23 September 2014. Chairman Dompig emphasized that registration of gold miners had not generated reliable data on the total number of these workers. The listed estimates are not based on scientific extrapolations and are only used for enforcement purposes (personal communication with Mr G. Dompig, 3 September 2014).

⁷² This figure records every border crossing as one case, and hence it is likely that a substantial share of the total number consists of persons who have crossed the border more than once.

⁷³ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

Chinese: The Chinese typically need a tourist visa to enter Suriname. For example, in 2012, a total of 2,493 Chinese legally entered Suriname, among whom all but two entered on a tourist visa (ABS, 2013b). They become part of the irregular migrant population when their visa expires and they do not return. Sinologist Tjon Sie Fat indicates that it is impossible to provide a reliable estimate of the total number of Chinese residing in Suriname because the new Chinese migration is the norm.⁷⁴ Many Chinese come to Suriname to perform an informal job (*hosse*) that does not require many specific (language) skills, and move on when a better opportunity elsewhere, with the average *hosse* lasting for about five years. The businesses that have been set up continue to exist, but the people working in them move on. The Chinese are very pragmatic about migration, and because the network also needs persons with Surinamese nationality, some individuals will make an effort to become Surinamese citizens. During the latest general pardon of 2014, approximately 2,800 Chinese without a legal status registered with the Chinese association Fa Tjauw Song Foei.⁷⁵

4.7.2 Illegal entry into Suriname

Along the borders of Suriname, there are four legal ports of entry: the JAP International Airport; the Zorg en Hoop Airport; the border at South Drain Nickerie; and the border at Albina. These two latter borders are marked by a river.

The ports of Nickerie and Albina are the only two official ports along the kilometers-long border rivers in the east and west of Suriname. Because of the stretch of the country and the many uninhabited areas consisting of rainforest, it is undoable to structurally patrol all borders along these rivers. It is generally known that many passengers who cross the border at these locations bypass the Suriname immigration services. For example, close to the legal ports, in Albina persons enter the country with the so called “small boats” that transfer people from French Guiana to Suriname and vice versa, without presenting themselves to the authorities. In Nickerie, there is a similar situation where people enter the country from Guyana through back track, a boat service that drops migrants out of sight of authorities. Besides, along the total stretch of the river, any individual can cross on his or her own account – in some cases, to buy groceries, and in other cases, for a long stay in Suriname.

⁷⁴ Personal communication with Paul Tjon Sie Fat, 2 August 2014.

⁷⁵ Personal communication with Mr S. Tsang, Deputy Chairman, Fa Tjauw Song Foei, 17 September 2014.

In an attempt to clamp down on illegal activities along the Corantijn River, which borders Guyana and Suriname, security officials have agreed to implement a joint patrol in 2013. On the other side of the country, the French Gendarmerie and the French Foreign Legion patrol the border in cooperation with the Surinamese Police. Further land inland, along the east–west connecting road from the border towns of Nickerie and Albina to the capital of Paramaribo, there are two control posts of the Surinamese Police. However, it is not their main task to check the permits of the people crossing and not all passing cars are stopped. Nevertheless, the control post in west Suriname in particular, at Burnside, has most likely reduced the number of irregular Guyanese entrees. There is no border post in the south of Suriname, along the border with Brazil, because the area is inhospitable and it is unlikely that large numbers of migrants enter Suriname through this route.

Even though it is easy to enter Suriname illegally, it is unlikely that the majority of migrants choose to do so because legal entry is easy. Those who do not need a visa (e.g. Guyanese, Brazilians) can legally enter the country with their passports, unless they have been red-flagged as persons who have committed a criminal offence. Meanwhile, those who need a visa (e.g. Chinese, Dutch) readily enter on a tourist visa, even if they do not come for tourism. We have not heard of any cases where a tourist visa has been denied.

4.7.3 Overstayers

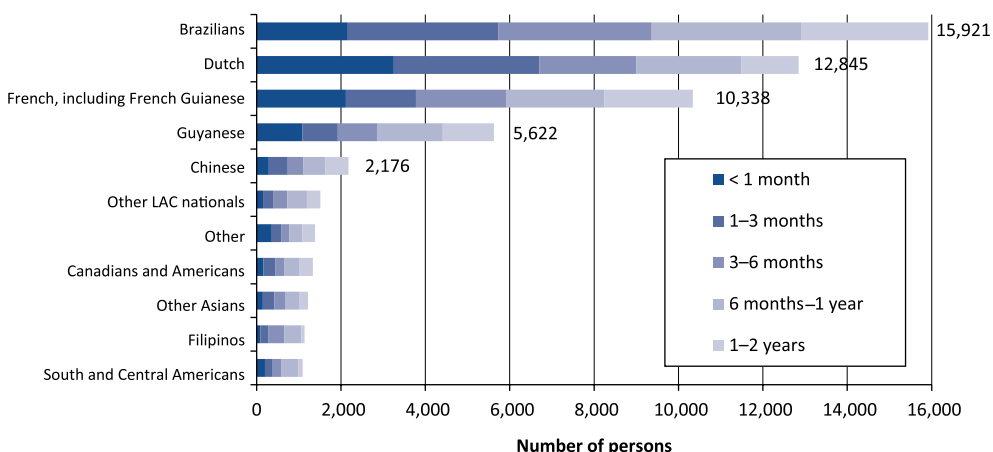
Overstayers are persons who have entered Suriname lawfully but stayed for a longer period than authorized. Up to the end of 2012, it was difficult to keep track of overstayers because they were not centrally registered. Existing data only recorded the number of persons who entered the country but did not allow for tracking whether those persons had either left the country upon expiry of their legal stay, or else had requested an extension.

Since November 2012, the Military Police has been using the Border Management System, which tracks the status and travel behaviour of the persons who cross the border into or out of Suriname. This system registers not only entries and exits but also the type of visa, number of travels, and whether or not the person has a police record or unpaid fines. Hence, the system allows for tracing visitors who entered the country and those who left, and for how long these persons stayed. Because the system records one case for every time a person crosses the border, the system only shows many border crossings have taken place, and not how many persons are involved in these crossings. That is, a merchant who travels twice a week to Guyana will be recorded about a hundred times in the system.

The moment that a person stays beyond his or her authorized stay, the Border Management System signals a case of “overstay” or “illegal stay”. When the overstayer leaves the country through one of the formal border posts (Nickerie, Albina, Zanderij, Zorg en Hoop), he or she will be handed over to the Department of Alien Service (*Vreemdelingendienst*) of the Police Corps of Suriname. In coordination with the Public Prosecutor who is in charge of aliens, it is decided what punishment follows; usually the person is banned to enter the country for some period of time. If the person attempts to enter Suriname again prior to the expiry of the ban, the Border Management System also gives a warning, and the Military Police will deny the person entry into the country.

Data from the Border Management System suggest that overstaying regularly occurs. In the period for which the border Management System has been active – from 14 November 2012 to September 2014 (date of data acquisition) – a total of 54,883 persons were registered as overstayers. This figure includes persons who left the country and those who were still in Suriname. The largest group among these persons were Brazilians (15,921 persons), followed by Dutch passport holders (12,845), French (10,338) and Guyanese (5,622) (Figure 22).

Figure 22. Total number of overstayers from 14 November 2012 to September 2014

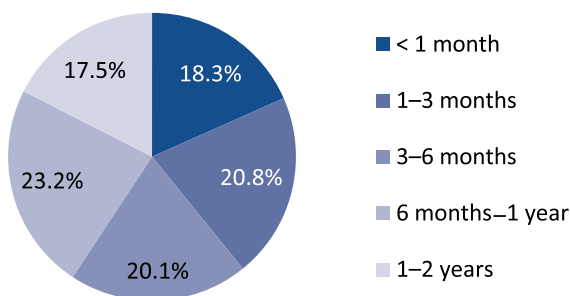


Source: Border Management System, obtained from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 24 September 2014.

Note: Chinese include Hong Kong nationals and Taiwanese.

About one in five overstayers had exceeded their authorized stay with less than a month (18.3%; 10,010 persons) (Figure 23). A similar number had stayed between one and three months, between three and six months, between six months and a year, and for more than a year. There was no significant difference between foreign nationals from different countries in their likelihood to overstay for a shorter or longer period.

Figure 23. Duration of overstay among persons who exceeded their authorized stay in Suriname between November 2012 and September 2014



Source: Border Management System, obtained from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 24 September 2014.

Note: n = 54,580 (excluding 303 cases for which the length of overstay was not recorded).

The reason for overstay and looping into illegality is often related to a combination of a lack of money, ignorance (not knowing where and how) and lack of interest.⁷⁶ Particularly, workers in the *garimpo* (gold mines) do not keep track of the time they have been in the interior or of the expiration date of their residency permits. Some start the process but they do not complete it because they run out of money, which is needed to pay a hotel in the city, the registration fee, health insurance, taxi cabs and sometimes middlemen (case 1).⁷⁷

4.7.4 General pardons in 2010 and 2014

In 2009–2010, the Ministry of Justice and Police granted the first general pardon to irregular migrants in Suriname. This project was called Project Illegals I. Approximately 18,000 migrants registered and were given the opportunity to arrange their permits of stay. However, ultimately only 7,000 persons submitted complete applications (Government of Suriname, 2014). Research on the remaining cases did not produce tangible results because registered migrants were not present at the addresses they had indicated in their applications. In 2013, during the celebrations of 160 years of Chinese immigration to Suriname, Chinese organizations expressed the need for another general pardon. This request was honored by the Minister of Justice and Police, which granted the second general pardon from 13 January through 13 June 2014, via the Project Illegals II (ibid.).

In the 2014 general pardon, key organizations representing migrants were appointed to assist migrants with completing their registration prior to sending

⁷⁶ Personal communication with Mr J. Ribeiro, Chair, Fundação BRASUR, 5 August 2014.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

them to the Ministry of Justice and Police, including the different embassies, migrant associations and, in the case of Haitians, a large employer. Mr Cayo Renault, Deputy Chief of Mission of the Embassy of Brazil in Suriname, indicated that approximately 400 applications of Brazilians had been processed; and Mr Stephen Tsang, Deputy Chairman of the Chinese association Fa Tjauw Song Foei, reported that approximately 2,800 Chinese applicants had been assisted by his organization. The facilitating organizations for different migrant groups made appointments for them with the Department of Alien Affairs, and the migrants themselves were responsible for completing the application package and showing up at the appointment. In the end, however, only a small number of the persons who had started the process actually filed a complete application.⁷⁸ The Deputy Director of the Department of Alien Affairs explained that, for example, during an appointment for 200 persons, only three persons would show up.⁷⁹

The 2014 general pardon from the Ministry of Justice and Police was applicable for migrants who settled in Suriname before the end of 2013. A little over 2,000 migrants of a total of 15 nationalities filed admission applications. Approximately two thirds of the applications were filed by Chinese (67.4%). The second largest group consisted of Haitians (22.8%), followed by Brazilians (7.0%; n = 2,001, excluding 14 missing cases) (Figure 24). Applications from persons of other nationalities are listed less than 15 times each. Two applications were filed by Surinamese who applied on behalf of their child or spouse. Just over two thirds of the applications were filed by men.

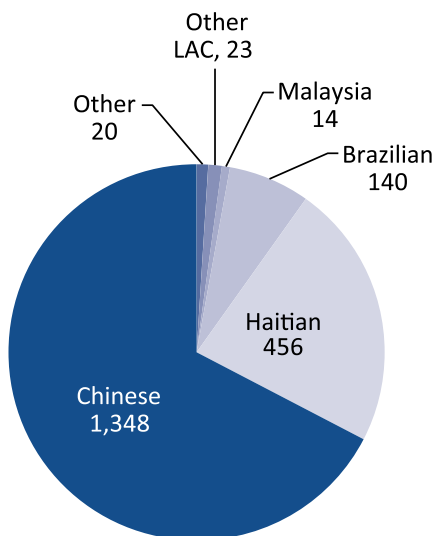
The Department of Alien Affairs of the Ministry of Justice and Police records data per admission request, and some applications relate to more than one person. Most of the 2,015 registered applications were for one person (1,735 cases; 91.7%). Other applications were filed for two (121 cases) or more (11 cases) persons, with a maximum number of four persons for one application. In 122 cases, the number of applicants was not recorded and 26 cases listed zero applicants. A representative of the Department of Alien Affairs stated that “the number of irregular immigrants who had registered was disappointing in comparison with the quantities you hear.”⁸⁰

⁷⁸ Personal communication with Ms I. Kindooi, Deputy Director, Department of Alien Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police, 23 July 2014.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ Ibid.

Figure 24. Nationalities of persons who registered for the Project Illegals II 2014



Note: n = 2,001, excluding 14 missing cases.

Given the large number of Guyanese living in Suriname without legal residency, it seems surprising that only 10 of them took advantage of the general pardon. The Ambassador of Guyana indicated that he was disappointed in the response.⁸¹ The Embassy had made an effort to motivate Guyanese to use this opportunity by broadcasting radio and TV ads, distributing brochures and doing personal visits to the community. Among the possible reasons for the low turnout of Guyanese, according to him, was the incident in the 1980s, in which large numbers of undocumented Guyanese were deported. This incident has stuck in people's memories. Another explanation is that those applying first had to settle their taxes from the time they started living in Suriname. Many Guyanese did not come forward because they feared that the amounts of money they would have to pay would be too high. A third factor was that the expenses for the obliged health insurance were high and many Guyanese, who had access to free public health care at home, could not or did not want to pay the insurance fees. Finally, the limited participation in the general pardon can be blamed on "carelessness" and being "fearful of officialdom".⁸²

⁸¹ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

⁸² Ibid.

For the Haitian community, on the other hand, the general pardon was a success. By visiting churches and meeting with community leaders, the Haitian Consulate played an important role in enticing Haitians to register.⁸³ In addition, the Haitian Consulate helped with building the file for those who could not do it themselves, assisted with translations and provided guarantees where needed, for example if a person needed a birth certificate. The Surinamese Government further supported this initiative by annulling certain fees that could be an obstacle to file for legal admission to Suriname. According to the chairperson of a Haitian youth group, a significant share of previously undocumented Haitians grabbed the opportunity of the general pardon, and the number of irregular Haitian migrants is now minimal.⁸⁴

4.8 Deportation

Deportations are managed and carried out by the Department of Alien Service (*Vreemdelingendienst*) of the Ministry of Justice and Police. The Ministry of Justice and Police makes a distinction between:

- deportation because of illegality; and
- deportation because of a threat to national security, disruption of public order and danger to public health.

Four categories of migrants can be deported from Suriname:

1. Deportations at the desk (*Uitzettingen aan de balie*): These are migrants who are illegally in the country, and on their own initiative present themselves to the Department of Alien Service with a plane ticket and a passport. They do not need to be taken into custody.
2. Irregular migrants who have been taken into custody: These are migrants who are illegally in the country and have been arrested. Upon deportation, they are accompanied by the police to the international airport.
3. Expiration cases (*Expiratiegevallen*): These are migrants who have committed a criminal offence and served their sentence. The Department of Alien Affairs composes a ministerial ordinance to deport the person. In cases where the migrant has not yet exceeded his or her legal stay in Suriname, the Minister can decide to withdraw this right so that the person has to leave the country immediately.

⁸³ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr Jospitre, Head of Mission, Consulate of Haiti in Suriname, 14 August 2014.

⁸⁴ Personal communication with A. Pierre, Chair, L'Union Fait la Force, 16 August 2014.

4. Conditional discharge cases (*Voorlopige Invrijheidstelling*) per ministerial ordinance: These are migrants who have committed a criminal offence and, because of good behaviour, are eligible for one-third reduction of sentence. The person has to leave the country immediately as soon as he or she can get a plane ticket, and will be banned from Suriname for a period of five years. The Department of Alien Service accompanies the person to the airport. If the migrant in question does not have a plane ticket, he or she will have to complete the sentence.⁸⁵

The above cases do not include extraditions, which are managed by the Department of Alien Affairs in cases that a person arrested in Suriname is also sought for a criminal offence abroad.

In the first quarter of 2014, Suriname deported 873 foreigners, who were all staying illegally in the country. The majority consisted of Brazilians. An overview of all deported nationalities is shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Deported nationalities

Nationality	Number	Nationality	Number
Brazilian	703	Colombian	6
Chinese	63	Peruvian	2
Guyanese	35	Indian	1
Ecuadorian	33	American	1
Dutch	20	Macedonian	1
Haitian	10	Vietnamese	1
Dominican	7	French	1

Source: Starnieuws, July 2014.

Surinamese who live abroad without valid documents are also sent back to their country of origin. Cumulative totals for 2008–2011 show that Suriname is number 9 in the top countries of origin illegally present in the Netherlands, with 820 Surinamese migrants illegally present (2.8% of total). This data naturally only captures those illegal migrants who come to the attention of the authorities and not the total number of foreign nationals present on an unauthorized basis (Reslow, 2014).

Deportation of Surinamese aliens out of the Netherlands has been problematic. Since 2006 no presentations in person have been executed, and

⁸⁵ Personal communication with Ms Babel, Head, Department of Alien Service, Ministry of Justice and Police, 7 August 2014.

no laissez-passers (temporary travel documents) have been provided without a prior presentation in person. In October 2008, an MoU was signed by the Dutch Minister of Justice and the Surinamese Minister of Foreign Affairs. The goal of this MoU is to enable Surinamese authorities to arrive at a more rapid determination of the nationality and identity of aliens and mutual readmissions of nationals. Implementation agreements concerning this MoU are not made public (Peeters, 2009).

4.9 Trafficking in persons

Trafficking in persons is a sensitive issue, and because of its clandestine nature, data on cases of trafficking are at best an approximation of reality. Data from the Police Corps of Suriname show that between 2009 and 2013, 18 cases of trafficking were investigated by the police.

Table 11. Number of cases of trafficking in persons investigated by the Police Corps of Suriname, 2009–2013

Year	Number of cases	Number of arrests	Detained males	Detained females	Victims of trafficking
2009	1	4	3	1	20
2010	2	2	0	2	2
2011	2	8	5	3	2
2012	7	19	12	7	5
2013	6	20	15	5	9

Source: Police Corps of Suriname, Counter Severe Criminality, Division of Trafficking in Persons.

The listed cases were suspected cases of people smuggling or human trafficking. Article 249a of the Criminal Code defines “people smuggling” (*mensensmokkel*) as: “helping another person, whether or not with the purpose of economic gain, to either enter or stay in Suriname, or provide this person, whether or not for economic gain, with opportunity, means or information, even though the person knows or has a severe reason to suspect that the entry or stay is unlawful.”⁸⁶ Human trafficking (*mensenhandel*) is described in Article 307 of the Criminal Code.

⁸⁶ A person is guilty of people smuggle when: “Degene die een ander al dan niet uit winstbejag behulpzaam is bij het zich verschaffen van toegang tot of verblijven in Suriname, of hem daartoe al dan niet uit winstbejag gelegenheid, middelen of inlichtingen verschaft, terwijl hij weet of ernstige reden heeft te vermoeden, dat de toegang of dat verblijf wederrechtelijk is...” (Law of 6 April 2006, involving modification of the Criminal Code (G.B. 1911, no. 1, zoals laatstelijk gewijzigd bij S.B. 2004, no. 105).

The number of investigated cases and arrests increased between 2009 and 2013, but this observation does not necessarily mean that trafficking has increased. This trend may also be an indication of increased efforts or improved investigative results by the Police Division of Trafficking in Persons.

In 2008, a team of researchers from Suriname, Brazil and the Dominican Republic, working under the direction of the Brazilian non-governmental organization (NGO) Sodireitos, conducted interviews with women from Brazil and the Dominican Republic who had been victims of trafficking to Suriname. The study suggests that both Brazilian and Dominican women “are fooled by the traffickers with offers of well-remunerated work (as folklore dancers, working in the gold mines, or as beauticians, among other offers), and who facilitate all of the preparations for the trip”. In Paramaribo, these women are “locked away” in brothels and have to work “under slave-like conditions” (Sodireitos, 2008:168). The Surinamese Government has not reacted to this report and has not endorsed its content.

The 2010 migration profile for Brazil reports that the border regions between Brazil and its neighbouring countries, including Suriname, are “a potentially critical area for trafficking in persons, particularly women and adolescents” (IOM, 2010). There are, however, no verifiable data to support this statement. A Brazilian Embassy representative indicated that the Embassy has never ascertained a case of trafficking from Brazil to Suriname, or vice versa.⁸⁷ Also, the representative from the Brazilian interest group does not believe that trafficking between Brazil and Suriname is a substantial problem.⁸⁸ In his opinion, 97 per cent of women who work in sex clubs knew exactly what job they were supposed to do when they came to Suriname. Only the conditions may be tougher than they expected, for example, some clubs set very strict rules on how long and where the women must work and stay. A senior policy staff member at the Dutch Immigration and Naturalization Service explains that according to the Palermo Protocol, such cases are considered human trafficking, because the sex worker is not acting independently.⁸⁹

The Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname conveyed that: “There are reasons to believe that trafficking has been happening over time, but because of the stigma attached, persons travelling back to Guyana will not say they have

⁸⁷ Personal communication with His Excellency Cayo Renault, Deputy Chief of Mission, Embassy of Brazil, 3 September 2014.

⁸⁸ Personal communication with Mr J. Ribeiro, Chair, Fundação BRASUR, 5 August 2014.

⁸⁹ Personal communication with Mr A. Stelk, senior policy staff, Dutch Immigration and Naturalization Service, 13 October 2014.

been abused.”⁹⁰ Because of increased vigilance, however, the number of cases has most likely decreased.

There is reportedly no trafficking problem between Haiti and Suriname.⁹¹

The 2014 edition of the Global Slavery Index (GSI) sketches a worrisome portrait of Suriname. The GSI defines modern slavery as: “...one person possessing or controlling another person in such a way as to significantly deprive that person of their individual liberty, with the intention of exploiting that person through their use, management, profit, transfer or disposal.” The GSI places Suriname on the nineteenth rank among 167 countries worldwide, where persons are working under slavery-like conditions, and estimates that 4,900 individuals – almost 1 per cent of the total population – are living in modern slavery. Meanwhile, the Government’s response to this problem is characterized as inadequate. The methods used by the GSI to estimate the number of modern slaves and to measure government response in Suriname are, however, questionable. As far as could be deduced from the GSI website, no primary data were collected in Suriname. Instead, the conclusions have primarily been drawn on the basis of secondary data and an “extrapolation method [...] that took into account factors including vulnerability, geography, and country context...” We have not been able to establish what secondary data have been used, and it is unlikely that the Surinamese Government and Suriname NGOs were consulted about this issue. The Surinamese Government has not yet provided an official response to this report.

⁹⁰ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

⁹¹ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr Jospitre, Head of Mission, Consulate of Haiti in Suriname, 14 August 2014.

5. MIGRATION TRENDS AND CHARACTERISTICS IN THE PAST DECADE: MIGRATION FROM SURINAME

5.1 Where do Surinamese migrate to?

5.1.1 General trends

It is not easy to establish how many Surinamese migrate and where they migrate to, because – among other reasons – few migrants (including Surinamese) who leave the country to live somewhere else remove their names from the Civil Registry of the Bureau for Citizens Affairs⁹² (*Bureau voor Burgerzaken, BVB*). Only Dutch citizens tend to deregister because they need proof that they have been removed from the Surinamese Civil Registry in order to register and arrange their affairs in the Netherlands.⁹³ For example, in the 2003–2012 period, a total of 4,571 persons had emigrated from Suriname according to data from the Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs. In the same period, the Central Bureau of Statistics of the Netherlands registered 23,926 Surinamese immigrants to the Netherlands – more than five times as much as the number of emigrants registered by Suriname’s Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs. For this reason, we primarily depend on data from the national census of Suriname, international databases and national statistics of other countries to get an idea of the number of Surinamese who have migrated abroad, and their characteristics in terms of gender, age, education and motive for migration.

During the eighth national census, the General Bureau of Statistics measured emigration by doing a survey among heads of household or household representatives. Respondents were asked: “Are there persons who belonged to this household in the period 2004–12 August 2012, who have travelled abroad and stayed there?” The census data provide a very small number of emigrants for this period (total: 2,241), of whom most went to the Netherlands, followed by the United States and French Guiana (Table 12). One reason for the low number of reported emigrants may be that persons who had migrated with their families were not considered, because the migration question was posed to household members who had stayed behind.

⁹² The Bureau for Citizens Affairs is the district office (*wijkkantoor*) of the Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs.

⁹³ Personal communication with Ms Kalpoe, Head, Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs, Office of Alien Registration, 1 September 2014.

Other sources report much higher number of Surinamese migrants. According to the 2013 statistics from the UN DESA Population Division, 261,578 Surinamese were living as migrants⁹⁴ abroad in 2013: 122,103 men and 139,475 women (Table 13). The top three countries with the largest number of Surinamese migrants were the Netherlands (total: 191,182), France, including French Guiana (total: 51,169), and the United States (total: 7,981). The top three was followed by Guyana, the former Netherlands Antilles (Curaçao, Aruba, Sint Maarten and Caribbean Netherlands) and Canada. Fewer Surinamese migrants live in a variety of other European and Caribbean countries (other than those already mentioned), in South and Central America, in Asia (mainly the Philippines), and in Australia and New Zealand. The migration of Surinamese may be characterized as chain migration, because in many cases relatives in the destination country sponsor the passage and/or help with initial adaptation and housing.

Table 12. Number of emigrants as measured by the eighth national census, by destination country and sex

Destination country	Men	Women	Unknown	Total
Netherlands	661	841	5	1,507
United States	70	71	0	141
French Guiana	55	75	0	130
Other countries	59	70	1	130
Other Europe	38	41	0	79
Curaçao	29	41	0	70
Other Caribbean	34	36	0	70
Guyana	28	20	1	49
Unknown	16	22	0	38
Sint Maarten	8	19	0	27
Total	998	1,236	7	2,241

Source: General Bureau of Statistics, *Resultaten Achtste (8e) Volks- en Woningtelling in Suriname* (Volume I), 2013, p. 88.

⁹⁴ For the purpose of estimating the international migrant stock, the UN DESA Population Division equates international migrants either with the foreign-born or with foreign citizens. When data on place of birth are available, they are generally given precedence.

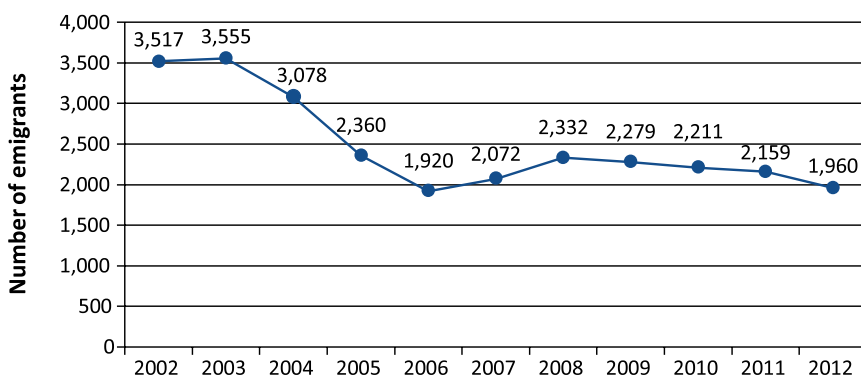
Table 13. Migrant stock in different countries and regions by sex, totals in 2013

Destination country	Men	Women	Unknown	Total
Netherlands	661	841	5	1,507
United States	70	71	0	141
French Guiana	55	75	0	130
Other countries	59	70	1	130
Other Europe	38	41	0	79
Curaçao	29	41	0	70
Other Caribbean	34	36	0	70
Guyana	28	20	1	49
Unknown	16	22	0	38
Sint Maarten	8	19	0	27
Total	998	1,236	7	2,241

Source: UN DESA Population Division, Trends in International Migrant Stock: Migrants by Destination and Origin (United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2013).

The UN DESA Population Division data only list registered migrants. Adding undocumented migrants not included in the calculation in Table 13 will considerably increase the total number of migrants living in countries such as the Netherlands and French Guiana.

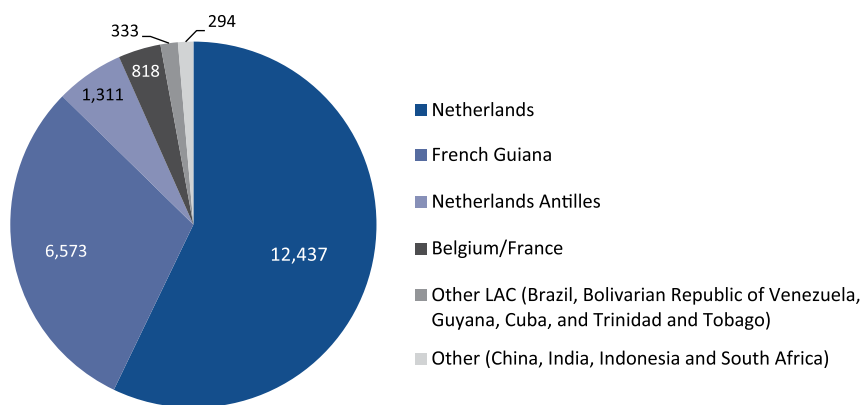
The General Bureau of Statistics provides figures for the number of Surinamese emigrants who have annually left the country (unpublished data). Its data suggest that in the past decade, the annual number of Surinamese who had emigrated went down from 3,517 persons in 2002 to 1,960 persons in 2012 (Figure 25). A total of 27,443 Surinamese migrated abroad in this period.

Figure 25. Number of Surinamese emigrants, 2002–2012

Source: General Bureau of Statistics.

Data from the Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs on the number of Surinamese passports that have been extended to Surinamese living abroad confirm that the Netherlands hosts the largest number of Surinamese nationals (Figure 26) (complete data are provided in Annex V). Because the data show new passport applications over a period of 10 years, it is likely that persons have been counted twice. On the second and third places among the countries with most Surinamese passport applications are French Guiana and the Netherlands Antilles – mainly Aruba and Curaçao. Data for the United States were not entered in this dataset.

Figure 26. Number of Surinamese passports extended to Surinamese nationals abroad by country/region, 2005–2014



Source: Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs, Office of Alien Registration, unpublished data, 2014.

5.1.2 The Netherlands

The bulk of Surinamese emigrants continue to travel to the Netherlands. The Netherlands is also one of the few countries whose data on Surinamese migrants is readily available. The number of Surinamese migrants in the Netherlands (191,182), as recorded by the UN DESA Population Division, roughly compares to the 184,098 Suriname-born individuals living in the Netherlands according to data from the Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics for 2013. The difference between the figures may be explained by the slight differences in categorization and definitions. For example, the Central Bureau for Statistics in the Netherlands does not count Surinamese diplomats, while they are probably included in the UN dataset.

The Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics records as non-Dutch immigrants those who do not have Dutch nationality and on the basis of the law cannot

be treated as Dutch, excluding: (a) non-Dutch diplomats and non-Dutch NAVO militaries living in the Netherlands; and (b) asylum-seekers who have lived in the central shelter for less than six months and have not yet received a residency permit. According to the Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics, at present 347,631 persons of Surinamese descent⁹⁵ are registered as living in the Netherlands (Table 14). Among them, 52.5 per cent are women. One quarter are young persons in the age bracket of 0–19; about two thirds are adults in the 20–64 age bracket; and the remaining 7 per cent are elderly in the 65 and older age bracket.

Of these persons of Surinamese descent, 184,098 were born in Suriname, and thus are first-generation migrants (Table 15). Fifty-five per cent of persons in this group are women. In fact, the number of women dominates in every age group among the registered Suriname-born migrants in the Netherlands. First-generation migrants are primarily older adults, in the 45–64 age group.

Table 14. Number of persons of Surinamese descent living in the Netherlands as of 1 January 2013, by sex and age group

Age group	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
0–19	44,211	27	42,295	23	86,506	25
20–65	110,562	67	126,201	69	236,763	68
Older than 65	10,311	6	14,051	8	24,362	7
Total	165,084	100	182,547	100	347,631	100

Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

Data from the Central Bureau of Statistics of the Netherlands further suggest that the grand majority of Surinamese who migrated to the Netherlands either were Dutch nationals prior to migration (including persons who migrated prior to 1975) or obtained Dutch nationality and lost their Surinamese nationality after migration. As a result, in 2013 only 1.8 per cent of persons of Surinamese descent living in the Netherlands still had the Surinamese nationality; of these, 2,783 were men and 3,340 were women. Surinamese nationals living in the Netherlands are mostly young adults, in the 15–29 age group (Table 16).

⁹⁵ Persons of Surinamese descent are those who were born in Suriname (first generation), or whose parent was born in Suriname. In the latter case, descent is determined by the birth country of the mother unless the mother was born in the Netherlands; in which case, descent is determined by the birth country of the father.

Table 15. Number of Suriname-born persons living in the Netherlands as of 1 January 2013, by sex and age

Age group	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
0–14	1,066	1	1,115	1	2,181	1
15–29	7,683	9	8,640	9	16,323	9
30–44	23,570	29	28,837	28	52,407	28
45–64	40,308	49	49,499	49	89,807	49
65 or older	9,846	12	13,534	13	23,380	13
Total	82,473	100	101,625	100	184,098	100

Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

Table 16. Number of persons with Surinamese nationality living in the Netherlands as of 1 January 2013, by sex and age

Age group	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
Younger than 15	370	13	355	11	725	12
15–29	1,087	39	1,525	46	2,612	43
30–44	961	35	1,116	33	2,077	34
45–64	285	10	230	7	515	8
65 or older	80	3	114	3	194	3
Total	2,783	100	3,340	100	6,123	100

Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

A considerable number of Surinamese continue to immigrate to the Netherlands, though their numbers have been decreasing in recent years (Figure 27). The stricter migration policy in the Netherlands, the European financial crisis and the positive economic development in Suriname in recent years may all have played a role in this trend. In the past decade (2003–2011), a total of 12,132 Surinamese immigrated to the Netherlands (CBS, 2014). The data show a downward trend, with the lowest number of new arrivals from Suriname in 2013. The main migration motive for registered migrants in the period of 2003–2011 was family migration (9,007 persons), followed by studies (898), labour (193), asylum (164) and au-pair schemes/internships (71). In addition, 1,799 Surinamese immigrated to the Netherlands for other reasons. These people include economically inactive persons and persons who came to the Netherlands for medical treatment.

Not all persons who wanted to enter the Netherlands were accepted. Between 2008 and 2013, there were 1,440 Surinamese refused entry at the Dutch border (8.7% of all refusals). This number makes Suriname number one in the top 10 countries of origin of refused migrants (Reslow, 2014).

Recent policy developments, such as the supportive migration conditions for persons of Surinamese descent, suggest that Suriname is increasingly looking at its migrant stock overseas as a source of human and financial capital that can benefit national development. In this context, it is important to know what skills and education Surinamese migrants possess.

Figure 28 shows that the majority of persons of Surinamese descent in the Netherlands have completed or are/were enrolled in education at the preparatory middle-level applied education (*voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs, VMBO*) and middle-level applied education (*middelbaar beroepsonderwijs, MBO*) (complete data are provided in Annex VII). These persons are or have been educated in a huge variety of middle-level professions such as mechanic, electrician, plumbing, gardening, caretaking, hairdressing or beautician, or administrative work. In addition, a significant number of men, and even more women, of Surinamese descent in the Netherlands have acquired bachelor's, master's and PhD degrees.

Figure 27. Number of Surinamese who immigrated to the Netherlands, 2003–2011

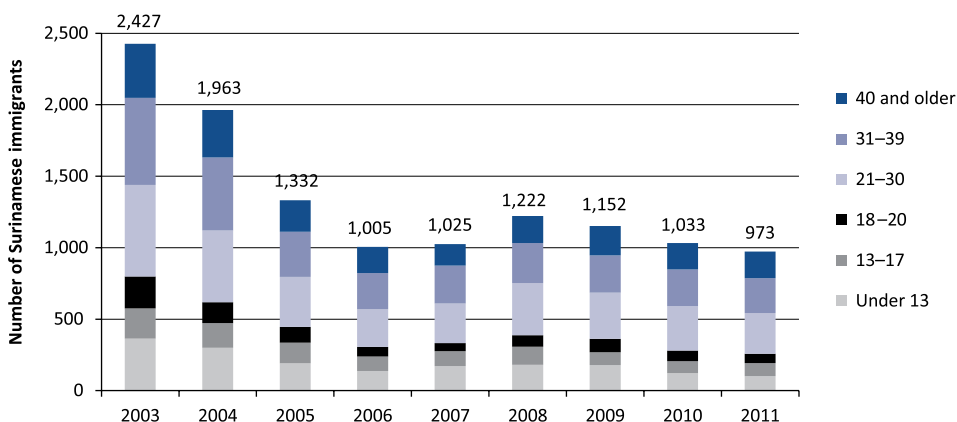
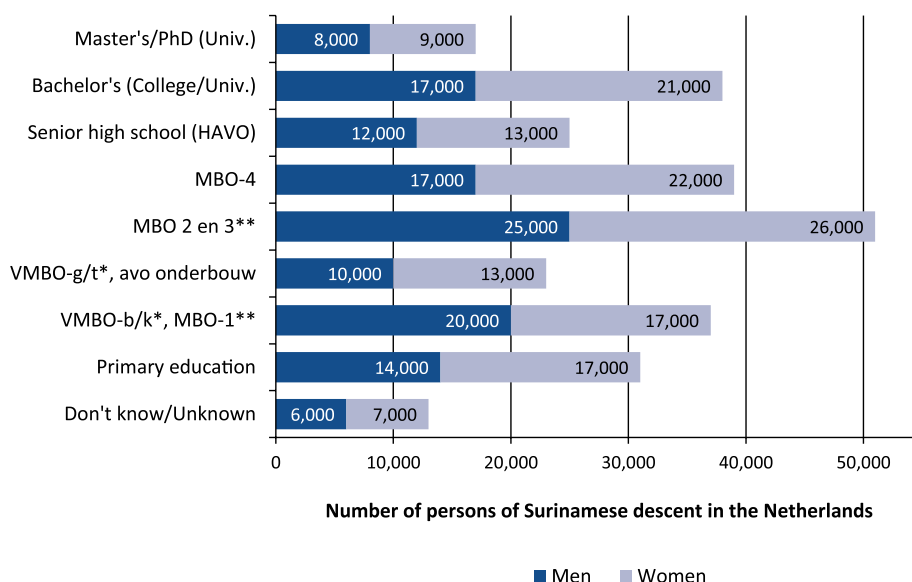


Figure 28. Highest completed educational level of persons of Surinamese descent in the Netherlands, as of 1 January 2013



Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

Notes: * VMBO (*voorbereidend middelbaar beroeps onderwijs*, which means “preparatory middle-level applied education”) education lasts four years, from the age of 12 to 16. It combines vocational training with theoretical education in languages, mathematics, history, arts and sciences. The b and k streams pay relatively more attention to vocational training, while the g and t streams are mostly theoretical education and prepare students for further education at the senior high school level.

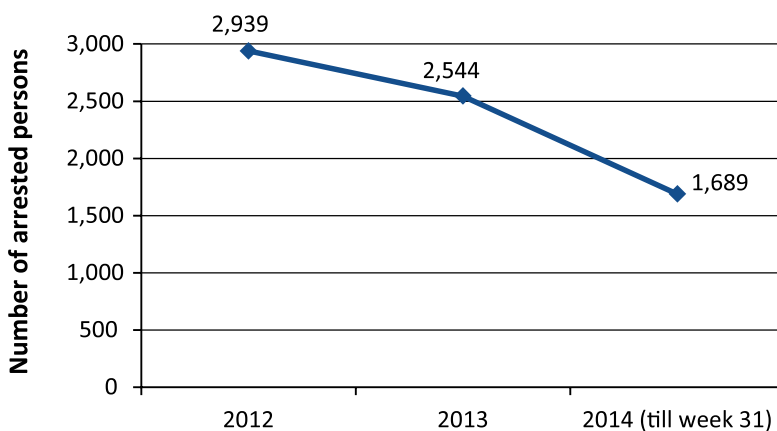
**MBO (*middelbaar beroeps onderwijs*, which means “middle-level applied education”) provides continued vocational training and follows on the VMBO-b and -k streams.

5.1.3 France and French Guiana

According to the latest official report of the French Parliament in 2012, there were 8,369 Surinamese living in French Guiana with a legal status. They typically have a *cart sejours* (legal residency card). This figure does not include children under the age of 18 because they are not required to obtain a residency card. The French Government figure is much lower than the 27,620 Surinamese migrants living in French Guiana according to the UN DESA Population Division. We suspect that the difference can in part be explained by the fact that the UN migration data count both children and adults, whereas the French Government figure excludes children. Moreover, all persons who are Suriname-born or Surinamese citizens are considered Surinamese migrants by UN, while the French data only refer to Surinamese citizens. Also, a recent report from L’Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques (INSEE), a French research institute, provides a high number of Suriname-born migrants in French Guiana: 21,564 persons. This indicates that Suriname-born migrants made up the largest

immigrant group in this neighbouring country in 2009 (Hurpeau, 2012). In the same year, 1,700 Suriname-born migrants in French Guiana acquired French nationality, representing 7.9 per cent of the total population of Surinamese migrants in the country (ibid.).

Figure 29. Number of irregular Surinamese migrants arrested in French Guiana, from 2012 to mid-2014



Source: Embassy of France in Suriname, unpublished data, 2014.

In addition to the registered migrants, the French immigration police estimates that there may be between 9,000 and 10,000 irregular Surinamese living in French Guiana, which is about equal to the number of registered Surinamese.⁹⁶ Irregular migrants are, when they are encountered, arrested by the French *gendarme*. In the past two years, the number of arrested irregular Surinamese migrants in French Guiana surpassed 2,500⁹⁷ (Figure 29).

About 85 per cent of these arrested migrants are directly deported. These are typically persons who have been arrested in the border community St. Laurent, and are quickly deported across the river with canoes. If irregular Surinamese migrants are arrested further away from the border, they can stay for several days in the deportation centre of Cayenne. The average retention time in this location is 8–10 days. In the past three years, the deportation centre in Cayenne received the following numbers of Surinamese deportees: 331 in 2012; 178 in 2013; and 77 in 2014 (till week 31).⁹⁸

⁹⁶ Personal communication with Mr Le Clech, Police Attaché for Suriname and Guyana, Embassy of France in Suriname, 6 August 2014.

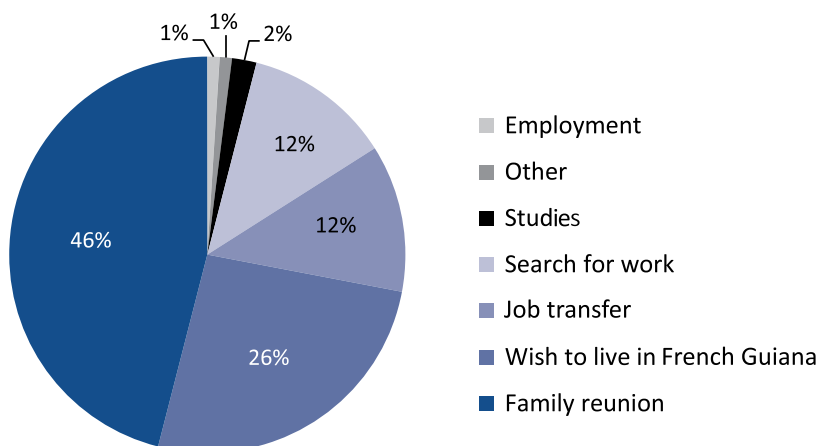
⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ Personal communication with Mr Le Clech, Police Attaché for Suriname and Guyana, Embassy of France in Suriname, 6 August and 26 September 2014.

In French Guiana, like in the Netherlands, migration of Surinamese can be qualified as chain migration. The first migrants came in the 1960s to Kourou, to work towards development. Many of the later Surinamese migrants also settled in this community.⁹⁹ In 2009, 79 per cent of Suriname-born migrants indicated that they went to live with family members or friends upon their arrival in French Guiana (Hurpeau, 2012).

In the 1980s, the Interior War in Suriname became a primary reason for Surinamese to migrate to French Guiana (Hurpeau, 2012). This political event increased the total number of immigrants in French Guiana considerably. As a result, in 1990, almost two in every five migrants in French Guiana was born in Suriname (38.2%) (ibid.). Between 1999 and 2009, the share of Suriname-born persons among migrants in French Guiana was about one third of all migrants (respectively, 33.2% and 32.3%) (Hurpeau, 2012). For present-day Surinamese migrants to French Guiana, the main motivations are family reunion, the wish to live in French Guiana, job transfer and search for work (Figure 30). The favourable socioeconomic conditions in French Guiana, coupled with the relative ease of access to social benefits, health care and education, play an important role in the decision to migrate to this country (ibid.). In a national migration survey, 85 per cent of Suriname-born migrants indicated that the living conditions (which include salary and social benefits, education, housing) were a prime advantage of living in French Guyana (ibid.).

Figure 30. Main reasons for migration among Suriname-born migrants in French Guiana



Source: Hurpeau, 2012.

⁹⁹ Personal communication with Mr Prom, Ambassador of France to Suriname, 24 July 2014.

With regard to education, we find that children from Suriname’s border communities, such as Kawemhakan and Cottica, typically attend elementary school in French Guiana because there is no Surinamese school in or near their own communities. When these children want to continue their education, they cannot easily attend secondary education in Paramaribo because they are fluent in French but poorly speak Dutch. Hence, they may seek to become a French resident in order to pursue secondary education. On the other hand, very few Surinamese migrate to French Guiana or France to study because France does not provide scholarships to Surinamese students.

5.1.4 United States

During the eighth national census (2012), 861 persons reported that they had lived in the United States; 471 of them were men and 390 were women. Hence, they may be considered return migrants from the United States. The census reported only 141 Surinamese emigrants to the United States in the period of 2004–2012. According to the UN DESA Population Division data on migrant stocks, however, 7,981 Surinamese migrants are currently living in the United States.

Available data from the US Embassy in Georgetown indicate that in the period of 1930–2009, a growing number of persons with Surinamese nationality obtained lawful permanent resident status in the United States. Data are available from the fiscal year of 1930 to 2013. From 2010, data have been specified by year with no significant peaks.

Table 17. Number of persons with Surinamese nationality who obtained lawful permanent resident status in the United States, 1930–2013

	1930–1939	1940–1949	1950–1959	1960–1969	1970–1979	1980–1989	1990–1999	2000–2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Number	33	130	299	612	714	1,357	2,285	2,363	202	167	216	170

Source: Data from the US Embassy in Georgetown (obtained from IOM, 2014).

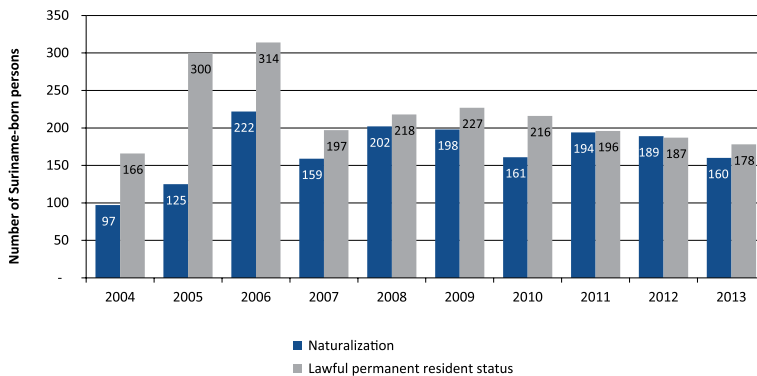
From 2004 to 2014, 781 persons with Surinamese nationality legally migrated to the United States. They either became eligible for a green card or are in the process of naturalization (obtaining US citizenship). In the same period, additional 394 Surinamese passport holders moved to the United States to study (students do not obtain a migrant status) and 116 Surinamese went to work in the United States.¹⁰⁰ Surinamese citizens who came to work but did not have a

¹⁰⁰ Personal communication with Ms Frangie, Consular Services, Political and Economic Section, Embassy of the United States in Suriname, 4 December 2014.

green card included persons working with various international organizations such as the Organization of American States and the International Monetary Fund, among others.¹⁰¹

In the past decade, the number of Suriname-born persons who obtained lawful permanent resident status in the United States has fluctuated, with a peak of 314 persons in 2006 and a low of 166 persons in 2004. The number of Suriname-born persons who became naturalized US citizens shows a similar trend, with a low in 2004 (97 persons naturalized) and a high in 2006 (222 persons naturalized).

Figure 31. Number of Suriname-born persons who received lawful permanent resident status and number of Suriname-born persons who were naturalized in the United States, 2004–2013



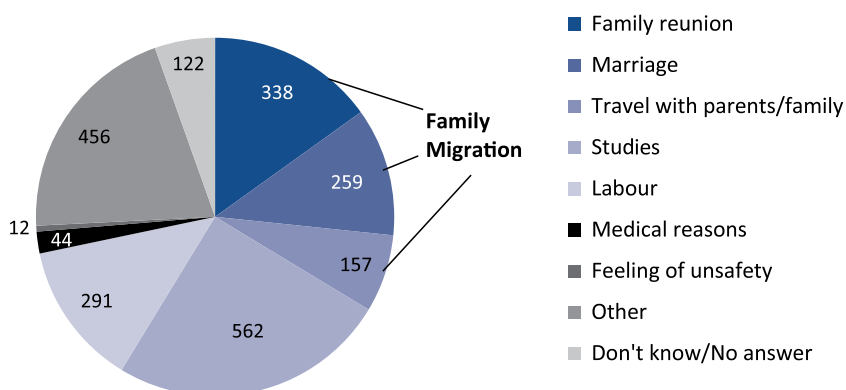
Source: US Department of Homeland Security, Yearbook of Immigration Statistics: 2013.

5.2 Labour and economic migration

Based on the eighth national census data, the General Bureau of Statistics reports that 291 Surinamese migrated abroad for the primary purpose of labour from 2004 to 2012. Labour was only the third main reason to emigrate, after family migration (including marriage) and studies (Figure 32). Even though true emigration is probably underreported, Figure 32 presents the relatively most important reasons for emigrating from Suriname in the past decade.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

Figure 32. Primary reasons for emigrating from Suriname

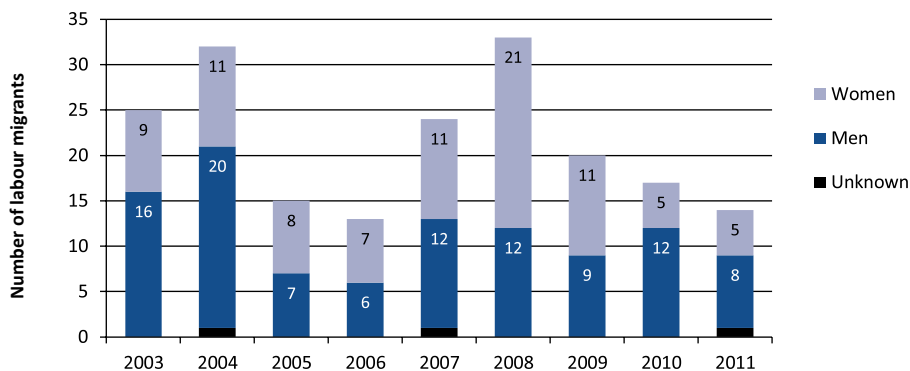


Source: General Bureau of Statistics, *Resultaten Achtste (8e) Volks- en Woningtelling in Suriname* (Volume I), 2013, p. 89.

The relative importance of labour migration among other reasons differs between destination countries. About half of the Surinamese migrants to Sint Maarten (48.1%) and one third of Surinamese migrants to Curaçao (32.9%) are labour migrants, versus less than one out of ten Surinamese migrants to the Netherlands (9.4%) (ABS, 2013) (Figure 34).

Data from the Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics (2014) show that from 2003 to 2011, a total of 102 men and 88 women formally migrated to the Netherlands as labour migrants (Figure 33). The Central Bureau of Statistics defines labour migration as migration with the purpose to work in the Netherlands, either as a wage worker or independently. These data are fairly similar to those of Suriname's General Bureau of Statistics, which reports a total of 142 persons who migrated to the Netherlands for work in the period of 2004–2012.

Figure 33. Number of women and men who migrated to the Netherlands for labour, 2003–2011



Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

5.3 Family migration

Family migration has become the primary motive to leave Suriname. We used the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics definition of family migration to include these concepts: family reunion (*gezinshereniging*),¹⁰² jointly migrating family members (*mee-emigrerende gezinsleden*)¹⁰³ and family establishment (*gezinsvorming*).¹⁰⁴ The General Bureau of Statistics data suggest that of all emigrants in the past decade (2004–2012), one third left Suriname for reasons of family migration (33.6%). The share of migrants who left for the primary reason of family migration ranged from 11.1 per cent of emigrants to Sint Maarten to 38.6 per cent of migrants to Curaçao.

Even though the General Bureau of Statistics data suggest otherwise, the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics data suggest that family migration is the primary motivation for Surinamese migrants to go to the Netherlands. In the

¹⁰² Family reunion refers to taking up residence in the destination country by members of family units that already existed prior to the person's migration, whereby one or more family members join family members who earlier migrated to the destination country. Examples are spouses, underage children and parents who go live with their children. The Netherlands holds that family members other than the spouse or underage children may receive a residency permit in the category "extended family reunion" (*verruimde gezinshereniging*) if these family members in the country of origin were also part of the household, and if the Secretary of Justice stipulates that leaving these family members behind would be "disproportionally hard".

¹⁰³ Jointly migrating family members are family members (e.g. of a labour migrant) who migrate in the same year as the labour migrant.

¹⁰⁴ Family establishment refers to taking up residence in the destination country to get married, to live in registered partnership, or to live together with a partner who already lives in the destination country and with whom the person has not lived together before.

2002–2011 period, three quarters of registered Suriname-born migrants in the Netherlands had moved to the country for family migration (Figure 34).

Figure 34. Primary motive for migration by destination country

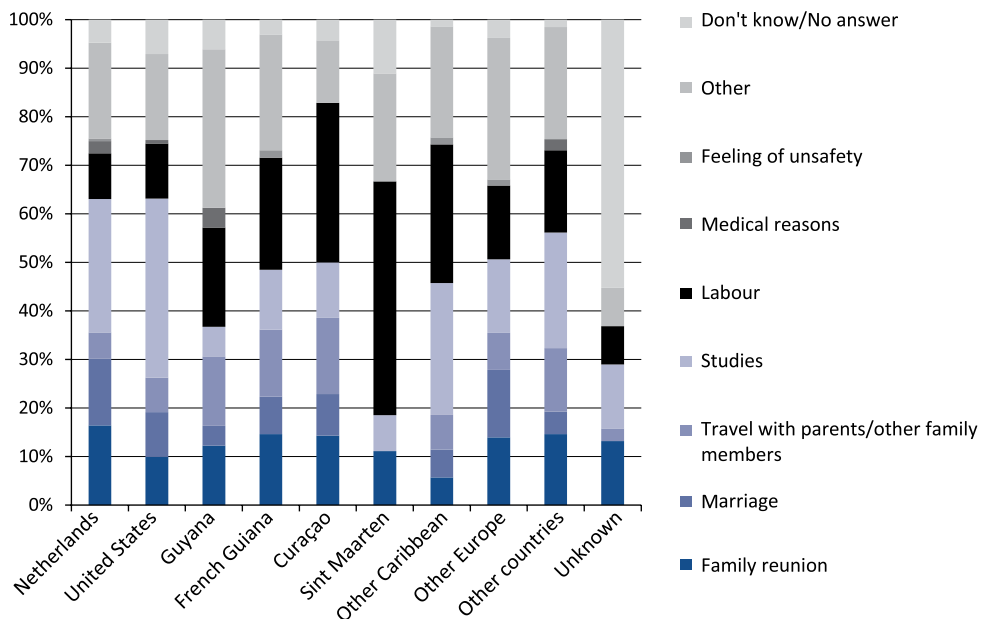
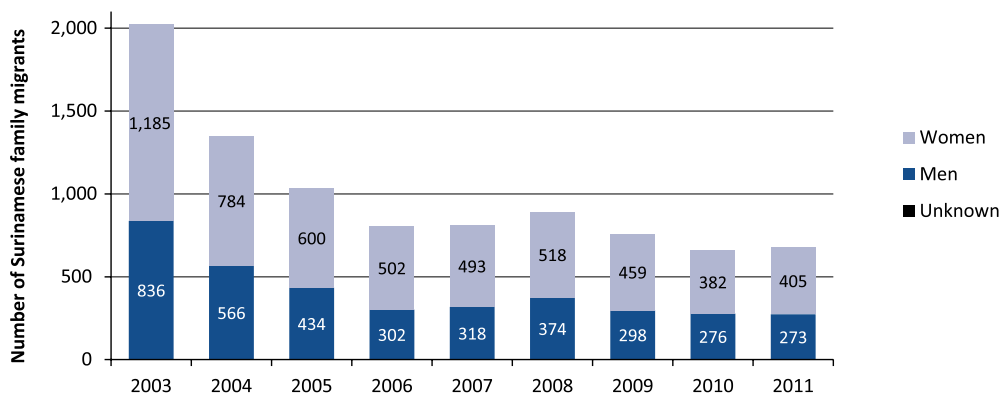


Figure 35. Number of Surinamese who went to the Netherlands for family migration, 2003–2011



Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

5.4 Student migration

Though Suriname has its own public university, the AdeK University, with faculties of medicine, technology, and social sciences, and though education is free in the country, studying abroad is still a major reason for migration. National census data suggest that in the 2004–2012 period, a total of 562 Surinamese emigrated to another country to study (ABS, 2013). Most student migrants went to the Netherlands (414), followed by the United States (52) and various Caribbean countries (total: 32; excluding French Guiana). These figures are likely gross underestimates. Most (365 students, accounting for 64.9%) student migrants were between 15 and 24 years of age when they left.

A 2006 study for the World Bank and the Dutch Ministry of Finance indicates that the Netherlands remains a popular destination for Surinamese students, because in the Netherlands they have more or less equal rights as EU citizens (Unger and Siegel, 2006). Increasingly, however, students move to other countries including Brazil and the Caribbean. For example, Suriname has special arrangements with Cuba on medical studies. Currently, only 6 per cent of Suriname student migrants are in the Caribbean, but this could change. The 2006 study found that 65 per cent of Surinamese wishing to study abroad planned to go to the Netherlands, while 29 per cent planned to go to the Caribbean (*ibid.*).

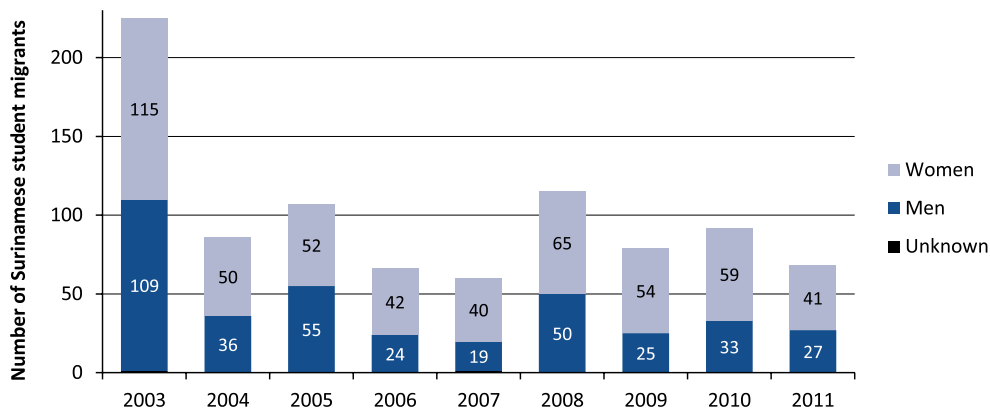
The Bureau for Education Information and Study Facilities (*Bureau Onderwijs Informatie en Studiefaciliteiten, BOS*), which is under Suriname's Ministry of Education and Community Development (*Ministerie van Onderwijs en Volksontwikkeling, MINOV*), manages the study grants that have been made available by different parties (e.g. foreign embassies, Surinamese Government) to selected Surinamese students who wish to study abroad. We were unable to obtain data from this office. The Indian Embassy does have study grants for Surinamese of Indian descent, but few youth apply. So far only two persons have used this opportunity, one of whom has recently returned after completing his studies.¹⁰⁵

The Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics reports on the number of migrants who have travelled to the Netherlands for completion of studies. The data show that in the past decade (2003–2011) the number of Surinamese who have been registered as student migrants has fluctuated between 224 (2003) and 59 (2007) (Figure 36). These figures do not show all persons who left for the Netherlands to study. Dutch passports holders, for example, are not included in these

¹⁰⁵ Personal communication with Her Excellency Ms Subashini, Ambassador of India to Suriname, 8 October 2014.

statistics, and neither do students who had another primary reason for migration (e.g. family reunion).

Figure 36. Number of Surinamese who migrated to the Netherlands for studies, 2003–2011



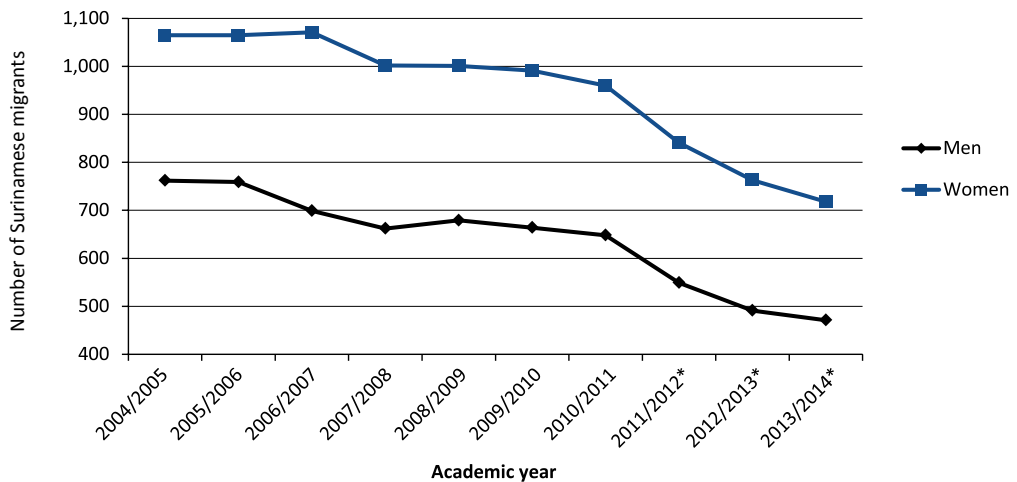
Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

All Surinamese doctors who travel to the Netherlands for specialization return to Suriname after their studies. Following an agreement between Suriname and the Netherlands, they cannot be registered as medical doctors in the Netherlands.¹⁰⁶

Among first-generation Surinamese migrants in the Netherlands, more women than men are registered at an academic institution (Figure 37) (complete data is provided in Annex VI). In the academic years 2004/2005 to 2013/2014, women consistently make up between 58 per cent and 61 per cent of first-generation Surinamese students. For both groups, however, we observe a downward trend in the number of students in academic institutions. This finding can in part be explained by the decrease in the number of Surinamese who migrated to the Netherlands in the past decade. When we look at first- and second-generation Surinamese migrants, we find that the number of students in academic institutions in the Netherlands has somewhat fluctuated but remained relatively constant.

¹⁰⁶ Personal communication with Dr M. Eersel, Director for Health, Ministry of Health, 10 September 2014.

Figure 37. Number of first-generation Surinamese migrants who have registered at an academic institution from academic year 2004/2005 through academic year 2013/2014, by sex



Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

Note: *Preliminary data.

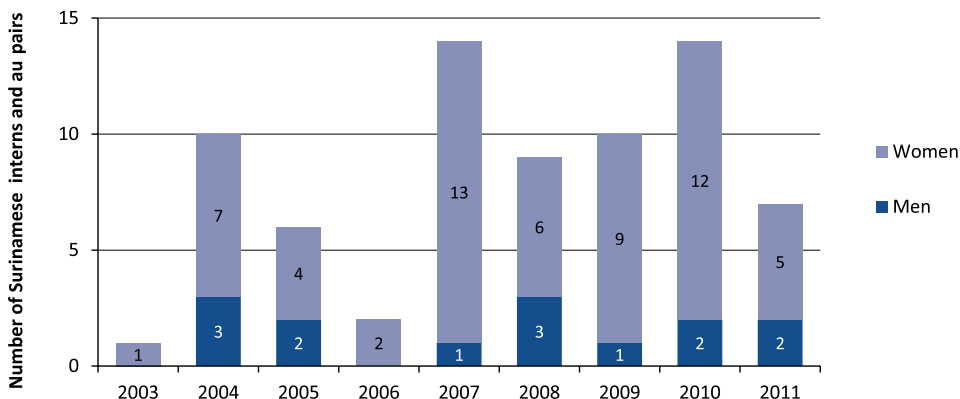
5.5 Migration for other reasons

Apart from the listed reasons, there are many other reasons for emigration, including medical treatment, internship/au-pair schemes, asylum and a feeling of insecurity in the home country. Suriname’s census counted a total of 44 persons who left the country for medical reasons in the 2004–2012 period. Almost all of them went to the Netherlands (38), and a couple of individuals went to the United States (1), Guyana (2) and “other countries” (3) (ABS, 2013). Another 12 persons migrated in this period because they felt “unsafe”¹⁰⁷ in Suriname. The reasons behind this answer were not mentioned.

Another reason for emigration is to become an intern or au pair abroad. The Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics data suggest that annually very limited numbers of Surinamese become interns and au pairs in the Netherlands (Figure 38). We have no information about Surinamese who migrated as interns or au pairs to other countries.

¹⁰⁷ The national census data do not provide further explanation of what is meant with “unsafe”.

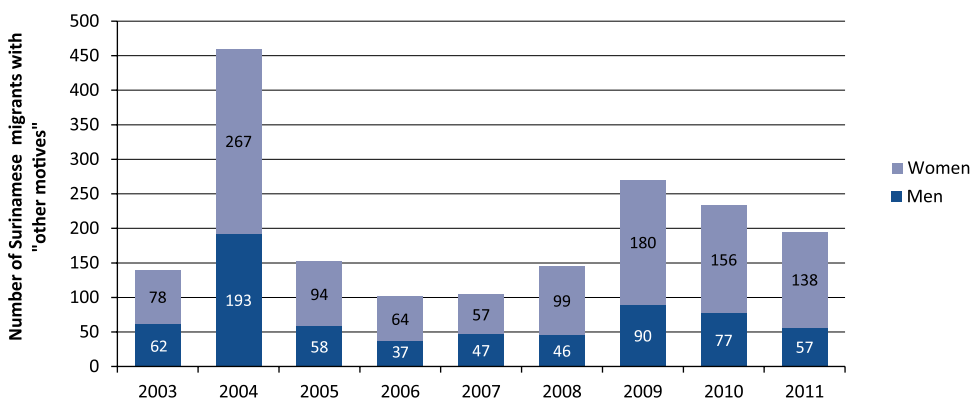
Figure 38. Number of Surinamese who migrated to the Netherlands to become interns or au pairs, 2003–2011



Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

The number of Surinamese migrants to the Netherlands with motives other than labour, family reunion, studies, asylum or internship/au-pair schemes fluctuated between 2003 and 2011, from a low of just over 100 to a high of 460 migrants (Figure 39).

Figure 39. Number of Surinamese who migrated to the Netherlands for motives other than labour, family reunion, studies, asylum or internship/au-pair schemes, 2003–2011



Source: Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

6. SOCIOECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND IMPACTS

6.1 Education

6.1.1 Migrant children and access to education in Suriname

The Director of Education of the Suriname Ministry of Education and Community Development (*Ministerie van Onderwijs en Volksontwikkeling, MINOV*) asserts that in Suriname's education policy, "education is for anyone and every child has a right to education, regardless of whether the child is legal or illegal".¹⁰⁸ This vision is in line with the Constitution of Suriname, which states that "anyone has a right to education" (Article 38, Section 1). The Ministry's Head of school inspection at the primary level confirmed that migrant children, regardless of their status, can attend primary education.¹⁰⁹ The Ministry does not keep track of the number of migrant children in schools in Suriname.¹¹⁰ Also, the Ministry's department for research and planning does not have data on the number of foreign-national children in schools in Suriname.¹¹¹

To access education from a Surinamese institution, a personal file of the child from the Suriname Civil Registry is required. This personal file can only be obtained if the child has a residence status. In cases where the child does not have a legal status in Suriname, a legal resident can sign as a legal guardian in order for the child to enter school. Also, at the middle-school (*voortgezet onderwijs junioren, VOJ*) level, migrants have no problem attending school. The Director of Education asserted that he had never heard of migrant children who had problems entering the Surinamese school system.¹¹²

The situation appears to become more complex, however, when undocumented youngsters wish to enter higher education. The Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname expressed that it is impossible for migrant children to

¹⁰⁸ Personal communication with Mr Peneux, Director of Education, Ministry of Education and Community Development, 23 September 2014.

¹⁰⁹ Personal communication with Mr Koorndijk, Interim Head, School Inspection for Primary Education, Ministry of Education and Community Development, 6 October 2014.

¹¹⁰ Personal communication with Ms Leefland, Director, Directorate of Research, Planning and Monitoring, Ministry of Education and Community Development, 6 October 2014.

¹¹¹ Ibid.

¹¹² Personal communication with Mr Peneux, Director of Education, Ministry of Education and Community Development, 23 September 2014.

continue their education after the middle-school level if they do not have proper residency papers: “Even when born here, [irregular migrant] youngsters have a problem to enter higher education [...]. If you want to go to teacher’s college, university, or higher vocational training.”¹¹³ A staff member from the Rights of the Child Bureau confirmed that there were cases in which migrant children were unable to attend school because of their residency status.¹¹⁴

In the Haitian community, this problem was not observed and it was ascertained that Haitian children had been attending school in Suriname regardless of their status.¹¹⁵ We were unable to obtain clarification from officials of the Ministry of Education about this matter.

Migrants with a foreign high school diploma who wish to study at the AdeK University must have their diploma validated by the Ministry of Education. If they have a foreign nationality, they will need to submit a nationality declaration from their embassy. Legal residency in Suriname is not a requirement.¹¹⁶

6.1.2 Brain drain

A primary concern with regard to migration from Suriname is the loss of human capital. In the chapter on migration history, it is shown that many Surinamese travelled to the Netherlands for studies. They were and are typically persons with higher education capacities, and a significant share of them do not return. In addition, the 1950s–1980s in particular were characterized by the emigration of mid-level professionals such as nurses, who were actively recruited by Dutch hospitals and care institutions.

A study by the AdeK University in Suriname and the Erasmus School of Economics in the Netherlands uses econometric models to show strong negative long-run effects of emigration on human capital formation at secondary¹¹⁷ and tertiary¹¹⁸ school levels (Dulam and Frances, 2011). In other words, the more

¹¹³ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

¹¹⁴ Personal communication with Mr Saredjo, policy staff, Rights of the Child Bureau, Ministry of Social Affairs and Housing, 9 September 2014.

¹¹⁵ Personal communication with: His Excellency Mr Jospitre, Head of Mission, Consulate of Haiti in Suriname, 14 August 2014; Ms A. Pierre, Chair, L’Union Fait la Force, 16 August 2014.

¹¹⁶ Personal communication with the Office of Student Affairs, AdeK University, 9 October 2014.

¹¹⁷ This variable was measured as the number of enrolled students at secondary schools as a share of the school-age population at the secondary level.

¹¹⁸ This variable was measured as the number of enrolled students at the university as a share of the school-age population at the tertiary level. These numbers were obtained from the AdeK University and the General Bureau of Statistics.

Surinamese migrate, the lower the share of Surinamese who attend high school or are enrolled at the AdeK University. In addition, the authors find that the effect of emigration on the rate of graduation from the university¹¹⁹ is negative in both the short and long term (ibid.). Simply put – the more Surinamese migrate, the lower the proportion of Surinamese who graduate from the AdeK University. These effects are felt over a substantial period of time.

The study concludes that in the case of Suriname, brain drain is a reality (Dulam and Frances, 2011). This trend is attributed to several factors. In the first place, emigration is fuelled by higher wages paid abroad. It is difficult to entice highly skilled Surinamese to stay in Suriname or to return to Suriname if they can earn several times more abroad.

Skilled Surinamese could be attracted by offering attractive career opportunities, but characteristics of the institutional system may frustrate such a policy. For example, elderly highly positioned people may be reluctant to make place for young professionals, and highly skilled job-seekers may be discouraged by ethnic fractionalization and patronage politics, which favour background (political, ethnic) over diplomas and capabilities (ibid.). Secondly, technological constraints in Suriname could discourage young highly skilled individuals to build their career in the country. An environment in which acquired skills cannot be used might push the highly educated away to a foreign country. Technological innovation could therefore be a catalyst for brain gain (Dulam and Frances, 2011).

6.2 Access to health care

According to the Constitution of Suriname (Article 36)¹²⁰ every person within Suriname, irrespective of nationality, has the right to health care and the Surinamese Government has the positive obligation¹²¹ to guarantee the enjoyment of this right. The Constitution is in compliance with all health-relevant laws including the Suriname treaty law. Neither the Constitution nor the health provisions treaty laws ratified by Suriname differentiate on the grounds of nationality (Castelen et al., 2012)

¹¹⁹ The number of students who graduated from the university as a share of the school-age population at the tertiary level.

¹²⁰ The Constitution of Suriname (S.B. 1987, no. 116) S.B. 1992, no. 38, Article 36.

¹²¹ Positive obligation refers to acknowledgement, fulfillment and protection of this right by the State of Suriname to guarantee the full enjoyment of the right to health care by every individual within the Surinamese jurisdiction including those belonging to migrants.

In August 2014, in line the Surinamese Government's constitutional obligations, the new National Basic Health Insurance Law (*Basiszorgverzekering*)¹²² was adopted as part of the new national social security system. The law stipulates that "every resident of Suriname is responsible for financing the expenses of personal health care, and is for this matter obliged to at least obtain the basic health insurance" (National Basic Health Insurance Law, S.B. 2014, No. 114, Article 3, Section 2). The National Basic Health Insurance is a universal health coverage plan and available for all legal residents of Suriname, including foreign migrants. The fees are: SRD 55 (€ 12.50) for children aged 0 to 16; SRD 75 (€ 17) for young adults aged 17 to 20; SRD 165 (€ 37.50) for adults aged 21 to 59; and SRD 240 (€ 55) for the elderly aged 60 and older. Children (0 to 16 years old) and senior citizens (60 and older) with Surinamese nationality receive this insurance for free; foreign nationals of all ages need to pay the fees. Severely disabled persons or other persons who are partially or entirely unable to work may – after investigation – obtain government subsidy for the National Basic Health Insurance fees.

Of course, clients can also opt for one of the other health insurance plans that are offered by one of the three Suriname-based insurance companies or for a foreign health coverage plan that includes Suriname.

As a requirement in obtaining legal (long-term) residency in Suriname, migrants have to show proof that they have health insurance. When the migrant has signed up for a health insurance plan, the insurance company notifies the Department of Alien Affairs. Depending on what insurance company is selected, the payment terms slightly differ. At one company (Assuria), the annual insurance fee has to be paid all at once; at another company (Self Reliance), payment in two terms is possible. The State Health Insurance (*Staats Ziekenfonds, SZF*) allows payment in three-month terms, unless the migrant does not have legal residency with a validity of at least three months; in that case, the applicant has to pay the insurance fees for one year in advance. Payment regulations for Surinamese citizens are different and typically allow for payment in terms and through a bank loan.¹²³

When a migrant applies for legal residency on behalf of several family members, health insurance fees can be substantial. Moreover, for persons who already have certain health complaints, the costs of health coverage plans other than the new National Basic Health Insurance can double or triple (*ibid.*). Indeed,

¹²² Wet van 9 september 2014, houdende regels over de invoering van een basiszorgverzekering (Wet Nationale Basiszorgverzekering) (S.B. 2014, no. 114).

¹²³ Personal communication with Mr A. Soeperman, insurance agent, 17 September 2014.

health insurance expenses have discouraged some migrants from pursuing their residency application.¹²⁴ Other migrants only close off a health insurance plans to submit their residency applications, and once the insurance plans expire migrants do not renew them. As a result, a significant share of migrants, particularly those of low-income groups, are uninsured. Another reason to remain uninsured is that some migrant groups, such as the Guyanese, are not used to paying for health care. During the validation meeting in November 2014, a representative of Suriname's academic hospital indicated that uninsured patients incurred high expenses for hospitals. Out of humanitarian concerns, the hospital treated all patients. However, when the patient was uninsured and had no money, it remained unclear who would settle the bill. Ultimately, it was often the hospital that would bear the brunt of these expenses.

When uninsured migrants fall ill and the costs are not too high, they tend to pay out of pocket.¹²⁵ For example, the standard fee for consultation with a family doctor is SRD 65 (€ 15), though it has been recorded that family doctors occasionally have their own payment systems and charge on the basis of who their patients are. For example, Dutch nationals may be asked to pay € 50 for consultation, and Brazilian nationals are typically overcharged.¹²⁶

If health expenses are higher, migrants may seek health services abroad, where they do not have to pay for care. In Guyana, for example, Guyanese can get medical attention at any public health facility at no costs.¹²⁷ Meanwhile, Brazilians and Haitians, when confronted with serious health matters, often travel to French Guiana, where high-quality health care is available to anyone free of costs.¹²⁸ Brazilians living outside Brazil can also obtain free health care in their home country, but the costs of travelling back to Brazil make this a less favourable option. Even though there are no formal figures on the number of migrants who seek health care abroad, conversations with representatives of the different migrant groups suggest that their numbers may be substantial.

Dutch citizens who migrate to Suriname often do not remove their names from the Dutch Community Civil Registry (*Gemeentelijke Basis Administratie*,

¹²⁴ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

¹²⁵ Personal communication with: His Excellency Mr Jospitre, Head of Mission, Consulate of Haiti in Suriname, 14 August 2014; Ms A. Pierre, Chair, L'Union Fait la Force, 16 August 2014; His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

¹²⁶ Discussion at IOM training on stigma and discrimination, 8 October 2014.

¹²⁷ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

¹²⁸ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr Jospitre, Head of Mission, Consulate of Haiti in Suriname, 14 August 2014.

GBA) so that they can continue to make use of the Dutch mandatory health insurance (*zorgverzekering*).

Prior to the implementation of the Basic Health Insurance programme, migrants from low-income groups who had been in Suriname for at least a year could apply for registration as a poor or very poor person (*on- en minvermogenden*) with the Ministry of Social Affairs and Housing (*Sociale Zaken en Volkshuisvesting, SoZaVo*). This status came with a card that provided free access to public health. In order to register, the migrant needed to submit a medical declaration, proof of legal residency and proof of registration with the Civil Registry.¹²⁹ In the case of irregular migrants, the direction can make an exception on humanitarian grounds. The national database does not allow for extracting how many persons with a nationality other than Surinamese have received free medical assistance through this system.¹³⁰

6.3 Social security benefits

6.3.1 Access to social security benefits for migrants in Suriname

In addition to the National Basic Health Insurance plan, the newly implemented national social security system also includes regulations with regard to public pensions and the minimum wage.¹³¹ The minimum wage (SRD 4.29: ~€ 1–)¹³² must be paid to any person who is formally employed, regardless of citizenship. This regulation does not apply to the informal sector, where many migrants find employment. Public pensions are paid to legal residents aged 60 and older who have contributed to the public pension fund for a period of at least five years (Constitution of Suriname, Article 3, Section 1). Hence, migrants who have been formally employed have a right to public pension, too. The minimum pension per month is currently SRD 300 (€ 68), but the exact amount depends on the number of years that the person has paid the pension premium and the wage level of the person 60 months prior to retirement.

Other social benefits, such as social welfare payments (SRD 33–40.50: ~€ 7.50–9/month) and financial support for persons with disability (SRD 325: ~€ 74/month), are only available for Surinamese nationals.

¹²⁹ Personal communication with Mr Moerawi, Head, General Societal Care Department, Ministry of Social Affairs and Housing, 15 September 2014.

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ Wet van 9 september 2014, houdende regels betreffende de invoering van het minimum uurloon (Wet Minimum Uurloon), S.B. 2014, no. 112.

¹³² Starting 1 January 2015; in the next two years, the minimum wage will be increased annually.

The Ministry of Social Affairs and Housing does not have insights into the number of migrant children that live in children's homes or foster care. A new law for social institutions will help organize and register the institutional population.¹³³

6.3.2 Social security benefits for return migrants from the Netherlands

The Dutch Government, through its Social Insurance Bank (*Sociale Verzekeringsbank, SVB*), has developed special arrangements with regard to social benefits for migrants living in the Netherlands who live or wish to return to their countries of origin. These arrangements can be divided in two main categories:

- The return migrant receives the Dutch social benefits that he or she is entitled to in Suriname;
- The return migrant makes use of a special return migration arrangement, which includes financial support for moving and a monthly stipend.

The Social Insurance Bank has registered 5,000–6,000 migrants in Suriname who receive some form of Dutch social benefits in Suriname; almost all these persons have Surinamese nationality.¹³⁴

The first category of Dutch social benefit recipients includes persons who receive a basic pension (*algemene ouderdomswet, AOW*) because they have reached the retirement age (nowadays usually age 65). The specific AOW amount depends on the number of years the person has lived in the Netherlands and the level of his or her income during these years. On average, the AOW recipients receive about € 1,000 per month. About 4,200 persons receive Dutch AOW in Suriname, in addition to 500 Surinamese who receive elderly pensions from the Social Insurance Bank through the return migrant arrangement. If they are Surinamese citizens, they receive the Suriname old-age pension (*algemene ouderdomsvoorziening, AOV*) of SRD 525 (~€ 117) on top of the Dutch pension payment.

¹³³ Wet van 9 Januari 2014 houdende regels inzake het exploiteren van instellingen voor opvang van personen (Wet Opvanginstellingen), S.B. 2014, no. 7. (Personal communication with Mr Sariredjo, policy staff, Rights of the Child Bureau, Ministry of Social Affairs and Housing, 9 September 2014.)

¹³⁴ Personal communication with Ms Robles de Medina, Social Insurance Bank, Embassy of the Netherlands in Suriname, 6 October 2014.

The Central Bureau for Statistics of the Netherlands reports a steady and substantial increase in the number of persons aged 67 and older within the Surinamese diaspora, who opted to reside in Suriname:

- In 2012, there were 3,428 Surinamese pensioners, who would have remitted € 15.1 million into Suriname had they remained in the diaspora;
- In 2013, there were 3,681 Surinamese pensioners, who would have remitted € 16.8 million into Suriname had they remained in the diaspora;
- In the first quarter of 2014, there were 3,822 Surinamese pensioners, who would have remitted € 18.4 million (full year 2014) into Suriname had they remained in the diaspora.¹³⁵

Dutch social benefit recipients also include persons who have been ill or disabled for at least two years, and have been declared eligible for the Dutch social disability benefit (*arbeidsongeschiktheidsuitkering, WIA*). This benefit, which is given to those who are incapable of working due to illnesses or disabilities, corresponds with a percentage share of the last-earned income, and the specific share depends on the degree of incapability as determined by a medical doctor. The duration of receiving pension also depends on the degree of incapability. A person who has been declared 100 per cent incapable of work will receive 75 per cent of the last-earned wage (with a maximum amount of € 198.28) until the retirement age.

In addition to AOW and WIA, a smaller number of persons receive the following Dutch social security benefits in Suriname:

- Child benefits – this arrangement was cancelled in the year 2000;
- Benefits for persons who have been ill or disabled since they were young (*wet werk en arbeidsondersteuning jonggehandicapten, WAJONG*);
- Surviving relatives' pension (*algemene nabestaandenwet, ANW*).

¹³⁵ Data from the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics, obtained by Ms L. Redan, Deputy Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Suriname.

The return migration arrangement is a special arrangement to facilitate the return of migrants living in the Netherlands. Through this arrangement, eligible persons who wish to return to Suriname can receive a moving allowance of € 2,100 for one person and € 4,200 for a family. In addition, eligible return migrants can receive a monthly allowance of between € 420 and € 610, depending on one's household composition.¹³⁶

Similar arrangements with other countries do not exist.

6.3.3 Other support for return migrants

In addition to the Return Migration Law, which is executed by the Social Insurance Bank, there are other programmes that support return migrants with their return and reintegration.

IOM has developed the Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration (AVRR) programme for irregular migrants who wish to return to their home countries. This programme pays for travel expenses up to a limit and offers the return migrant a fixed amount of money that can be used to facilitate reintegration. The money is not provided in cash, but rather in tangible goods or payment for housing, education and so forth. In 2014, already 22 irregular Surinamese migrants in the Netherlands returned with the aid of this programme.¹³⁷

The Dutch Mediation Agency for Return (*Bureau Maatwerk bij Terugkeer*) has as its mission to support the voluntary return of prior asylum-seekers and irregular migrants to their countries of origin.¹³⁸ In Suriname, this organization works with the Institute for Research and Accounting Services. The organization *Maatwerk* and its partner organizations in Suriname help in the area of information dissemination, housing, medical care, credit and job search. The return migrant also receives € 1,000 and is assisted in making a decision on how to spend this monetary assistance.

6.4 Remittances

Remittances can be sent through legal and formal channels, legal and informal channels, and illegal channels. Legal and formal channels include banks

¹³⁶ Personal communication with Ms Robles de Medina, Social Insurance Bank, Embassy of the Netherlands in Suriname, 6 October 2014.

¹³⁷ In 2012, 10 returns; in 2013, 12 returns.

¹³⁸ Brochure "Suriname. Informatie voor migranten zonder verblijfspapieren ter oriëntatie op terugkeer naar Suriname", produced by *Maatwerk bij Terugkeer* in collaboration with Stichting Mondiale Samenleving, 2010.

and financial institutions that are registered with the Central Bank in the country where the money is sent from. Examples of the latter are money transfer agents such as Western Union and MoneyGram. Furthermore, a call-house that is a licensed by the Central Bank to do money transfers is a legal and formal channel. Sending money through relatives is legal, but informal. A call-house (*belhuis*) that is not registered for money transfers is an example of an illegal channel. (Unger and Siegel, 2006)

6.4.1 Remittances sent abroad by migrants in Suriname

It is difficult to establish the value of remittances entering and leaving Suriname, because remittances often are not transferred through formal banking institutions. Guyanese migrants who send money home, for example, usually take cash with them across the border when they visit their families in Guyana.¹³⁹ Brazilians and Haitians often use one of the many formal and informal money transfer companies. Some migrants, particularly those with close families in the home country, send money regularly (e.g. monthly); others send only once or twice a year; and others not at all.¹⁴⁰

The World Bank (2011) estimates that in 2009, the value of remittances flowing out of Suriname totaled USD 8 million. It is unclear how this estimate was obtained and it seems a gross underestimate. Providing a realist estimate of remittance flows out of Suriname requires a separate thorough study, and falls out of the scope of this report.

6.4.2 Remittances received in Suriname

In 2012, the Multilateral Investment Fund estimated that in the previous year, Suriname received USD 114 million in remittances from abroad. Three years later, in 2014, the economic indicators site IECONOMICS reported USD 113 million remittances received by Suriname in 2013. The Netherlands is the most important country from which Suriname receives remittances. A study for the World Bank and the Dutch Ministry of Finance (Unger and Siegel, 2006) finds that 85 per cent of the remittances flowing into Suriname came from the Netherlands. The rest came from the United States, the Netherlands Antilles and others (Ibid.:118).

¹³⁹ Personal communication with His Excellency Mr K.L. George, Ambassador of Guyana to Suriname, 29 September 2014.

¹⁴⁰ Personal communication with A. Pierre, Chair, L'Union Fait la Force, 16 August 2014.

A significant share of the remittance flows consist of in-kind remittances, that is, packages and goods, though their relative importance appears to be shrinking. In the past, more remittances were sent in kind. Now these make up only about 10–15 per cent of the total value of remittances. They go to about half the population in the form of parcels with food and clothes. Sending packages from the Netherlands has become less common though, while money transfers have increased (Unger and Siegel 2006:118). Recipient families mostly use remittances for everyday consumption, followed by medical expenses and education. Household expenditure and special occasions are the main reasons for sending remittances.

In estimating the value of remittances sent from the Netherlands to Suriname, the World Bank and the Dutch Ministry of Finance report draws the following conclusion:

Total remittance estimates vary. The Dutch Consumer Association has estimated the remittances from the Netherlands to Suriname to amount to 115 million euro (Consumentenbond, 2005). The DNB measured 26 million euros in 2002 and the survey that we conducted on the receiving side comes up with 58 million euros. Our study¹⁴¹ might underestimate the number, because people might forget presents they received. The Consumer Association, on the other hand, might have overestimated the numbers, because people might want to appear more generous senders than they really are. We have to expect that official numbers are about half of what is actually being sent, given the big size of the informal sector. So, roughly speaking we would estimate 100 million euros in remittances, of which 50 million are informal. That is about 13 per cent of the official Surinamese GDP, which was 1.1 billion USD in 2004 (Unger and Siegel 2006:118).

The estimates include pension payments and social benefits that are paid through the Social Insurance Bank, as well as capital transfers, for example when people move their properties from the Netherlands to Suriname and invest in housing. Note as well that the estimate of € 100 million approximates the USD 114 million and USD 113 million estimated remittance flows to Suriname from the Multilateral Investment Fund (2012) and IECONOMICS (2014), respectively.

The authors report that the Inter-American Development Bank estimated remittances at USD 51 million, but this estimate excludes informal-sector transfers. If estimate € 100 million in total remittances are a good approximation,

¹⁴¹ Based on a household survey of 132 households in Greater Paramaribo.

it follows that at least half of the value of remittances is sent through informal channels, for example through “underground bankers” (ibid.). Indeed, only 19 per cent of senders and 18 per cent of receivers of remittances used banks as their main channels. On the other hand, 31 per cent of senders and 47 per cent of receivers used formal and informal money transfer agents. Surinamese respondents did not differentiate between formal and non-formal monetary transfers though. An illegal “Cambio” (exchange office), a legal Cambio that did not have a licence for transferring money and Western Union were all considered acceptable money transfer agents. Furthermore, it remains popular to carry money, deliver cash oneself, or send it through relatives and friends; about 30 per cent of the respondents still use these traditional channels.

The report further concludes that based on their extrapolations, remittances constitute an essential source of “development aid”; actually more than five times the value of formal development aid and twice the value of foreign direct investment. In recent years, remittance flows to Suriname have increased (Multilateral Investment Fund, 2012; Unger and Siegel, 2006) and their value may continue to increase as new sources of money flows open up (e.g. through payments of Dutch social benefits in Suriname) and seemingly more overseas retirees return to Suriname.

7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Conclusions

7.1.1 Main findings on current migration trends

It is often believed that Suriname has a negative migration balance, which in turn feeds concerns that precious human capital is leaving the country. It is observed that from 2006 onwards, the migration balance for registered migration has actually been positive. In the past few years, the migration surplus based on official figures has ranged from a high of about 5,000 persons (2010) to 412 persons (2007). Estimates and extrapolations of the number of irregular migrants who have entered and still enter Suriname suggest that the true migration balance may have turned positive a decade earlier (in the mid-1990s) and that the difference between emigration and immigration may be larger than the official figures suggest. This projection is supported by the observation that the number of registered migrants in Suriname peaked in 2010, when the Surinamese Government issued a general pardon and many persons who had been living in Suriname as irregular migrants registered.

A positive migration balance is not a reason to not be concerned about human capital flight. Indeed, there is evidence that Suriname suffers from brain drain; emigration negatively affects secondary and tertiary school attendance as well as university graduation rates. Dutch data further suggest that the majority of migrants of Surinamese descent in the Netherlands have completed or are enrolled in mid-level professional education, while also significant numbers have acquired a bachelor's, master's or PhD degree. Many of these persons do not return to Suriname.

The number of prospective students and skilled professionals who have left and continue to leave the country could be compensated by the influx of skilled migrants. However, an analysis of immigrant flows in relation to national labour demands reveals a severe mismatch. That is, national labour needs are not met by the migrant labour supply, while at the same time migrant labourers compete with Surinamese labourers in areas such as construction. Indeed, a large share of the migrant stock consists of unskilled and low-skilled workers. Specific sectors in Suriname, notably agriculture and fisheries, can accommodate manual labourers. Earlier studies have found, however, that for its present and

future development, Suriname needs mid-level professionals in fields such as forestry, nature management, agricultural specialization and nursing. These are exactly the types of training and skills that persons of Surinamese origin abroad acquire.

In addition to mid-level professionals, there is an observed need for persons in higher management and research professions. Yet in the period of 2005–2013, fewer than (on average) 300 labour permits were annually extended to managers, higher leadership functions, scientists, artists and professionals. For the mentioned reasons, it is questionable whether the current immigrant flow responds to Suriname's need for highly trained professionals.

The Surinamese Government and several private companies actively recruit mid-level professionals and highly skilled workers to remedy their skilled labour needs (e.g. medical specialists and nurses from the Philippines and Cuba; engineers from Italy and India). These foreign professionals perform an important role in Suriname's development, but typically they are not here to stay. Hence, they are no durable source of human capital. A diaspora engagement strategy focused on the health sector could remedy medical labour needs in a more sustainable manner.

An alternative strategy would be to actively recruit persons of Surinamese origin abroad. Given the observed skill levels among Surinamese-descent migrants in the Netherlands, return migration has the potential to (partially) bridge the gap between labour market needs and workers' skills. Policies such as the facilitative migration conditions for persons of Surinamese descent suggest that the Surinamese Government wishes to encourage its migrant stock overseas to migrate back to Suriname as a source of human and financial capital that can benefit national development. Policies of the Dutch Government and of Dutch and international organizations that offer financial support for return migrants appear to support Suriname's return migration policy. It must be investigated though what persons make use of the Dutch return migration arrangements, and whether they are the same migrant groups as those targeted by the Surinamese Government. A diaspora mapping exercise could provide more clarity on this matter.

A third strategy to respond to labour shortages in certain sectors would be an encouragement of, and investment in, education focused on sectors where the demand for labour is high or will be high. Highly skilled migrants can play an important role as teachers and on-the-job trainers.

Surinamese living abroad contribute to the financial well-being of their kin in Suriname and to the country as a whole. Data extrapolations suggest that in the past couple of years, more than € 100 million in remittances has annually been sent to Suriname, accounting for one quarter of Suriname's GDP. Because there are no data or informed estimates on remittance flows out of Suriname, it is impossible to estimate the net contribution of remittances to Suriname's economy.

Apart from the economy, migration has also affected many other elements of Suriname's society, including demography, public health, culture and environment. With regard to demographic changes, for example, there are indications that migration flows have changed the gender balance. Again, there is a disparity between official data about registered migrants and estimates about irregular migrants. Data on registered first- and second-generation migrants in Suriname suggest that presently 54.7 per cent of Suriname's migrant stock consists of men. Existing studies, however, suggest that among the four main migrant groups (Brazilians, Guyanese, Chinese and Dutch), counting both regular and irregular migrants, the gender imbalance is more profound. The irregular Brazilian and Guyanese populations in particular are characterized by a huge surplus of men. On the other hand, 53.3 per cent of registered Surinamese migrants abroad are women. While there are no data on irregular Surinamese migrants living abroad, there are no reasons to believe that there is a significant gender imbalance in this population. As a consequence, migratory flows cause a trend where an increasing share of the Surinamese population consists of (low-skilled) men.

7.1.2 Institutional and regulatory framework

Various regulations define the requirements for migrants to enter the country. However, there is no general migration policy that gives insight into the vision of Suriname concerning migration. The PSA Act and recent government announcements in support of dual nationality are not part of a broader, integrated migration policy.

Existing regulations related to migration and migrants have strengths and weaknesses. One deficiency has been identified in the law that regulates deportations. In most cases, the deported person needs to shoulder the airplane ticket. As long as the ticket is not shown, the person cannot be deported. This arrangement can lead to a huge delay in deportation, and if the person does not have a passport that can be confiscated, he or she may get out of sight of the authorities. Another legal shortcoming is on the law on access to education.

There seems to be no legal instrument that clearly specifies the rights of children of irregular migrants to attend school at different levels. On the other hand, the recently implemented Border Management System strengthens regulatory capacities. This system tracks the status and travel behaviour of persons who cross the border into or out of Suriname. It registers not only entries and exits but also the type of visa, number of travels, whether or not the person has a police record or unpaid fines.

In other cases, regulations are adequate but their practical application is fragile. For example, an employer who wants to hire a migrant employee needs to apply for work permit from the Ministry of Labour, Technology Development and Environment. The Work Permit Aliens Act stipulates that a work permit can be rejected if the labour supply is present or reasonably can be expected to be present in Suriname. It is unknown, however, if and how the Ministry of Labour investigates this matter. In addition, field inspections and other forms of control on the legal status and permits of workers in sectors such as gold mining, agriculture, fishing, construction and commerce is limited. Representatives of the business sector lamented that the extension of work permits in certain areas and the lack of control on migrant workers lead to unfair competition.

Other regulations are well-designed and controlled, but because of the migrants' conditions the regulations cause an undesired effect. For example, as a requirement in obtaining legal (long-term) residency in Suriname, migrants have to show proof that they have health insurance. In practice, the health insurance expenses and stringent payment terms for migrants discourage many migrants from pursuing their residency application. Additionally, this situation leads to many migrants not having health insurance – which may result in hospitals incurring substantial costs – and the development of a black market for medicine.

Finally, some stakeholders expressed their discontent with the lack of transparency of the migration regime. For example, in 2012 almost 2,500 Chinese “tourists” entered Suriname. The data do not allow for examination of what happened with these persons and whether they are still in Suriname. By law, if they entered as tourists rather than on a Short Term Authorization, which must be obtained in the home country, they may not obtain a stay permit. However, in 2013 Chinese were the second largest group of applicants for a long-term visa, and the largest group of migrants who received a work permit. These figures ask for explanation.

7.1.3 Data gaps and needs

Various data gaps and inconsistencies were observed during this study:

- Various organizations are collecting data concerning legal arrivals of persons into Suriname, including the General Bureau of Statistics (Traffic and Transport Statistics), the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Border Management System), the Ministry of Home Affairs (Suriname Civil Registry), the Ministry of Justice and Police (Alien Registration) and, internationally, the United Nations (Population Division). However, not all relevant variables are clearly defined and/or not consistent in various data systems and hence data from different institutions cannot easily be compared.
- There is no integrated system of data collection regarding migration that can be applied beyond the departmental or organizational level. The Migration Institute could play a central role in collecting and processing data from the different organizations and in guiding a process to make different data sources comparable and compatible. At this moment, however, each department or organization works in virtual isolation.
- Many migrants do not appear in national statistics. For example, the UN and General Bureau of Statistics data give insight into Suriname's migration stock but they only count registered migrants. Irregular migrants – including a grand share of the persons working in the gold mining regions of Suriname – victims of trafficking, and many others in the informal sector, account for a significant share (if not the majority) of the migrant stock in Suriname. However, they are not systematically counted.
- Existing data do not allow for determining how many return migrants annually settle in Suriname, what their characteristics are in terms of education and skills, how they returned (voluntary, forced or assisted) and what would be needed to motivate more skilled persons of Surinamese origin to settle in Suriname. A well-designed survey among a representative sample of return migrants in Suriname and persons of Surinamese origin in the Netherlands may provide such insights.
- Even though government agencies are increasingly processing data digitally, not all relevant data are collected, entered, processed and analysed. With regard to data entry, for example, a significant number of data-set cases are missing and there is a lack of consistency in data entry. For example, persons of a certain nationality may be registered incorrectly; thus, thorough data cleaning is required before the data can be analysed.

- It is difficult to measure how many Surinamese residents migrate and where they migrate to because these persons do not remove their names from the Civil Registry. Making it obligatory to deregister, as happens in some other countries, would facilitate tracing these persons.

As a final conclusion, it can be postulated that the role of the Integration and Migration Unit (Ministry of Foreign Affairs) is unclear. Its tasks such as collecting, tracking and analysing current demographic data to support and design the preparation and implementation of population policy could be valuable. However, this would require that the Integration and Migration Unit receives the necessary data from relevant government departments and that it receives the staff and resources to translate data to a policy vision. It is our hope that this migration profile contributes to such a process.

7.2 General recommendations

Bring scattered migration services together at one location

At present, sections of different government ministries – scattered in different offices – have responsibilities related to migration policy, the provision of migration services, control on migrant related issues and data collection. It would likely be more cost-effective and efficient, both for government representatives and for migrants, if these various departments would be physically located in one location and if they would work under an overarching migration commission/ service. Working under the auspices of a multisectoral migration service would facilitate policy development, collaboration, coordination and data sharing.

Create a single, centralized migration database

In addition to having a unified physical location of different departments, it is important that various institutions that are involved have a unified database and work according to well-designed information-sharing mechanisms. An integrated database must allow for tracing the status of migrants in terms of residency status, previous and present work status, changes in civil status and so forth by assigning a unique identifier to every person, which can be used by all stakeholders.

Develop a migration policy

Despite several efforts by the Government, no integrated migration policy is in place yet. Migration is often seen as a problem to be solved rather than an

instrument to be productively used in development planning. A comprehensive and modern migration policy can help reduce negative migration consequences and promote positive migration impacts. It should describe migration in relation to development and, for this reason, should define the development vision of Suriname with regard to migration and migrants. For the design of this policy, best practices from other CARICOM countries can be used, just as IOM and UN research reports. Control and enforcement of this policy and existing regulations with regard to migration are of great importance to take away the idea that “everything is possible” in Suriname. Annex IX provides an example framework for a migration policy in Suriname, developed by IOM.

Work in close cooperation with the business community and other professional organizations

In order to develop a migration policy that reflects the business realities and labour needs in Suriname, it is important to develop a comprehensive migration policy in close collaboration with Suriname’s business community, civil society and academia, represented by the SBF and other professional organizations such as the fishers cooperatives and agricultural organizations. These organizations have insights into historic labour migration trends, may be able to project current and future labour needs, and have first-hand knowledge of strengths and weaknesses of current migration-related policies.

Conduct a labour market assessment

A labour market assessment is an essential basis for the development of a migration policy. Such an assessment will identify and quantify the most important labour needs, as expressed by the Surinamese Government and the business sector in the country. It also will serve to assess the existing levels of skills and training of the current and future workforce in the country (e.g. through an evaluation of the number of students in different levels and streams of education), as well as the job needs and interests as expressed by this local workforce. As such, the labour market assessment will identify the areas where Surinamese workers can and want to respond to national labour needs as well as the areas where migrant labour is most desirable. In addition, the labour market assessment should indicate whether migrant workers are presently working and analyse the causes and consequences of (unfair) competition by migrant labourers. The labour market assessment can be coupled to a diaspora mapping exercise, which reveals the skills and labour interest of persons of Surinamese descent (see next point) as a selected group of (potential) migrant labourers.

Focus on diaspora

The Government of Suriname recognizes the value of its diaspora population and the PSA Act shows that the Government perceives this population as a catalyst for national development. In order to more efficiently engage the diaspora, the following actions are needed:

- Firstly, it is essential to execute a diaspora mapping exercise. Such an exercise serves to improve projections of the possible contributions of temporary/permanent return migrants. Diaspora mapping will register the education levels, skills and working experiences of the Surinamese diaspora, as well as their interests in temporary or permanent living and/or working in Suriname. Such an exercise can also provide insights into reasons why the Surinamese diaspora may not want to return to Suriname, and identify strategies to remove these barriers. For example, there is an identified need for health professionals, which is currently largely filled by foreign workers. Diaspora mapping can provide insights into the number, educational background and skills of the Surinamese diaspora in the medical field, as well as in their interest in temporary, part-time (e.g. several months a year) or permanent work in Suriname.
- Secondly, a diaspora engagement strategy should be developed as part of a more general migration policy. Such a strategy specifies various regulations and programmes that are and will be put in place to assist return migration to Suriname, particularly for the Surinamese diaspora who are in high demand such as mid- and high-level professionals in earlier discussed fields.
- Thirdly, Suriname should also consider alternative policies and programmes that can increase the human and financial resources that emigrants and their descendants can contribute to national development. Re-involvement of diaspora population does not necessarily need to mean permanent return. Involvement through, for example, capacity-building, knowledge and skills transfer can also bring a valuable contribution. Return migrants who wish to return permanently could be encouraged by, for instance, providing assistance to set up a business (e.g. financial/soft loans).

The IOM handbook “Developing a Road Map for Engaging Diasporas in Development” gives concrete examples of policies and programmes that have been effective in other countries, and pulls out both useful lessons and common challenges associated with the topic.

Implement civic integration

Policymakers have earlier suggested the implementation of civic integration requirements (inburgering) for migrants. Many other countries (e.g. the Netherlands and the United States) already make use of such procedures, and the lessons learned from their experiences can be used to develop a specific programme for Suriname. A civic integration course or requirement should not discourage migrants to legally register and thus drive larger numbers of persons into illegality. However, the country may expect from persons who request naturalization or permanent residency that they possess basic civic skills to function in and contribute to Surinamese society. The specific skills must be determined through a broad stakeholder discussion and could include certain language skills (i.e. Dutch or Sranantongo), knowledge of their rights and obligations (e.g. in the areas of health and education), knowledge of basic cultural codes, understanding the socioeconomic values and regulations, and so forth.

Incorporate migration into national development plans and policies

Migration and migrants cannot be left out in national development plans and policies. For example, addressing the health needs of migrants in health- and social-related policies improves migrant health, protects public health, facilitates integration, and contributes to social and economic development. In the area of education, special considerations must be given to the status of irregular migrants – particularly children and young adults – in the educational system. Other fields where migration and migrants should be explicitly considered include, but are not limited to, key sectors such as labour policies, social and economic policies, environmental and urban planning, and security priorities. Special attention should be given to vulnerable groups, particularly children.

Evaluate policy on labour migration

The Work Permit Aliens Act needs to be evaluated and adjusted to the current situation. A needs assessment should be conducted in various sectors (e.g. fisheries, agriculture, construction) to get insights into labour that is available in Suriname and in sectors and positions that lack qualified and skilled employees. This assessment should also indicate the requirements in undermanned sectors. Labour migration should not reduce employment opportunities or lower wages of Surinamese nationals; rather, it should support economic growth and social welfare. Furthermore, labour standards must be respected and controlled.

To optimize labour migration, the migrant who comes to Suriname for the purpose of labour should – when possible – be provided with pre-departure orientation, including language and cultural introduction, rights and obligations.

Enforce existing laws and place heavy sanctions on corruption

Suriname already has a quite elaborate legal framework dealing with migrant issues. However, many of the existing laws are not followed to the letter, for a variety of reasons. Offices with a controlling function should be adequately staffed and more proactively execute their tasks, to destroy the idea that “in Suriname everything is possible”. Allowing exemptions from certain regulations should be reduced to a minimum. If the law determines that certain foreigners need to enter Suriname with an MKV if they wish to apply for a stay permit, this regulation should be meticulously applied to all foreigners from that category.

Evaluate existing border control systems

Evaluate existing regulations and systems to manage entry into Suriname (e.g. Border Management System) with relevant stakeholders and adapt them where needed to make them more effective. The present situation allows for the poorly controlled entry of cheap unskilled labour. For example, thousands of foreigners who enter the country on a tourist visa are in fact entering with the purpose to work. Better control on the motivations for entry into Suriname, and better monitoring of the migrants when they are in the country, is needed to protect the Surinamese workforce and enhance national security.

Get insight into remittances

Remittances can be an important source of development capital for Suriname, and can also cause capital flow abroad. As there are no data on remittances sent abroad by migrants living in Suriname, it is important to research existing flows and channels of remittances, their usages and the amount of money that is sent out of the country. Based on this data, it can be determined how remittances can be monitored and how the money earned by migrants can have a higher beneficial impact on the development of Suriname through an incentive package.

Existing studies document the value of remittances sent to Suriname, but the development potential of these remittances remains poorly understood. Hence, it is also useful to analyse the value and form of remittances sent to Suriname, and how these remittances are used by recipients in Suriname.

Remittances in the form of parcels with foreign consumer products, for example, will generally have little effect on development. On the other hand, remittances that can be invested in small or large businesses can signify an important boost for local entrepreneurs and the national economy as a whole.

Transform brain drain to brain regain

The problem of brain drain is complicated and requires innovative measures. Studies need to be conducted to ascertain the exact magnitude of the brain drain problem in Suriname. No reliable data are available on students going abroad for higher education or young professionals leaving Suriname to work in a foreign country. There are no insights on their motives, and no data are available on the number of students abroad who return. Based on studies, realistic proposals can be made on how to remedy the situation. For example, going abroad for educational purposes could be tackled through accreditation of the AdeK University to meet the Caribbean and EU standards. Master programmes must be added to the existing range of studies. Attracting back graduates and qualified professionals should be identified and explored as well. This sort of study can indicate incentives that are necessary for these graduates and young professionals to come back to Suriname. The Government should execute an active policy, possible as part of the PSA promotion, to attract Surinamese professionals back to Suriname.

Recognize the migration profile as a “country-owned” tool

For a migration profile to be effective, it must be fully owned by the respective government and be updated regularly in consultation with all key stakeholders so as to inform policies based on the current situation.

7.3 Recommendations on data collection

Use standard definitions and data collection procedures

One means of improving migration data collection is to use international definitions and procedures as a standard, for example the UN definitions. Where possible and useful, existing criteria should be modified and adapted so that they become comparable to, for instance, CARICOM and UN data. In the least, data of different government ministries should be compatible. Analysis of national migration revealed that comparability of national statistics is low, which hinders correct statistical analysis within the country and also complicates data sharing and comparing with countries in the region or globally.

Make sure data are consistent

Make sure data are consistent, correctly entered and completely processed in databases (no spelling errors, no different abbreviations, no missing data, etc.). The use of statistical programmes other than Excel can be an aid in data entry and processing, and facilitate quarterly or annual analysis.

Furthermore, an effort should be made to obtain informed estimates of the various groups of “invisible migrants” such as people who are trafficked and irregular migrants in general. There are different demographic research methods to estimate the size of hidden and difficult-to-find populations. These methods can be employed to obtain a more realistic idea of the true total number of migrants living and working in Suriname in the context of development projections.

Improve reliability of data

Work with relevant stakeholders to compare existing questionnaires (e.g. embarkation cards) and adapt these in a way that more useful information about persons who travel into Suriname can be obtained. Evaluate where tools for the collection of useful information are missing. For example, apart from their total numbers no data are collected about persons who buy a Tourist Card. New measurement tools can be designed.

Setting up and use of a population register

A population register should be a combination of immigration and emigration data from various migration related government agencies (e.g. Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs, Ministry of Justice and Police, General Bureau of Statistics). This database should continuously be updated and centrally coordinated, for example, by the Integration and Migration Unit. The Unit could also play a vital role in analysing available data to support and design the preparation and implementation of policy. Finally, once a migration policy has been formulated, the Integration and Migration Unit should continuously be fed with the newest information and data for the purpose of monitoring and evaluation, and for identifying good practices.

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ANNEXES

Annex I: MKV (Short Stay Authorization) applicants by nationality, January–July 2014

Nationality	Reason for application			Total
	Family reunion	Labour	Studies, internship, volunteer work, return (migration)	
American	0	2	12	14
Belgian	0	2	21	23
Brazilian	0	0	1	1
British	0	1	0	1
Chinese	140	39	178	357
Colombian	0	0	1	1
Croatian	0	0	1	1
Cuban	2	3	3	8
Czech	0	0	2	2
Dominican	2	0	0	2
German	0	0	1	1
Filipino	0	0	1	1
Finnish	0	0	1	1
French	0	1	0	1
Ghanaian	0	3	0	3
Greek	0	0	1	1
Haitian	6	2	0	8
Indian	3	12	117	132
Indonesian	1	0	13	14
Italian	0	1	108	109
Lao	1	5	1	7
Libyan	0	0	1	1
Malaysian	0	0	2	2
Moroccan	0	0	1	1
Dutch	3	39	125	167
New Zealander	0	0	1	1
Nigerian	0	1	0	1
Polish	0	0	1	1
Portuguese	0	0	5	5
Romanian	1	0	30	31
Salvadorian	0	0	3	3
Serbian	0	0	3	3
Spanish	0	0	2	2
Turkish	0	7	0	7
Venezuelan	0	4	0	4
Unknown	1	0	0	1
Total	160	122	636	918

Annex II: Total stock of Suriname migrants by mid-year of 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2013, and by major area, region and country of destination

Major area, region, country or area of destination	1990	2000	2010	2013
	Emigrants from Suriname to....			
WORLDWIDE	180,183	218,855	255,907	261,578
More developed regions	162,097	195,933	220,379	224,151
Less developed regions	18,086	22,922	35,528	37,427
Least developed countries	0	0	0	0
Less developed regions excluding least developed countries	18,086	22,922	35,528	37,427
ASIA	47	153	149	157
South-East Asia	30	134	122	127
Philippines	30	134	122	127
Western Asia	17	19	27	30
Cyprus	1	2	4	5
Turkey	16	17	23	25
EUROPE	158,195	188,979	211,641	215,086
Eastern Europe	340	360	18	26
Bulgaria	0	0	1	1
Czech Republic	0	1	1	1
Poland	45	33	0	0
Romania	1	2	2	10
Russian Federation	294	324	14	14
Northern Europe	50	84	123	148
Denmark	20	26	29	29
Finland	0	3	3	2
Iceland	0	0	0	0
Ireland	2	16	18	41
Lithuania	2	1	1	1
Norway	10	17	40	42
Sweden	16	21	32	33
Southern Europe	16	32	48	55
Greece	1	1	2	2
Italy	12	21	30	36
Malta	0	1	2	2
Portugal	3	9	14	15
Western Europe	157,789	188,503	211,452	214,857
Austria	11	14	17	18
France	267	284	22,781	23,549
Netherlands	157,443	188,128	188,553	191,182
Switzerland	68	77	101	108
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN	18,039	22,769	35,379	37,270
Caribbean	2,876	3,818	4,360	4,575
Antigua and Barbuda	9	38	45	46
Aruba	721	1,273	1,479	1,520
Caribbean Netherlands	2,005	2,305	366	403
Curaçao		0	1,722	1,833

Major area, region, country or area of destination	1990	2000	2010	2013
	Emigrants from Suriname to....			
Dominica	7	10	16	18
Dominican Republic	103	126	140	142
Guadeloupe	3	24	36	37
Martinique	6	13	14	14
Montserrat	1	0	0	0
Saint Kitts and Nevis	3	4	5	5
Saint Lucia	18	25	37	41
Sint Maarten (Dutch part)		0	500	516
Central America	33	30	37	40
Costa Rica	13	15	19	20
Honduras	1	1	1	1
Mexico	7	6	10	11
Nicaragua	0	0	1	1
Panama	12	8	6	7
South America	15,130	18,921	30,982	32,655
Argentina	11	11	7	7
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	1	1	2	2
Brazil	120	233	273	276
Chile	8	3	3	3
Colombia	6	6	6	6
Ecuador	6	8	26	29
French Guiana	13,703	16,165	26,489	27,620
Guyana	1,163	2,426	4,126	4,662
Paraguay	3	4	5	5
Peru	3	3	5	6
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	106	61	40	39
NORTHERN AMERICA	3,824	6,851	8,599	8,915
Canada	533	839	897	934
United States of America	3,291	6,012	7,702	7,981
OCEANIA	78	103	139	150
Australia and New Zealand	78	103	139	150
Australia	72	89	119	128
New Zealand	6	14	20	22

Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2013 Revision – Migrants by Destination and Origin. Available from <http://esa.un.org/unmigration/TIMS02013/migrantstocks2013.htm?mhome>.

Notes: • The "Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2013 Revision – Migrants by Destination and Origin" provides a comparable and up-to-date set of estimates for all countries and areas of the world. This provides estimates of the international migrant stock by destination and origin for the mid-point (1 July) of each year: 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2013. The estimates are based on official statistics on the foreign-born or the foreign population, classified by country of origin. Most of the statistics utilized to estimate the international migrant stock were obtained from censuses. Additionally, population registers and nationally representative surveys provided information on the number and composition of international migrants.

- The table only includes countries that registered Surinamese residents.

Annex III: Total immigration and emigration to and from Suriname, and the migration balance, 1972–2012

Year	Immigration (to Suriname)	Emigration (from Suriname)	Migration balance
1972	2,615	8,490	-5,875
1973	2,442	11,098	-8,656
1974	3,066	17,902	-14,836
1975	3,959	39,699	-35,740
1976	5,345	5,757	-412
1977	2,981	4,786	-1,805
1978	2,323	7,388	-5,065
1979	1,916	18,162	-16,246
1980	2,282	18,988	-16,706
1981	2,858	4,432	-1,574
1982	3,605	3,431	174
1983	2,805	5,225	-2,420
1984	3,393	3,488	-95
1985	1,902	5,321	-3,419
1986	2,129	5,311	-3,182
1987	1,660	6,547	-4,887
1988	1,738	4,130	-2,392
1989	2,386	5,653	-3,267
1990	2,182	8,416	-6,234
1991	2,297	8,288	-5,991
1992	2,905	8,328	-5,423
1993	2,007	9,083	-7,076
1994	1,393	3,909	-2,516
1995	1,316	2,691	-1,375
1996	1,618	3,640	-2,022
1997	2,074	3,481	-1,407
1998	2,045	4,622	-2,577
1999	2,499	3,139	-640
2000	1,446	3,801	-2,355
2001	1,074	3,607	-2,533
2002	1,403	3,517	-2,114
2003	1,696	3,555	-1,859
2004	1,590	3,078	-1,488
2005	2,175	2,360	-185
2006	2,639	1,920	719

Year	Immigration (to Suriname)	Emigration (from Suriname)	Migration balance
2007	2,484	2,072	412
2008	4,183	2,332	1,851
2009	3,863	2,279	1,584
2010	7,183	2,211	4,972
2011	4,917	2,159	2,758
2012	4,284	1,960	2,324

Source: Suriname Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs for immigration data; The Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) for emigration data.

Note: Immigration in 2010 was high because of a general pardon by the Ministry of Justice and Police of Suriname. This figure included migrants from different years. With regard to emigration data, from 2000 to 2012 data from the CBS (Netherlands) and the Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs (Suriname) were adjusted with data on migration to countries other than the Netherlands.

Annex IV: Total number of non-resident arrivals via all ports by country/region of residence, 2006–2012

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Country/region of residence	Arrivals	Arrivals	Arrivals	Arrivals	Arrivals	Arrivals	Arrivals
North America	5,949	6,275	6,681	6,701	8,843	10,485	10,860
Haiti	414	139	101	127	202	216	275
Trinidad and Tobago	2,061	2,501	2,379	2,571	3,978	4,865	4,376
Rest of the Caribbean	5,366	6,944	6,375	7,805	9,255	9,385	9,696
Brazil	7,022	7,477	7,491	7,850	11,177	14,463	19,643
Guyana	15,330	13,395	13,498	18,816	30,504	33,039	42,556
Rest of South America	15,761	14,406	15,035	15,485	25,024	31,589	35,228
France	2,933	3,559	3,996	3,822	4,525	5,257	7,001
Netherlands	92,344	101,246	88,426	81,161	101,652	98,107	96,490
Rest of Europe	3,520	3,402	2,931	2,883	4,188	4,878	5,577
China	1,777	1,298	1,745	1,080	1,990	2,475	2,493
Rest of Asia	1,218	1,347	1,430	1,293	1,807	2,333	2,245
Africa	288	236	192	172	256	306	551
Oceania	239	240	165	106	241	541	583
Other countries	1	3	14	14	56	85	76
Unknown	175	434	518	1,042	1,303	2,740	2,689
Total	154,398	162,902	150,977	150,928	205,001	220,764	240,339

Source: General Bureau of Statistics, 2013.

Annex V: Number of Surinamese passports extended abroad

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014 (Until Aug.)
Antilles	147	159	155	154	110	157	117	123	123	66
Belgium	9	22	36	33	48	60	92	82	108	90
Brazil	2	3	5	4	7	11	5	5	6	2
China	12	18	22	13	9	26	24	32	20	11
Cuba	0	0	0	0	1	5	9	2	5	2
France	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	70	102	66
French Guiana	677	543	680	876	755	586	521	654	803	478
Guyana	8	19	17	6	3	4	3	5	8	1
India	0	0	3	0	3	2	0	2	1	1
Indonesia	0	2	0	0	1	4	2	0	1	0
Netherlands	1,339	1,968	1,644	1,271	748	1,108	1,372	1,252	1,146	589
Trinidad and Tobago	13	17	9	13	14	20	12	14	22	13
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	4	7	3	4	4	5	2	1	3	5
South Africa	0	0	0	3	5	16	12	19	23	7

Source: Central Bureau for Citizens Affairs, unpublished data, 2014.

Annex VI: Number of persons of Surinamese descent who have registered at an academic institution in the academic years 2004/2005 through 2013/2014, by sex

Academic year	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
2004/2005	2,029	43	2,703	57	4,732	100
2005/2006	2,104	43	2,825	57	4,929	100
2006/2007	2,142	42	2,908	58	5,050	100
2007/2008	2,156	42	2,944	58	5,100	100
2008/2009	2,235	43	3,018	57	5,253	100
2009/2010	2,305	42	3,136	58	5,441	100
2010/2011	2,404	43	3,217	57	5,621	100
2011/2012*	2,335	43	3,074	57	5,409	100
2012/2013*	2,213	43	2,889	57	5,102	100
2013/2014*	2,314	44	2,919	56	5,233	100

Source: <http://statline.cbs.nl/StatWeb/publication/?DM=SLNL&PA=71037NED&D1=0&D2=a&D3=1&D4=0&D5=0&D6=14&D7=9-18&HDR=T,G2,G5,G3,G1&STB=G4,G6&VW>.

Notes: * Preliminary data.

- "Descent" refers to the country with which the person is related on the bases of his or her country of birth or that of the parents. In the latter case, descent is determined by the birth country of the mother unless the mother was born in the Netherlands; in that case descent is determined by the birth country of the father.

Annex VII: Highest obtained educational level of persons of Surinamese descent in the Netherlands, as of 1 January 2013

Age group	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
Primary school (Basisonderwijs)	14,000	11	17,000	12	31,000	11
Junior high school (VMBO-b/k*, MBO-1**)	20,000	16	17,000	12	37,000	14
Junior high school (VMBO-g/t*, avo onderbouw)	10,000	8	13,000	9	23,000	8
MBO 2 en 3**	25,000	19	26,000	18	51,000	19
MBO 4**	17,000	13	22,000	15	39,000	14
Senior high school (HAVO, VWO)	12,000	9	13,000	9	25,000	9
College (HBO, WO) bachelor	17,000	13	21,000	14	38,000	14
University/University college (HBO, WO) master's degree, doctor's degree	8,000	6	9,000	6	17,000	6
Unknown	6,000	5	7,000	5	13,000	5
Total	129,000	100	145,000	100	274,000	100

Source: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek Netherlands 2013

Notes: * VMBO (voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs, which means "preparatory middle-level applied education") education lasts four years, from the age of 12 to 16. It combines vocational training with theoretical education in languages, mathematics, history, arts and sciences. The b and k streams pay relatively more attention to vocational training, while the g and t streams are mostly theoretical education and prepare students for further education at the senior high school level.

** MBO (middelbaar beroepsonderwijs, which means "middle-level applied education") provides continued vocational training and follows on the VMBO-b and -k streams.

Annex VIII: Framework for a migration policy Proposed areas for international migration and development policy in Suriname

1. Labour mobility and development

a. Governance structure

i. Responsible entities at national (and local) level

ii. Bilateral cooperation

a) Economic partnership agreements

iii. Regional cooperation

a) Free movement under the Caribbean Community Single Market Economy (CSME)

b. High-skilled migration

i. Brain drain, brain waste and brain gain (what mechanisms can be put in place to ensure that this affects development)

a) Incentives for retention of skilled labour

- b) Agreements for compensation (inter-State, bonding, etc.)
 - c) Knowledge transfer programme
 - d) Role of immigration into Suriname in this context; which sectors may benefit
 - ii. Diaspora participation – return of skill programme and so on
 - a) Collaboration between States – migrant skills bank (local and diaspora, destination countries)
 - b) Knowledge transfer programme
 - iii. Policies for circular and temporary migration and development
 - iv. Visa regimes/Work permits
 - v. Examination of best practices
- c. Low-skilled migration
- i. Policies for circular and temporary migration and development
 - a) Predeparture and arrival orientation programmes
 - b) Development of protocols and regulations governing recruitment bodies
 - c) Visa regimes
 - ii. Work permits
 - iii. Examine best practices
 - iv. Role of low-skilled immigration into Suriname
- d. Labour market impacts
- i. Labour market assessment (match demand and supply to inform training and recruitment)
 - ii. Sector-specific impacts of emigration and immigration
 - iii. Wage impacts
- e. Training and human resource development
- i. Training and certification in accordance with the international standards – fill gaps in national/international labour markets
- f. Protection of migrant workers (in Suriname and abroad)
- i. Policies for ratification of the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families
 - ii. Portability of social protection, pension, health, education and so on
 - iii. Reduce cost and risk of irregular migration – high recruitment fees, monitoring of recruitment agencies, exploitation
 - iv. Examination of best practices

2. Diaspora and development

- a. Governance structure
- b. Diaspora services and diaspora engagement
 - i. Registration of nationals abroad (sociodemographic characteristics)
 - ii. Tax incentives
 - iii. Dual citizenship and political participation
 - iv. Coordinating the work of diaspora groups
 - v. Virtual and other knowledge-sharing networks
- c. Diaspora contributions
 - i. Contribution of diaspora – social remittances, savings and so on
 - ii. Structure of social and charitable contributions
 - iii. Investment, business and trade transfers
 - iv. Financial and social investment initiatives
 - v. Mechanism to mobilize diaspora contribution, official development assistance (ODA) and national resources towards development
 - a) Joint arrangements between diaspora and bilateral organizations for programme interventions
 - vi. Strategic alliances with the private sector, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs)
 - vii. Cultural impact of emigration and diaspora contributions
 - viii. Implementation of initiatives and incentives for fostering diaspora-led investments

3. Remittance and development

- a. Facilitating transfers (in and out of Suriname)
 - i. Formal transfer of remittances
 - ii. Costs of sending remittances
 - iii. Examination of best practices on remittance models (relates to a and b)
 - iv. Methods of remitting funds (e.g. telebanking, mobile banking)
 - v. Legal and regulatory measures for diaspora investments
- b. Facilitating the productive use of remittances
 - i. Mobilization for remittance for development and poverty reduction (e.g. community development projects, entrepreneurial activities)
 - ii. Financial literacy and money management skills (e.g. encouraging savings)
 - iii. Strategic alliances with the private sector, NGOs and CSOs

- c. Monitoring the impact of remittances
 - i. Impact of consumed remittance funds on inflation

4. Human rights and social protection

- a. Protection of Surinamese abroad
 - i. Consular network
 - ii. Strategic alliances with the private sector, NGOs and CSOs
 - iii. Development of protocols to manage portability of pension, health, insurance and so on
 - iv. Social security arrangements between countries
 - v. Social security coverage in countries of destination
 - vi. The Charter of Rights
 - vii. Mechanisms for monitoring employment/recruitment agencies in host countries (to prevent trafficking in persons)
- b. Protection of migrants in Suriname
 - i. Nature of rights in migration/immigration laws, including conditions of exit and entry residence
 - ii. Nature of rights protected in labour laws
 - iii. The Charter of Rights
 - iv. Public education and sensitization on migrant rights
 - v. Strategic alliances with the private sector, NGOs and CSOs
- c. Vulnerable groups requiring special attention
 - i. Health and education provisions for children of migrants (documented and undocumented children of migrants in countries of destination [regional and international] and also nationally)
 - ii. Trafficked persons
 - iii. Deportees, irregular and undocumented migrants
 - iv. Migration and ageing

5. Governance and policy coherence

- a. Local level
- b. National level
 - i. Legal framework
 - a) Review of relevant legislation
 - b) Creation of new legislation

- ii. Mechanism for inter- and intra-institutional collaboration and policy formulation
 - a) National working group and other subcommittees (thematic working groups)
- iii. Border management
 - a) Entry requirements
 - b) Visa arrangements
 - c) Bilateral arrangements
 - d) Information and communications technology
 - e) Capacity-building
 - f) Work permits and extensions of stay
- iv. Capacity-building and technical assistance for migration and development
- c. Regional level
 - i. Regional consultative processes and policies
 - a) Inter- and intraregional
 - ii. Strategic alliances with the private sector, NGOs and CSOs
- d. Policy coherence and sector issues
 - i. Health
 - a) Health tourism
 - ii. Education and training systems
 - a) Recognition of skills and certification
 - iii. Environment
 - a) Climate change and natural disasters
 - iv. Economy and trade
 - a) Investment, business and trade transfers
 - b) Financial investment initiatives – simplify process of starting new businesses and so on
 - v. Agriculture
 - vi. Tourism
 - a) Promotion of Suriname as a place for retirement
 - vii. National and international security
 - a) Dual citizenship
 - b) Deportees
 - c) Refugees

- d) Asylum-seekers
- e) Trafficking in persons
- f) Terrorism – threats to national security

6. Data, research and information systems

- a. Data collection on:
 - i. remittances (transfers)
 - ii. occupation
 - iii. reasons for migrating
 - iv. countries and areas where people migrate
 - v. place in Suriname where people are migrating from
- b. Data analysis on remittances (transfers)
- c. Data disaggregation on:
 - i. age
 - ii. sex
 - iii. occupation
 - iv. place of residence
 - v. and others
- d. Independent research and studies on interactions between migration and development
- e. Improvement in instruments and establishment/modification/strengthening of systems for data collection
 - i. Variables added to departure card – improvement in the PICA database including:
 - a) naturalizations
 - b) citizenship granted
 - c) permissions granted for extensions of stay
 - d) deportees
 - e) and others
 - ii. Work permits and overseas employment programmes
 - iii. CSME certificates
 - iv. Surinamese living in main countries of destination
 - v. Data from overseas consulates, commissions and embassies
- f. Capacity-building
- g. Standardization and harmonization of systems across MDAs – continuous updating of migration profile

7. Return and reintegration of migrants

- a. Voluntary return
- b. Mobilize human capacity (skills, expertise, etc.)
- c. Involuntary return
- d. Build the capacity of public- and private-sector groups that serve this target group
- e. Reintegration
- f. Formalizing the reintegration process including:
 - i. legal documents
 - ii. support groups
 - iii. information-sharing programmes prior to return (through diaspora groups, embassies and consulates, prisons and so on, and upon return through NGOs, CSOs)
- g. Institutionalization of knowledge transfer (formal programmes)
- h. Community development initiatives

8. Family, migration and development

- a. Children
 - i. Transfer of guardianship
 - ii. International adoption
 - iii. Special insurance for children left behind
 - iv. Care and protection
 - v. Education and health
 - a) Health and education provisions for children of migrants (documented and undocumented children of migrants in countries of destination [regional and international] and also nationally)
 - vi. Social support programmes – welfare and well-being of dependants left behind of accompanying
 - vii. Consideration for households headed by grandparents and siblings as a result of migration of parents
 - viii. Inter-State collaboration (to ensure support for children/family left behind)
- b. Poverty
- c. Gender dimensions
- d. Elderly care – enforcement of the Maintenance Act

Annex IX: List of participants validation session, 18 November 2014

	Naam	Contactadres	Paraaf
1	Filang	Chinese Vereniging	
2	Kindoor Ingrid	Jaspol	
3	Jagwep Rachna	"	
4	ROSARIO ALEXANDRE	CONSULATE GENERAL OF HAITI IN SURINAME	
5	christian PETIT-FRERE	CONSULATE GENERAL OF HAITI IN SURINAME	
6	H. Dragtenstein	Treffing in Personeel	
7	Weidong Zhang	Chinese Vereniging	
8	Luz Paulo Oliveira	LPMNEWS/BRASOR	
9	Edwardo Santos	LPMNEWS/i	
10	D. Wielingen-Neerweg	VSJ /vsbstia@sr.net	
11	G. Bibarie	SBC /glibarie@sr.net	
12	P. Rajaram	KKF /chambers@sr.net	
13	g. van Duij	SBC /stf	
14	F. Ramsingh	SBC	
15	H. Naarendorp	KKF	
16	A. Landbrug	SLM	
17	C. van der Sand	Fin. v. Justit. /Min. ATM	
18	H. van der Sand	Indiv. v. Justit. /Min. ATM	
19	Wierck C.	caracore@yaho.com	
20	P. Bruinhart	Singam Airways	
21	J. Kramling-Fung A. van	ABS	
22	Wardie D.	Mis. v. v. v. /kinderrechten.sociaal@grout.com	
23	Delano Geffner	SLM	
24	Joan Redlum	ATM /wa. gawegtr 47	
25	Carolynne Sreep	FR Embassy /massyln 23	
26	Geoffrey George	US Embassy	
27	André de	J. Gompert straat 189	
28	Kasjo R.	J. Lachmonstr. # 136	
29	Oorberg, J. R.	Brigade M. P.	



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This project is implemented by:



International Organization for Migration
Regional Coordination Office
87 Carmichael Street, South Cummingsburg, Georgetown, Guyana
Phone: (592) 2253745 | Fax: (592) 2273675
E-mail: iomguyana@iom.int