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Fighting for the *Patria* on the 'Wrong' Side of the Border: The Role of the Mexican Consuls in the Federal Campaign Against the *Magonista* Rebels in Baja California in 1911

Lawrence D. Taylor*

***Abstract**: This article examines the role of the Mexican consuls in southern California during the counterinsurgency campaign conducted by the Porfirio Díaz government against the* Magonista *rebels in Baja California in 1911. It traces the development of the Mexican and U.S. intelligence networks in the border region noting the key role played by the consular officials of both countries with respect to what was, in effect, a binational system. The article details the process by which, as time went on, the Mexican consuls came to play an increasingly more active part in the struggle. This tendency eventually led to—in conjunction with the Mexican patriot organization* Defensores de la Integridad Nacional*—the smuggling of arms and men into Baja California to bolster the federals' defensive and striking power. The article explores the implications of such actions with regard to violations of U.S. neutrality by the federals, which, according to the latter, were committed exclusively by the rebel groups.*

Introduction

The U.S.-Mexico border region played a pivotal role in the initial insurrectionary movement led by Francisco I. Madero against the government of president Porfirio Díaz in 1910, as it did during subsequent campaigns during the decade of armed struggle from 1910 to 1920. Many of the leaders and members of the rebel factions operated from bases in the U.S. From these centers, they exported arms and munitions to their fighting forces operating across the border. Their activities in this respect were facilitated by the fact that there was a considerable degree of pro-revolutionary sentiment in Texas and the southwestern states. This was particularly the case in those areas contiguous to or near the border, a large proportion of whose populations were of Mexican descent or origin. The Mexican federal government, for its part, strove to maintain its own supply of armament from the U.S. and other foreign countries. It also attempted—principally through its embassy and consular offices in that country—to block or seal off the supply of resources to the enemy (Coerver and Hall 1984, 3-4; Portilla 1995, 317-318).

The rebel leaders and agents in the U.S. also recruited men to fight in Mexico. This recruitment was limited by prohibitions against such activity imposed by the U.S. neutrality laws. The Mexican federal government, particularly during the presidencies of

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Borders and Identities/Border Identities: The Angola-Namibia Border and the Plurivocality of the Kwanyama Identity

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Abstract: *This article addresses the case of the African border between Angola and Namibia focusing on its linear part between the Kunene River, in the West, and the Okavango River, in the East. An area inhabited by the Kwanyama people. Drawing on both the Angola-Namibia border's symbolic meanings and its effects on the Kwanyama people's everyday life, we propose the idea of borders as social practice and discourse. We attempt to investigate the Angola-Namibia border both as 'institution' and 'process,' reflecting not only on the macro-perspective of the 'big discourses' that the State construction is based on, taking into consideration borders as institution and juridical and territorial limits of State power. We also focus attention, through a sort of 'squint,' on the micro-perspective of 'small discourses' that narrate the day-to-day experience of border communities who live regional transformations due to the border presence. To put it differently, we focus on the need to 'humanize' the borderlands.*

Within this framework of reflection, the article looks at the territorial and human consequences of the Angola-Namibia border on the Kwanyama people, considering how a new borderland has taken and is currently taking shape. In particular, we discuss the discursive construction of identity and the role of border discourses in this process. In so doing, we deal with two discourses that express the Kwanyama identity along and across the border: one constructed by traditional authorities and the other by 'common' people who live in the many villages divided by the border.

Introduction: Humanizing the Border

Concerning borders in Africa, this article addresses in detail the case of the border between Angola and Namibia, by adopting an interdisciplinary methodology that combines a bibliographic-archivistic research with fieldwork in the Northern Region of Ohangwena, Namibia along Angola border. More precisely, our field methodology includes participatory observation, interviews and the making of participatory maps drawn by border village communities.

We do not consider the Angola-Namibia border's total length (1,380 km). We focus instead on its linear part between the Kunene River, in the West, and the Okavango River, in the East, inhabited by the Kwanyamas. The Kwamyamas form one of the 13 sub-tribes of the Owambo ethnic group and are well-known historically for their extraordinary force due to their excellent political and military organization (Williams 1991). The history of the Angola-Namibia border cannot be understood without con-

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Integration Strategies and Barriers to Co-Operation in Cross-Border Regions: Case Study of the Øresund Region

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Abstract: *The purpose of the article is to analyze strategies for cross-border integration in the Øresund Region. The point of departure is that the development of strategies for cross-border integration is dependent on the development on both the general level in the EU and deregulation of economy and business on the global level. In this respect, the article points out the importance of market forces and their influence on institutional change. Recent economic crises have put growth center stage at both the national and regional level, and have called for regional development programs on both the Swedish and Danish sides of the Sound. The strengths and weaknesses of the Øresund Region's 'traditional' and new institutions as instruments for change are examined. The article identifies and discusses the structures, institutions, and players which are the driving forces in the field between markets and institutions.*

Introduction

From an historical point of view, research on economic growth and innovation has proved that the establishment of "institutions" has played a decisive role in improving human welfare in the western world. Douglass North (1990) defines "institutions" as "rules of the game together with their enforcement arrangements," while "organizations" are termed as "players." Hodgson (1994), on the other hand, gives a broader definition of "institutions"—where formal institutions or organizations, such as corporations and associations also are included in the definition. Although there is an analytical value in North's distinction, it is often problematic to make this distinction when undertaking concrete analysis, especially in cross-border institutions where both the "rules of the game," public institutions and private organizations are all part of the function of "an institution." In this study, the definition of "institutions" is taken to include all three: "the rules of the game," public or government institutions, and organizations where there is a mix of public and private sector participation. Historically, institutions have played a role both as a driving force and a barrier to development. In Europe, this process was pursued through the breaking down of old institutions, particularly the influence of the Church. The establishment of new institutions, such as contract law, has contributed to economic growth by securing ownership and the development of, for example, markets which operate relatively autonomously from political and religious restrictions. Another example is the development of patent laws that have

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Labor Market Effects in the German-Czech Border Region: An Empirical Study Using the IAB Employment Sample (IABS)

Michael Moritz and Margit Gröger*

Abstract: *Using the IAB Employment Sample (IABS) covering 1980-2001, we investigate what impact the fall of the Iron Curtain has had on the skill structure of employment and wages in the western German districts neighboring the Czech Republic. The introduction of free trade and capital mobility in this region, which has one of the world's largest wage differentials, can be seen as a natural experiment. Even though full liberalization of the labor markets has not yet occurred, integration of product and capital markets should lead to significant shifts in economic activities. We presume that changes in skill and wage structures are particularly apparent in the regions situated immediately on the open border. Distinguishing three skill categories we obtain rather unexpected results. Though we observe a general shift from low-skilled jobs towards skilled jobs and a convergence trend of border regions towards the national average, we do not find a special effect for the period after the opening of the border, neither concerning the skill structure nor the wage differentials.*

Introduction

The fall of the Iron Curtain fundamentally changed the economic relationships between Western and Eastern European countries. Particularly the regions situated on the border with the new EU member countries are affected by reduced restrictions in trade and an increased division of labor. Due to the unexpected events of 1989, the labor market along the border between the Federal State of Bavaria (western Germany) and the Czech Republic, which has one of the world's largest wage differentials, can be regarded as a natural experiment. Despite existing restrictions on labor mobility, which for Czech employees will probably be limited until 2011, effects of international trade have been obvious since the opening of the border. Just as the introduction of the North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA) led to cross-border linkages along the U.S.-Mexico border (Hanson 1996), a gradual integration process is leading to the outsourcing of economic activities in the Bavarian-Czech borderland. As a result of outsourcing, we expect structural shifts in labor demand, especially in the border regions, and therefore changes in the skill and wage structures which are more distinctive than those at national level.

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Biometrics: Intersecting Borders and Bodies in Liberal Bionetwork States

James C. Ross*

Abstract: *This paper addresses the following two part question:* How *are liberal bionetwork states using technology to manage human flows and what are the broader political implications of these developments? Specifically, I examine the expanding scope and implications of biometric surveillance technologies in liberal states' border securitization practices. Since 9/11, biometric identification systems have been fast-tracked as a "silver-bullet solution" to address perceived threats to border security in the United States and the European Union. I argue that the deployment of new information and biometric technologies in the United States and the European Union is both* individuating *and* expanding *state space into new geographies (i.e., state control is extensifying* inside *bodies and reaching* outside *sovereign territorial boundaries). This is due, in part, to the deployment and growing interoperability of new border securitization technologies, like US-VISIT in the United States and the second generation of the Schengen Information System (SIS II) and Visa Information System (VIS) in the European Union. Biometric systems augment efforts to create a high-concept, multi-layered, interoperable system of "virtual borders" designed to deter or intercept determined terrorists, criminals, and unauthorized migrants. As the deployment of biometric technologies creep from the margins to the mainstream, privacy and surveillance concerns will become evermore salient. Equally important are the implications of this incremental "disembodied integration" of people with states on how liberal bionetwork societies make decisions about belonging and exclusion. As virtual borders extend into our bodies and around the globe, securitization measures that intersect bodies and states require a virtual theory to account for these new geographies of state space and the qualitative affects on individuals.*

Introduction

> The only thing that interests me now is the problem of circumventing the machine, learning if the inevitable admits a loophole. —*Albert Camus*

On July 12, 1920, my grandfather, en route from Czechoslovakia, arrived at Ellis Island with his parents and eight siblings on a ship called *The Rotterdam.* He was nine years old and to this day vividly recalls awaiting the dreaded inspections that screened more than twenty million individuals between 1892 and 1924 for contagious diseases, "inferior genes," and their general "fitness" to become Americans (Kraut 1995).

Immigration inspections have changed substantially since 1920, as have the rationales for immigrant selection and exclusion in liberal states. One of the most profound changes has come from the recent adoption of new information and communication technologies to meet perceived border security threats, a mold that international

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Determinants of Cross-Border Commuting: Do Cross-Border Commuters within the Household Matter?

Georg Gottholmseder and Engelbert Theurl*

Abstract: *Cross-Border commuting is an important form of spatial labor mobility. It is influenced by socio-economic characteristics and personal attitudes, as well as, by the institutional framework shaped by the labor market, social insurance, and tax laws of the jurisdictions involved. In this paper we analyze the determinants of cross-border commuting, focusing on the question, whether the existence of cross-border commuters within the household changes the probability for cross-border commuting for other household members. The empirical analysis is based on face-to-face interviews with employees in the Austrian Land of Vorarlberg, a region with a strong cross-border commuting tradition especially to Switzerland and Liechtenstein. The sole existence of cross-border commuters does not change the probability to be a cross-border commuter. However, we find a significant effect if we interact the existence of cross-border commuters with the presence of children in the household. Besides this, we present evidence on the role of other socio-economic and personal characteristics on the cross-border commuting decision.*

Introduction

Starting with the Treaty of Rome (1957), the encouraging of individual spatial mobility in its different types—migration, cross-border commuting—has always been a major economic goal in the European Economic Community. Recently, this is documented in "The Treaty of Amsterdam" (1997) and the "Action Plan for Skills and Mobility" (2002). For economic strategies to enhance international labor mobility, the knowledge of the determinants of labor mobility and immobility is indispensable. Factors determining labor mobility have so far been analyzed comprehensively in the field of economics and geography. Two main categories of analyses can be identified: (I) Contributions analyzing intrajurisdictional labor mobility (van Ommeren 1997; Rouwendal 1994, 2001), putting strong emphasis on the analysis of the effects of household characteristics on the individual commuting decisions and (II) studies of interjurisdictional labor mobility, (see for example Janssen 1999, 2000; van Houtum 2000) focusing on the effects of socio-economic characteristics, personal attitudes, emotional factors as well as the legal framework cross-border workers are confronted with.

The aim of this paper is to analyze the determinants of cross-border commuting, taking into account household characteristics. We focus on the question, what effect cross-border commuters within the household might have on the mobility of other

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Research Note

A Dataset for U.S.-Mexico Border Research

Joan B. Anderson and James Gerber*

This note describes a new dataset for research on the United States-Mexico border regions. The dataset forms the empirical core of the newly published book, *Fifty Years of Change on the U.S.-Mexican Border: Growth, Development, and Quality of Life* by Joan B. Anderson and James Gerber (2007), and is contained in 75 Excel files hosted by the Center for Latin American Studies at San Diego State University. The files can be found at http://latinamericanstudies.sdsu.edu/BorderData.html.

Coverage: Geography and Political Units

The data are a compilation of Mexican and U.S. census data from the decennial censuses of population and housing taken from 1950 to 2000, along with estimates of a few variables for which there are no census reports (e.g., local income). The political boundaries of the data are counties (U.S.) and *municipios* (Mexico) while the geographical definition of the border includes all counties and *municipios* that touch the international border. In total, there are 25 U.S. counties in 4 states, and 38 Mexican *municipios* in 6 states.[1] The Excel data tables are numbered to correspond to the numbering of figures in the book. For example, Table 2.1a presents the Mexican data by nation, border region, border state, and *municipio* and Table 2.1b presents the comparable data from the U.S. side. These two tables correspond to Figure 2.1 in Chapter 2. The 75 files are composed of 27 files with demographic data, 5 files with language and ethnic data, 16 files of labor force characteristics, 5 files on income and poverty, 20 files relating to housing and quality of life, including education and infant mortality, and 2 tables of human development indexes, along with the sub-indexes. Most files span the period 1950 to 2000 in the ten-year increments corresponding to the decennial censuses.

Mechanics of the Constructed Variables

Data for each border region as a whole is the sum of the values for each of the counties and *municipios*. For example, the U.S. border region population in 2000 was 6,312,252, which is the sum of the population in each of the 25 border counties in

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2000. All percentage changes and ratios for border regions were calculated by adding the raw numbers for the counties or *municipios* to find the total for the border region and then the percentages or ratios were calculated.

To calculate the annual growth rate over a ten-year period we calculated a simple compound rate by using the formula:

$$Y_1 = Y_0 * (1+g)^t,$$

where Y_1 is the end value, Y_0 is the starting value, g is the rate of growth, and t is the number of years between the starting and ending values. For more detail, see Box 2.2 in Chapter 2 of Anderson and Gerber (2007). Fertility rates are measured in the Mexican data as the total fertility rate, which is equal to the average number of children ever-born to women of childbearing age. We have this data for the U.S. as well, from 1950 through 1990, but the U.S. census did not present total fertility rates for women in 2000. The fertility rate, measured as births per 1000 women between 15 and 44 years of age, is available for the whole period for the U.S. Net migration was calculated as the residual difference between total population growth and growth due to natural increase. While the population growth was the simple compound annual average for each decade, the natural increase was calculated as births minus deaths of the census year in question. For more detail, see Box 2.3 in Chapter 2 of Anderson and Gerber (2007). In both countries, internal migration is measured by the census data as "born in other states." Foreign migration is measured by the number of "foreign born."

Calculation of the labor force participation rate is a good example of a variable definition that is affected by changes over time and space. In this case it is due to changes in the definition of population eligible for the labor force. The labor force participation rate is defined as the proportion of "working-age" that is actively in the labor force (economically active). The problem is that the definition of working-age varies with economic development, especially the minimum age for labor force participation. In Mexico, it has remained at 12 years of age over the fifty year period. In the U.S., the Census Bureau defined the minimum working age as 14 for 1950, 1960, and 1970, but then raised it to 15 in 1980 and thereafter. We used the census definition, which may account for at least some of the lower labor force participation rate in Mexico compared to the U.S. for much of this period. Discussion of the definitions of the labor force participation rate and unemployment rate for each country is contained in Box 6.1 in the book. Age-segmented population also differs for calculations of educational attainment between the U.S. and Mexican censuses. The U.S. measures attainment by the proportion of population 25 years and older while the Mexican census uses the proportion of population 15 years and older for all education levels except for attainment beyond high school. We used the detailed tables on educational attainment by age contained in the Mexican census to convert the Mexican high school attainment variable to that for population 25 years and older.

Another challenge was to estimate per capita income for the Mexican *municipios*. The main problem is that Mexico's Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía, e Informática (INEGI) provides estimates of Gross State Product, divided into 9 sectors,[2] but no income estimates at the *municipio* level. Gross State Product was allocated to the *municipios* in accordance with employment by sector. In other words, *municipio* m's share of state income is equal to the sum of the products of state-level sectoral income shares times *municipio*-level employment shares. This will give a reasonable approximation as long as we can assume that productivity within a sector is the same across all the *municipios* of a given state. This income is divided by the population of the *municipio* and then translated into constant 1996 U.S. dollars using purchasing power parity exchange rates based on the Penn World Table, version 6.1 (Heston, Summers, and Aten 2002). More detail on the income variable can be found in the technical appendix to Chapter 7 of the book and also in Anderson and Gerber (2004).

Reliability and Comparability

The chapter on methodology in the *Oxford Latin American History Database* notes that:

> All comparative analyses, particularly when extended over many countries and many years, encounter methodological problems such as the reliability, consistency, and comparability of the data series. The reliability of statistical data depends to a large extent on the quality of the source material....

While we believe that the national censuses are the best available data, we are not of the opinion that they are 100 percent error free. The remainder of this note attempts to alert the reader to some of the areas where problems may exist.

First of all, a data set that covers censuses and fifty years will inevitably have changes in the units of analysis and variables collected, both of which can reduce data comparability through time. Rapid population growth caused changes in political divisions in Mexico, while in the U.S., county lines generally remained fixed once they were established and regardless of how much population expanded. As a result, several new *municipios* were created over the 50-year period of the study. Between 1950 and 1960 Miguel Aleman broke off from Mier (Tamaulipas), Valle Hermosa from Matamoros (Tamaulipas), and Puerto Peñasco from San Luis Río Colorado (Sonora). During the 1960's, Gustavo Diaz Ordaz and Rio Bravo (both in Tamaulipas) came into being. These new *municipios* were simply added to the data set when they were created. This causes some distortion in the population growth rates for the *municipios* that were divided, but the border region aggregates are not affected at either the state level or for the border region as a whole. After 1970, there was much less division and only two more *municipios* were created. During the 1980s, General Plutarco E. Calles split off from Puerto Peñasco (Sonora) and in the 1990s Playas de Rosarito from Tijuana (Baja California). Given that these last two new *municipios* have a very short history relative to the data set, we ignored the separation and added the numbers for the newly created *municipios* back into the original. Therefore, the values for General Plutarco E. Calles are contained within Puerto Peñasco for 1990 and 2000 and Playas de Rosarito numbers are added to Tijuana for 2000.

In addition to changing political boundaries, a second obstacle to the creation of comparability over time is that the variables collected by the respective census bureaus are sensitive to the level of economic development. This causes problems of comparability over time, since a great deal of economic development has occurred on both sides of the border during this fifty-year period. It also causes problems of U.S.-Mexico data comparability, given the difference in levels of development of the two nations. For example, in the 1950 U.S. census, the population breakdown between rural and urban appears in the first population table while by 2000 it is buried and difficult to find. In addition, the U.S. ceased to collect data on basic literacy after 1970 and the only housing quality data on plumbing is whether or not the house has full plumbing. On the Mexican side, plumbing is divided into a number of categories, including connection to sewage systems, the type of sewage systems, availability of running water to the property, availability of water to the inside of the house and the bathroom(s) and so forth.

A third and more intractable problem is the accuracy of the census enumeration. Head counts are inevitably political acts since federal financial support is often allocated on the basis of population. Consequently, even a perfectly accurate count would likely generate complaints of undercounting by sub-national units. The mayors of Tijuana, for example are famous for arguing that the "real" population of Tijuana is at least 3 million (1.4 million were counted in the *2005 Conteo de Población*). Add political intrigue, lack of transparency in federal funding, extremely rapid urban sprawl, and tens of thousands of recently arrived squatters in the peri-urban areas of rapidly growing cities, and it is not surprising that there are many voices claiming that the population is undercounted. More sober and impartial analyses have shown that in some cases at least, there is some truth to the charges.

The United States began to formally evaluate its census accuracy in 1950 and by 1980, there had developed more than 40 separate projects as part of its Research, Evaluation, and Experimentation program. Among the better known are the post-enumeration program and the content re-interview survey. These and others have demonstrated that ethnic minorities (Blacks and Latinos) tend to be undercounted, as do people living in Western states, and the homeless (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1989). The Mexican case tends to be more complex, in part because there is not the same published documentation of census checks, and also because checks on the census using demographic estimation techniques tends to be more difficult given the higher frequency for under registering births and deaths.

Corona Vázquez (1986) provides one of the few evaluations of the Mexican census. Corona looked primarily at the 1980s census, and to a lesser degree, the 1970 census. He also examined data by state. A common technique for checking reliability and consistency is to construct estimates using techniques from demographic theory, and then to compare the estimates to the census enumeration. This is not always successful at uncovering inconsistencies, but it is one of the few ex-post methods available. In Corona's case, he begins with registered births, which are acknowledged by everyone to be an undercount. Using life tables, he projects the population for various age cohorts born between 1970 and 1980 and finds the estimated population of 0 to 5 and 5 to 14 to be much larger than the actual count. This is prima facie evidence of a census undercount given that he begins with what everyone agrees is an undercount of births. Furthermore, investigation of the preliminary results for the 1990 census show a similar pattern according to the same researcher (Corona Vázquez 1991), the declarations of accuracy by INEGI notwithstanding.

There are two main difficulties for an accurate census count in the Mexican border region: migration and the definition of residency. To some extent, the problem of large migratory flows is akin to the problem of trying to count homeless people, since many migrants may not have a permanent residence and are therefore difficult to count. This is true for the U.S. as well as Mexico. A related problem is the issue of residency and whether a migrant should be counted in their place of origin or their place of residence. The answer depends in part on the definition of residence, as well as the ability of census enumerators to uncover the information. Mexico's census bureau, INEGI (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía y Informática), applies a definition of residency that requires a person to be in a geographical place for 6 months or more, or to intend to be there for 6 months or more. This definition does not appear to have changed over time, and was applied at least as far back as 1970. The idea is that tourists and temporary visitors to a region should not be counted as residents, but it is often difficult to discover intentions or length of stay, and as everyone knows, temporary migrants often have a way of becoming permanent. Corona (1986) found that at least for the 1980 census, the reported net migration data was inconsistent with the state of birth data.

A common complaint about the Mexican census, the alleged failure to include new squatter settlements that appear over night on the periphery of many border cities, may be less important than many believe. INEGI attempts to conduct its count in the shortest time possible (for example, the 1980 census was done in one day, more recent ones in a couple of weeks) and census takers are instructed to amend their maps of neighborhoods if they encounter new and unexpected communities while canvassing the outer reaches of an urban area. To the extent possible, squatter settlements are counted.

In sum, it is impossible to provide a standard error for the data but we note that there is a continuing problem of undercounting, particularly in the border region where the characteristics of those less likely to be counted are more frequently observed. Later censuses in both countries appear to have become more sophisticated in their attempts to address this issue, but the problem is not yet resolved completely. Hence, we hope that data users will recognize that the numerical values are suggestive rather than precise measurements. Nevertheless, they are the best available source of information and our hope is that this data will be useful for other border researchers. If you have additional questions about the data in the website you may contact Joan Anderson at joana@sandiego.edu or Jim Gerber at jgerber@mail.sdsu.edu.

Endnotes

[1] As described below, there were changes in political boundaries. Consequently, the number of *municipios* in our dataset is slightly different from the today's count. We explain this below.
[2] The division of economic activity varies overtime, but later census divisions can be combined into aggregates that match the earlier census divisions.

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Book Review

Beyond Smoke and Mirrors: Mexican Immigration in an Era of Economic Integration

by Douglass S. Massey, Jorge Durand and Nolan J. Malone
New York: Russell Sage Foundation (2002)

Review by Joan B. Anderson*

Immigration is a hot and emotional topic at the current time. This excellent book contributes some reason and knowledge to the debate. The authors give clarity by presenting an historical context to Mexican immigration. They base their analysis and policy recommendations on a solid database, using data from the Mexican Migration Project. Yet, all this is done in a very readable style making the book accessible not only to academicians but also to policy makers and the general public. The empirical descriptions and analysis are based on data from the Mexican Migration Project (MMP), a large binational data set that has been collecting detailed information on documented and undocumented Mexicans since 1980. The authors argue that the one constant in U.S. border policy throughout the twentieth century is the hypocrisy of arranging to import Mexicans while pretending not to, seeking ways of "accepting Mexicans as workers while limiting their claims as human beings." At the same time "the benefits of Mexico-U.S. migration have historically exceeded the costs for all concerned" (p. 105).

The book is written like a repair manual, treating the immigration issue as a "complicated piece of socio-economic machinery" and argues that understanding it allows one to intervene appropriately to influence outcomes and improve results (p. 2). The introductory chapter is "Ghost in the Machine: Interventions in the Mexico-U.S. Immigration System," followed by a chapter that gives a brief outline of immigration theory: "Principles of Operation." The third chapter, "System Assembly" gives an overview of the history of Mexican immigration to the U.S. from the "Era of Enganche" from 1900 to 1929 when Mexicans were recruited; to the depression era of deportations and diminished inflow; to the Bracero era of 1942 to 1964. They call 1965 to 1985 the "Era of Undocumented Mexicans" in which the Border Patrol would catch some undocumented, giving an illusion of controlling the border, but simply return them to the Mexican side of the border where they could try again. The authors argue that this system worked as de facto guest worker program. Mexicans would come to work, send

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money home, and most (at least 70 percent) return to their families in Mexico. Chapter 4, "System Specifications" provides a detailed analysis of migration during this era.

Chapter 5, "A Wrench in the Works" discusses immigration after the enactment of the Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) in 1986, the same year that Mexico began to open her economy with entry into the GATT. Chapter 6, "Breakdown: Failure in the Post-1986 U.S. Immigration System" describes the failure in the current system. Designed to "close the border" it increased the cost of border enforcement from $150 million per year to over a billion per year and, increased the risks to undocumented Mexicans trying to costs as death tolls rise. While it has not decreased the probability of a Mexican deciding to migrate. What it has changed is the probability of the migrant returning to Mexico from 0.3 per year to 0.1 per year. Pre-1986 the average stay of an undocumented worker was 3 years. After the Immigration reform this increased to an average of almost 9 years. The authors conclude that immigration reform has wasted money and lives without decreasing immigration. It has also caused a shift from more temporary immigration because of the difficulty of returning. At the same time it caused immigration to spread over much more of the United States. Where for pre-1986 immigration was mainly to three states: Texas, California and Illinois, it is now spread throughout the United States.

The final chapter, "Repair Manual: U.S. Immigration Policies for a New Century" lays out a vision for more effective policies based on what the authors see as some basic truths. Fundamental among these is the point that migration "follows naturally from the entry of developing nations into the global economy" (p. 156). Specifically they recommend that Mexican immigrant visas be increased to match much more closely the demand for Mexican labor. Many of these visas could be temporary worker visas, but, if so, should not be tied to specific employers to avoid worker abuse. They argue that making temporary work visas available would go a long way toward reducing undocumented immigration. They suggest that these temporary visas could be used to raise funds by charging a $300 fee for each visa. That plus federal income taxes withheld and savings from needing less Border Patrol, they calculate could yield about $4.4 billion per year to use to cover the administration costs associated with the program, block grants to the states with large immigrant populations to cover costs of additional services by the states, and the remainder for infrastructure investment in the Mexican sending communities to foster development there (pp. 158-161).

This book provides a solid basis for understanding the migration issues. It is based on careful reasoning and solid data. It is a "must read" for anyone interested in the migration issue and, in this reviewer's opinion, it should be required reading for every Congressman who votes on immigration reform.

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Book Review

Fifty Years of Change on the U.S.-Mexico Border

by Joan B. Anderson and James Gerber
Austin: University of Texas Press (December 2007)

Reviewed by David J. Molina*

In 1824, after reading Janet Marcet's book "Conversation on Political Economy" Robert Malthus wrote to her the following "I own I had felt some anxiety about the success of your undertaking, both on account of its difficulty, and its utility; and I am very happy to be able to say that I think you have overcome the first and consequently insured completely the second" (Polkinghorn 1995, 74). The book was hailed by Malthus, and others, for presenting a clear exposition of the many topics of the emerging field of political economy. As I read the work of Anderson and Gerber, I have to say I echo those comments made by Malthus to Marcet. In my opinion, Anderson and Gerber have accomplished a similar task by making border studies more accessible to students and the general public. Border researchers will find in it a useful resource book. The work that Anderson and Gerber have produced is clearly the first book that is a textbook that would be suitable for Border Study courses. For example, the book contains topic boxes that are a familiar staple of modern textbooks.

The book is divided into 10 chapters that guide the reader from having "a feel" of what border life is like to demographic, social, economic, and environmental issues that are unique to *la frontera*. The population and migration chapter presents data that shows the dramatic demographic changes that have taken place along the U.S.-Mexico border. Here, the reader encounters one of the many obstacles border researchers face such as incompatible data information. For example, the U.S. produces fertility rates for the border counties but the Mexican government produces the more comprehensive total fertility rate. Anderson and Gerber do an excellent job in comparing and contrasting border data information thought the book.

Chapter 3, U.S. Border States and Border Relations, is of particular interest. Here, the authors systematically attempt to explain why U.S. Border States have such diverse relations with their respective border regions. For instance, Brownsville wishing to rename their port the NAFTA port while San Diego refuses to partake in the binational approach in describing its airport. The authors review state policies, history and ethnic

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issues, language, political representation, relative income, trade disparities, and economic distance to provide a fresh look at the heterogeneity of the U.S. border regions.

Anderson and Gerber devote a chapter to the maquiladora industry and explore not only its past but deal with its current changing structure in the post-NAFTA era. In addition the authors point out, I believe correctly, that the pollution being emitted from the maquiladora is clearly not benign but is only one of the many factors that have resulted in the environmental problems along the border. Their environmental chapter is all encompassing and deals not just with the manufacturing waste but also with the impact of the population sprawl that has not been accompanied by an adequate supporting infrastructure. Anderson and Gerber illustrate the benefit of NADB loans but elaborate how these monies are but a mere drop in the bucket of what is truly required to solve the environmental crisis found along our border.

The next two chapters discuss labor and income distributions issues. These two chapters do an excellent job of reviewing the literature and provide, in their respective topic boxes, an invaluable learning tool for students. In the chapter on living standards, Anderson and Gerber combine anecdotal stories with data to illustrate a clear picture even for those who have not step foot on a border region. Their human development chapter is an invaluable pedagogical instrument. It provides a clear description of the construction of a Border Human Development Index (BHDI) and its income, education, and health sub-indexes. The authors provide an excellent example of how one can utilize index information, such as the BHDI, to provide an insightful interpretation of the activity being measured. Anderson and Gerber end the book with a stark evaluation of the impact of September 11th on the border region. They describe how the focus on security, and some of the polarization that has accompanied it, has brought about problems to this area that may take long time to remedy.

Overall, I found the book easy to read, entertaining, and informative. As a border researcher, I find the book useful in that it covers issues that are outside my specialty and provides me with a link between them and my studies. It will make a great textbook for anyone teaching a class on U.S.-Mexico border issues. Finally, I would conclude by once again echoing the words of Robert Malthus to Marcet: "second...I have no doubt that it will have a considerable effect in rendering the science much more popular that it was, and spreading it among a class of persons that was before totally unacquainted with these subjects" (Polkinghorn 1995, 74).

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> (Pacini 1997)
>
> (U.S. Department of Transportation 1998)

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> Recent literature has examined long-run price drifts following initial public offerings (Ritter 1991; Loughran and Ritter 1995), stock splits (Ikenberry, Rankine, and Stice 1996), seasoned equity offerings (Loughran

and Ritter 1995), and equity repurchases (Ikenberry, Lakonishok, and Vermaelen 1995).

If the author of a source referred to appears in the text, it need not be repeated in a parenthetical citation.

Litman (1983) finds that Academy Award nominations or winnings are significantly related to revenues.

Although citation of a source normally follows a direct quotation, it may precede the quotation if syntax permits.

As Edward Tufte points out (2001, 139), "a graphical element may carry data information and also perform a design function usually left to non-data-ink."

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...pertaining to the area. Additional studies concluded that there were inefficiencies in the system involving support services. (Gonzalez 2001, 234)

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(Beijing Zoo 1974a)

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(Hollingsworth and Sockett 1994b)

(Yoskowitz, Pisanni, and García 2000)

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(Zipursky et al. 1997)

In a study by Zipursky and others (1997), the data pointed...

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(Armstrong and Malacinski 1989; Beigl 1989; Pickett and White 1985)

Additional works by the same author(s) are given by date only, separated by commas except where page numbers are required.

(Whittaker 1967, 1975; Wiens 1989a, 1989b)

(Wong 1998, 28; 1999, 475)

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Book with One Author

(Martin du Gard 2000)

Martin du Gard, Roger. 2000. *Lieutenant-Colonel de Maumort*. Trans. By Luc Brebion and Timothy Crouse. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Two Authors or Editors

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(Walker and Taylor 1998)

Walker, J. R., and T. Taylor. 1998. *The Columbia Guide to Online Style*. New York: Columbia Univ. Press.

(Brush and Clark 1983)

Brush, A. H., and G. A. Clark Jr., eds. 1983. *Perspectives in Ornithology*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press.

Three Authors or Editors

(Schellinger, Hudson, and Rijsberman 1998)

Schellinger, Paul, Christopher Hudson, and Marijk Rijsberman, eds. 1998. *Encyclopedia of the Novel*. Chicago: Fitzroy Dearborn.

More than Three Authors

For works by four to ten persons, all names are given in the reference list. In a note or text citation, only the name of the first author is included, followed by "and others" or "et al." with no intervening comma. Note that these are not italicized in parenthetical citations.

(Sechzer et al. 1996, 243)

Sechzer, J. A., S. M. Pfaffilin, F. L. Denmark, A. Griffin, and S. J. Blumenthal, eds. 1996. *Women and Mental Health*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Univ. Press.

For references with eleven or more authors, the first seven are listed followed by "et al." The in text citation follows the same format as more than 3 authors.

Editor (Compiler or Translator) Instead of Author

(Kamrany and Day 1980)

Kamrany, Nake M., and Richard H. Day, eds. 1980. *Economic Issues of the Eighties*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Univ. Press.

Editor (Compiler or Translator) in Addition to Author

(Menchu 1999)

Menchu, Rigoberta. 1999. *Crossing Borders*. Trans. and ed. Ann Wright. New York: Verso.

Chapter in a Book

(Phibbs 1987, 122-24)

Phibbs, Brendan. 1987. Herrlisheim: Diary of a Battle. In *The Other Side of Time: A Combat Surgeon in World War II*, 117-63. Boston: Little, Brown.

Organization as Author

(British Standards Institute 1985)

British Standards Institute. 1985. *Specification for Abbreviation of Title Words and Titles of Publications*. Linford Woods, Milton Keynes, UK: British Standards Institute.

Contribution to a Multi-Author Book

(Wiens 1983)

Wiens, J. A. 1983. Avian Community Ecology: An Iconoclastic View. In *Perspectives in Ornithology*, eds. A. H. Brush and G. A. Clark Jr., 355-403. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Multi-Volume Work

(Wright 1968-78, 2: 341)

Wright, Sewell. 1968-78. *Evolution and the Genetics of Populations*. 4 vols. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press.

Particular Volume in a Multi-Volume Work

(Wright 1969, 129)

Wright, Sewell. 1969. *Theory of Gene Frequencies*. Vol. 2 of *Evolution and the Genetics of Populations*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press.

Electronic Book

(Sirosh, Miikkulainen, and Bednar 1996)

Sirosh, J., R. Miikkulainen, and J. A. Bednar. 1996. Self-Organization of Orientation Maps, Lateral Connections, and Dynamic Receptive Fields in The Primary Visual Cortex. In *Lateral Interactions in the Cortex: Structure and Function*, ed. J. Sirosh, R. Miikkulainen, and Y. Choe. Austin, TX: UTCS Neural Networks Research Group. http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/nn/web-pubs/htmlbook96/ (accessed August 27, 2001).

Scholarly or Professional Journal

In reference lists, the volume number follows the journal title without intervening punctuation and is not in italics. Arabic numerals are used even if the journal itself uses roman numerals.

(Terborgh 1974)

Terborgh, J. 1974. Preservation of Natural Diversity: The Problem of Extinction-Prone Species. *BioScience* 24: 715-22.

In reference lists, the issue number is in parentheses.

Allison, G. W. 1999. The Implications of Experimental Design for Biodiversity Manipulations. *American Naturalist* 153 (1): 26-45.

When a journal uses issue numbers only, without volume numbers, a comma follows the journal title.

Meyerovitch, Eva. 1959. The Gnostic Manuscripts of Upper Egypt. *Diogenes*, no. 25: 84-117.

When the year itself serves as volume number, it is an indispensable element and should therefore not be enclosed in parentheses. A comma follows the journal title.

Myers, N., and R. Tucker. 1987. Deforestation in Central America: Spanish Legacy and North American Consumers. *Environmental Review*, Spring 1987, 55-71.

Forthcoming Works

If an article has been accepted for publication by a journal but has not yet appeared, *forthcoming* stands in place of the year and the page numbers. Any article not yet accepted should be treated as an unpublished manuscript.

(Researcher and Assistant, forthcoming)

Researcher, A. A., and B. B. Assistant. Forthcoming. Article Title. *Journal Name* 103.

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Newspaper articles are commonly cited in notes or parenthetical citations. A list of works cited need not list newspaper items if these have been documented in the text. No corresponding entry in a reference list would be needed for the following citation:

In an article on rampage killers (*New York Times*, April 10, 2000), Laurie Goodstein and William Glaberson describe...

If for some reason, an entry were included, it would appear as follows:

(Mitchell and Bruni 2001)

Mitchell, Alison, and Frank Bruni. 2001. Scars Still Raw, Bush Clashes With McCain. *New York Times*, March 25, 2001.

Citations to online newspapers or news articles posted by news services are identical to their print counterparts, with the addition of a URL and the date the information was accessed.

Mitchell, Alison, and Frank Bruni. 2001. Scars Still Raw, Bush Clashes With McCain. *New York Times*, March 25, 2001. http://www.nytimes.com/2001/3/25/politics/25MCCA.html (accessed January 2, 2002).

Unsigned Newspaper Article

Unsigned newspaper articles or features are best dealt with in text or notes. But if a reference list entry should be needed, the name of the newspaper stands in place of the author.

(*New York Times* 2002)

New York Times. 2002. In Texas, Ad Heats Up Race for Governor. July 30.

Working Paper and Unpublished Work

(Ferber 1971)

Ferber, R. 1971. Family Decision-Making and Economic Behavior. Faculty Working Paper 35, College of Commerce and Business Administration, Univ. of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Thesis or Dissertation

(Schwarz 2000)

Schwarz, G. J. 2000. Multiwavelength Analyses of Classical Carbon-Oxygen Novae (Outbursts, Binary Stars). PhD diss., Arizona State Univ.

Paper Presented at Meetings, Seminars, or Conferences

(O'Guinn 1987)

O'Guinn, T. C. 1987. Touching Greatness: Some Aspects of Star Worship in Contemporary Consumption. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, New York.

Letters and other Communications in Published Collections

A reference to a letter, memorandum, or similar communication in a published collection begins with the names of the sender and the recipient, in that order, followed by a date and sometimes the place where the communication was prepared. The word *letter* is unnecessary, but other forms, such as reports or memoranda, should be specified. The title of the collection is given in the usual form for a book.

In a letter to Charles Milnes Gaskell from London, March 30, 1868 (Adams 1930, 141), Adams wrote...

Adams, Henry. 1930. *Letters of Henry Adams, 1858-1891*. Ed. Worthington Chauncey Ford. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Unpublished Letters or Personal Communications

In parenthetical citations the terms "personal communication" (or "pers. comm."), "unpublished data," and the like are used after the name(s) of the person(s) concerned, following a comma. Reference list entries are unneeded. The abbreviation "et al." should be avoided in such citations.

(H. J. Brody, pers. comm.)

(E. Simpkins, S. Warren, M. Turck, and S. Gorbach, unpublished data)

Government Document

(U.S. Bureau of the Census 1986)

U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1986. Household Net Wealth and Asset Ownership. Current Population Reports, Series P-70, No. 3. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Internet Document

When referencing sources of information found on the internet, please include sufficient information so that other researchers can easily locate the materials.

(Kameras 1996)

Kameras, David. 1996. NAFTA Hearing Exposes Sprint. AFL-CIO News. http://www.aflcio.org/newsonline (accessed March 8, 2002).

Interview

In whatever form interviews or personal communications exist—published, broadcast, preserved in audiovisual form, available online—the citation normally begins with the name of the person interviewed or the person from whom the communication was received. The interviewer or recipient, if mentioned, comes second.

Published Interview

An interview that has already been published or broadcast is treated like an article in a periodical or a chapter in a book.

(Bellour 1979)

Bellour, Raymond. 1979. Alternation, Segmentation, Hypnosis: Interview with Raymond Bellour. By Janet Bergstrom. *Camera Obscura*, nos. 3-4: 89-94.

Unpublished Interview

Unpublished interviews are best cited in text but they occasionally appear in reference lists. Citations should include the names of both the person interviewed and the interviewer; brief identifying information, if appropriate; the place or date of the interview (or both, if known); and, if a transcript or tape is available, where it may be found.

(Hunt 1976)

Hunt, Horace [pseud.]. 1976. Interview by Ronald Schatz. Tape recording. May 16. Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission, Harrisburg.

For further examples of citations consult the *Chicago Manual of Style* 15th Edition.

Format of Graphs, Illustrations and Tables

The initial manuscript submission to the *JBS* may include graphs and illustrations within the text. Once a manuscript is accepted by the editors for publication, it is the responsibility of authors to submit all graphs and illustrations separately and in the proper electronic format. Authors may wish to provide graphs and illustrations to *JBS* specifications at the time of original submission of the manuscript in order to avoid delays.

If authors do not or cannot provide illustrations, the *JBS* will have these prepared and will bill the author for the cost of their production. The cost of a fairly simple full-page map, for example, would be approximately US$40.00; a full-page table would be approximately US$50.00.

Graphs and Illustrations

Graphs may be placed in the text for positioning, but a separate electronic file must be provided in its native file format (such as Excel —*.xls— or equivalent) with its accompanying data. At times, adjustments need to be made due to space limitations and/or grayscale issues, thus requiring corresponding data.

Illustrations may be placed in the text for positioning, but a separate electronic file must be provided in its native file format. Acceptable formats are JPEG, TIFF or AI (Adobe Illustrator). These illustrations should be 300 dpi or greater in resolution and may be submitted in black and white or grayscale.

Size

All illustrations and tables, including titles, legends and notes, must fit within the printable area of the *JBS*. The area is 4.75 inches (12.065 centimeters) wide by 7.75 inches (19.685 centimeters) high. The margins provided previously in the "Preparation of Copy," are a good approximation and should be used as a guide for orientation (portrait or landscape), size, readability and placement of these items.

Fonts

The preferred font for illustrations titles and legends is Helvetica/Arial at 8 point.

Frames

Graphs and illustrations should not be enclosed in frames. Appropriate framing will be done at the time of production editing.

Titles and Legends

Tables should be titled and numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. The title should be in Helvetica/Arial at 8 point, bold, and in initial capitals and lowercase. The legend should be placed at the bottom in Helvetica/Arial at 8 point and in initial capitals and lowercase.

Punctuation should be as in the following example:

Table 1. Per Capita Income in Border Counties

All other illustrations (maps, diagrams, charts, and graphs) should be labeled as "Figure" and numbered consecutively in Arabic numerals.

For example:

Figure 1. The Russian-Finnish Border Region

The title should be located at the top of the illustration and centered in Helvetica/Arial at 8 point and in initial capitals and lowercase. The legend should be placed at the bottom in the same typeface and point size.

Questions Regarding Illustrations

For more information with regard to illustration requirements and formats, contact *JBS* Production Editor Baldomero G. Garcia (baldogarcia@tamiu.edu). Please review illustrations in recent issues of the *Journal of Borderlands Studies* for examples.

Spelling

Our spelling authority is Webster's Third New International Dictionary. The Editors assume that all manuscripts have been proofed for errors, spelling accuracy, and consistency prior to submission. In addition, it is important that authors determine the proper use of accents and diacriticals and use these consistently in their manuscripts.

Languages

The *JBS* accepts manuscripts in English only.

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*Examples derived from the *Chicago Manual of Style* 15th Edition.

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