

Social Studies Series

No. 11

Immigration, education and the labour market

An up-to-date study

Colectivo Ioé

(Walter Actis, Carlos Pereda
and Miguel Ángel de Prada)



Fundación "la Caixa"

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Presentation

When we began this Collection of Social Studies, we did so with a volume on immigration. Last year we returned to this issue with another work devoted, in this case, to investigating Spaniards' opinions on the phenomenon of immigration and immigrants.

According to the authors of this latest volume, the number of foreigners resident in Spain has now reached 1,200,000, with an average annual growth of 20% in the last five years. Such a high growth rate of migratory flows, with the variations logically inherent in their composition as a result of either immigrants' nationality of origin or their place of destination in this country, makes it essential for current studies on immigration in Spain to be dealing with the most recent figures available in order to have any significance. It is the aim of this work to present an up-to-date account of immigration and, as its authors emphasise, to do so in sufficient depth to make it possible to grasp the principal ongoing trends. With this in mind, the book is focussed on two fields in particular: education and the labour market.

This study has been carried out by the Colectivo Ioé, whose members are Walter Actis, Miguel A. De Prada and Carlos Pereda. They were also the co-authors of the first volume to be published in the collection.

The Fundación "la Caixa" hopes that the publication of this book will fulfil its purpose of providing the basis for further analyses of immigration in this country.

Alejandro Plasencia

Vice President

Fundación "la Caixa"

Barcelona, December, 2002

Introduction

It is now almost two decades since Spain began to be talked about as a country of immigration, and increasingly numerous and more detailed studies exist on the situation of immigrants dwelling in this country. However, it is not easy for the non-specialised general public to obtain a realistic vision of their current position. The migratory phenomenon is, almost by definition, constantly changing; and, in addition, the situation in Spain has been transformed over the last few years as migratory flows have accelerated and diversified. As a result, any analysis based on data from only two or three years ago is now obsolete and needs to be revised. Consequently, we have attempted to provide the most up-to-date view possible of the situation in this book, using, in some cases, still unpublished data referring to the first quarter of 2002.

A little over two years ago, in a collective work also edited by Fundación "la Caixa",⁽¹⁾ we published a study of a similar nature entitled *La inmigración extranjera en España, 2000*. If readers have the opportunity to compare the two studies, they will discover not only the changes that have taken place but how much the present situation is continuing to change. However, it is not actually necessary to return to that text, as we provide a detailed analysis of the changes recorded over the last decade, and especially since 1996, in this one.

(1) AA.VV. (2000): *La inmigración extranjera en España. Los retos educativos*. Colección Estudios Sociales, n.º 1, Fundación "la Caixa".

The purpose of this text is to present the current «state of affairs» using official statistical data deriving from various institutions as our source material. We do not therefore attempt to offer explanations of the phenomena described, nor to join in theoretical debates or discussions of government policy on migrations. Instead, we try to provide readers with information that will allow them to assess the principal ongoing tendencies, and to move beyond their own subjective experiences which are generally circumscribed to a limited social and spatial environment. From this «map of the situation», they will find themselves better equipped to adopt or amend their points of view as regards the civic and political options relating to this phenomenon that are under debate today.

The text is divided into three chapters and a final summary. Chapter I places current migratory processes within the context of the recent changes in Spanish society and the world order. It goes on to present their evolution over the last few years, indicating which the major foreign collectives are, the evolution of each one, and their present composition in terms of age and sex. Initially, it analyses information referring to the Spanish State as a whole, and then follows on with more detailed information referring to the different autonomous communities and/or provinces. Overall, this chapter highlights the key points of the situation as it refers to the *total* foreign population, whereas in the next two chapters, we analyse what is happening within two segments of immigration in particular.

Chapter II deals with *pupils* in non-university education; that is, with the younger generations who are attending school in Spain. These are children who were born in Spain or who arrived in this country at an early age, and they make up a key segment of the immigrant populations. This is due not so much to their numbers as to the role that they will play in the future of these collectives by mediating between two worlds: that of their parents and society of origin, and that of their present and future life in Spanish society. The data that have been compiled allow us to identify the composition of foreign pupil groups by nationality and sex, their distribution throughout the different stages of education, and their significance in relation to the main body of pupils, both in the country as a whole and in each one of the provinces.

In Chapter III, we look at foreign *workers*. Disregarding minors and the «inactive» population (people without a job who are not looking for one), we focus on the economic/productive aspects of immigrants. In this respect there is quite detailed information available as regards those in work, but the data are far more limited on the unemployed. Consequently, the final picture is less precise than we would have liked. However, we have been able to establish the predominant features displayed by the foreign workforce in local labour markets. We can show the characteristics of the most numerous collectives, identify those that are growing the fastest, and indicate in which activities and areas of the country they are most prominent.

In each case, we have tried to avoid an over-simplistic approach, based on nothing more than comparisons between Spaniards and foreigners, where the latter are considered to be a homogeneous whole. On the contrary, we have tried to highlight how these populations are characterised by diversity (the condition of «foreigner» does not affect all groups in the same way), and how their situations are differentiated in terms of which part of the country they live in. For example, specific «migratory subsystems» can be identified in some provinces or regions that are the result of both the composition of the immigrant population, and the activities in which they are involved. These and certain other considerations are summarised in the final chapter of the book.

This text is a product of the systematisation of diverse statistical data. However, given that it is a work for the general reader, we have made the presentation of statistical tables as accessible as possible, with the inclusion of more graphs so that the issues discussed can be understood in a more intuitive way. In the statistical appendix at the end we have included tables of the data that have been analysed within the text. Lastly, we have added a bibliographical selection with a brief commentary of each work in the hope of orientating the reader who is interested in a more in-depth study of the issues relating to foreign immigration in Spain.

I. Spanish society and immigration

Our aim is to find out what is happening as regards foreign immigration in Spain. In this chapter, we shall attempt to describe the more general features of the immigration process. However, it is of little use to launch hastily into the presentation and analysis of data, because immigration cannot be fully understood if we limit ourselves strictly to its own components. Although this is not the place for a detailed analysis of the elements that condition, promote or limit cross-border human flows, it seems appropriate to begin with a brief account of the «scenario» within which foreign immigration is located, describing the principal characteristics of Spanish society and the most significant changes in the world order.

At the risk of providing an overly schematic or sketchy vision, our analysis of the global and Spanish context wishes to emphasise that immigration in itself is never «the» issue. If it becomes so, this is due to the characteristics assumed by the other elements of the world system and the societies concerned (those of origin and destination). After discussion of this question, in the remainder of the chapter we shall be looking at the evolution of the foreign population, the main groups within it, its composition by age and sex and its distribution throughout Spanish territory.

1.1. Spanish society since 1975

This period, which can be defined on a world scale by the crisis of post-war economic and social models and subsequent globalisation under the hegemony of liberal policies, began under unique conditions in Spain. The end of the Francoist regime opened the way for the institutionalisation of a democratic regime, which allowed greater participation of the population in social and political life. This process was initially accompanied by a transfer of income towards the more needy sectors of society, by improvements in public services and by social benefits. However, the recessive international cycle eventually affected the Spanish economy and, between 1976 and 1985, the developing crisis brought about a serious productive reconversion. Economic growth picked up again between 1986 and 1991, slowed down until 1994, and has since enjoyed a new expansionist cycle. Meanwhile, the «highs» and «lows» of the macroeconomic figures were played out against a background of important processes of social change. These have created a new kind of society, clearly differentiated from the one prevailing during the period of *development* in the sixties and seventies. Some of the most significant changes to take place were as follows:

- A decline in the birth rate, the stagnation of demographic growth (at around 40 million inhabitants⁽¹⁾), and the ageing of the population (between 1981-1991, those aged over 60 increased by 1.1 million people, while those aged under 15 decreased by 1.9 million people). By 1981, the average size of a household was 3.2 people, which is to say that large families had already become the exception. The huge internal migrations had also dwindled and the places of origin and destination had changed. The level of migration during the 1980s was somewhat below that of the 1950s, but its composition had undergone a marked change: some of the new points of departure had once been the old areas of growth –Guipúzcoa, Vizcaya, Barcelona and Lérida– along with the traditional areas of emigration –the two Castiles, Galicia, Extremadura and Cantabria. The poles of attraction now became the

(1) Vegetative growth –births minus deaths– fell from 7.5% in 1980 to 1.3% in 1991 and to only 0.75% in 1994. Only since 1998 has any growth in the population been recorded, owing to the arrival of foreign immigrants (on 01-01-98, the total population was 39.8 million; by 01-01-2001, it had risen to 41.1 million).

two archipelagos (the Balearic and Canary Islands) and Andalusia, as well as Madrid, the Comunidad Valenciana (comprising Castellón, Valencia and Alicante) and the provinces of the Ebro basin.

- An end to the cycle of mass emigration abroad: from 100,000 emigrants a year in the 1960s, the numbers dropped to some 25,000 from 1975 onwards, and to less than 10,000 in 1991. The substantial return of emigrants from Europe (an estimated 650,000 returnees since 1975). Even so, in 1996, the Spanish authorities officially recognised the existence of 2.1 million emigrants abroad (37% in Europe and 60% in the Americas⁽²⁾).

- State funded healthcare was universalised, the school leaving age was raised and the pensions and retirement system was expanded during this period.

- Changes in the structure of employment: a reduction of the number of jobs in agriculture and industry, cyclical fluctuations in construction, and the expansion of services. (Between 1975 and the first quarter of 2002, jobs in agriculture fell from 22% to 6%, and in industry, from 27% to 19%. Meanwhile, jobs in construction rose from 10% to 12%, and in services, from 41% to 63%).

- The widespread incorporation of women into the labour market. This caused an increase in the number of active women (2.7 million between 1976-2000) as opposed to «housewives» without paid employment outside the home (which dropped by 2.5 million during the same period).

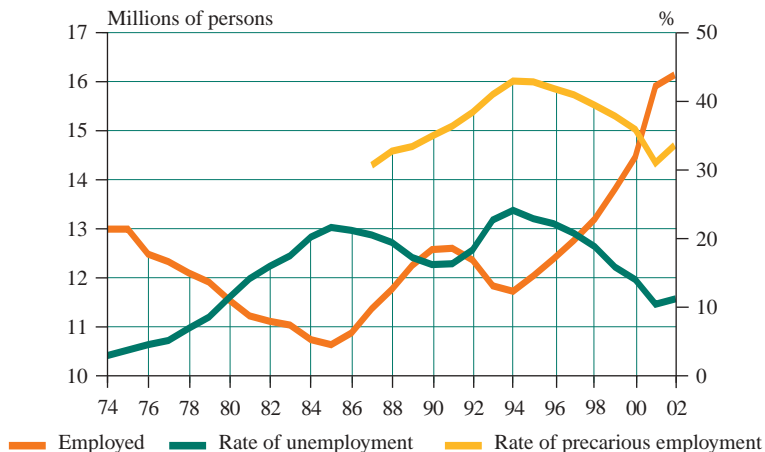
- The appearance of structural unemployment and precarious employment, together with a constant increase in the percentage of wage-earners as opposed to the self-employed. (The unemployment rate rose from 3.8% in 1975 to levels of over 20% at the end of the 1980s and mid 1990s; it subsequently dropped to a rate of over 10%. Precarious employment increased from 18% in 1987 to over 30% since 1990. And the percentage of wage-earners rose from 69% in 1975 to 80% in early 2002).

(2) See Dirección General de Ordenación de las Migraciones (1997): *Anuario de Migraciones 1996*, p.33, Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales, Madrid.

Graph 1.1

EMPLOYMENT, RATES OF UNEMPLOYMENT AND PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT IN SPAIN

1974-2002, in millions of people and percentages



Graph 1.1 shows how employment evolved between 1974 and the start of 2002. We can see the cycles of recession and expansion by following the employment curve (in orange): at the moments of crisis (1985, 1994), the level of employment was at a minimum, and the unemployment rate (in green) at its maximum. As we have already mentioned, however, the recovery since the end of the eighties has been accompanied by the phenomenon of temporary employment. If we add up the figures for the unemployed and wage-earners on a temporary contract, we obtain the rate of precariousness (in yellow) which, even in times of prosperity, affects more than 30% of the active population.

1.2. Changes on the international scene: from bipolarity and the cold war to hierarchised globalisation

Migratory processes cannot be understood exclusively from the perspective of the host country. Not only do the nations from which migrants

originate also deserve recognition, but flows of people are bounded by a structure of relationships comprised of historical, cultural, economic and political elements that make them far more complex than the merely bilateral. The following are just some of the characteristics that define the current world system:

- Since the crisis of the post-war model of growth (the welfare state), a new strategy has prevailed based on the substitution of a *welfare* policy (maintaining demand through public spending) for a *workfare* policy (strengthening supply and subsidising businesses, while reducing social expenditure).

- The disappearance of the USSR and the fall of the «Eastern bloc» put an end to the cold war and left the way open for an international order under the hegemony of the USA, in its capacity as the single remaining great military power.

- Reinforcement of the role of international bodies for the purpose of directing economic policies (the World Trade Organisation, the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank) in the interests of their principal shareholders (the richest countries on the planet). They have promoted policies (adjustment plans, emphasis on external debt repayment, etc.) that have increased North-South economic divergences and have been the cause of severe social crises, one of whose effects has been the massive displacement of populations, either as refugees or as emigrants (the expulsion effect).

- The so-called technological revolution has allowed the development of communications systems (the mass media, telephony, Internet, etc.) that have eliminated the distances between rich and poor as regards message exchanges. The messages of prosperity and plenty broadcast from the «North» have been brought closer to the populations of the «South», either through the media or the emigrants who send home remittances and communicate with their families (the invitation effect).

- The end of the «full employment» model in «advanced» societies, giving rise to policies restricting foreign immigration, which had been encouraged in many of these countries up to that time. Since then,

immigration has been typified as one of the «great dangers» we are facing in the twenty-first century, according to police and military institutions. Hypotheses of international conflicts are developed on the basis of «cultural differences», whereby immigrants are portrayed as would-be «infiltrators» who would support the enemy (the illegalisation/curb effect).

In short, the contemporary international order is represented by the concept of «globalisation», which conjures up a pluriform, horizontal, reticular image. According to this view, today's world is an enormous, highly complicated network, in which everything is (or could come to be) connected to everything else, in a situation of growing equality. However, some of the features we have mentioned demonstrate that there has in fact been greater (North/South) *hierarchisation*, greater *control* (on the part of bodies such as the WTO, the IMF and the WB) and a *concentration of military power* (the USA being the only major player). In this context, migrations do not occur as part of the free flow of elements of the globalised world, but as complicated processes located within a structure of unequal opportunities. While growing freedom exists for flows of *capital* (which, in recent decades, have left the *South for the North*, via capital remittances and external debt payments) and *goods* (especially *from North to South*, since «Southern» economies have been forced to dismantle their tariff barriers while protectionism remains alive and well in the North), movements of *people* are highly regulated. In spite of lamentations about migratory «avalanches», the majority of the displaced of this world dwell in other «Southern» countries. The volume of migration is not excessively large if we consider the global population as a whole and the level of poverty affecting a large part of it; for example, non-EU immigrants who live in European Union countries represent less than 0.3% of the populations of their countries of origin.

1.3. The evolution of foreign immigration in Spain

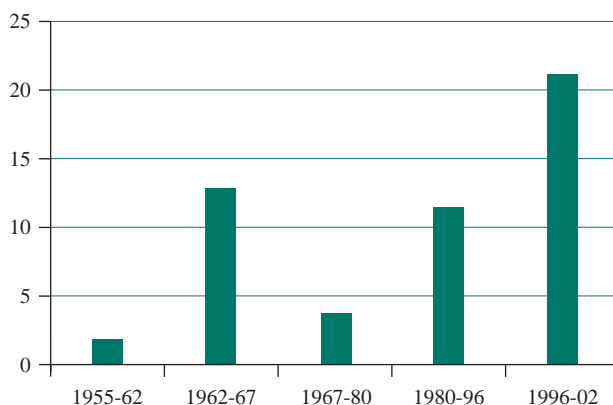
In general terms, we can say that there have been three main periods of foreign immigration to Spain. The first took place in the sixties, over the five-year period 1962-67, when the number of residents increased by an

annual average of 12.9%. The second lasted for about a decade and a half, between 1980 and 1996, when the average annual increase was slightly lower (11.5%). The third began in 1996 and continues today. It is the period that has seen the greatest increase in foreign immigration, which is now rising at around 21.3% per year (see Graph 1.2), and it seems to augur the beginning of a new cycle in which immigration is fast becoming one of the most outstanding features of the Spanish social structure.

Graph 1.2

FOREIGN RESIDENTS

Annual growth in percentages



These three periods are located in two clearly differentiated moments of Spanish history. The first (1962-1967) coincided with the exodus of Spaniards towards Europe during the period of «desarrollismo» («development-ism»), when Francoist governments abandoned the post civil war autarchic economic model for another of dependent growth. That era was characterised by countryside-to-city migrations, emigration to Europe, industrialisation and some progress in public works and infrastructures. The foreigners who were arriving in Spain at that time came from different places and they were heading for different destinations. On the one hand, in the first half of that period, there was considerable growth (of 18.6% annually) in the flow of people from the «South», especially from Morocco, who were coming

to work in the building sector and small scale industry. On the other, and in the latter half, there was an increase in citizens arriving from the «North». They were almost always retired Europeans attracted by the incipient offer of tourist services, the climatic advantages and the favourable difference in income levels between their countries of origin and Spain. At all events, the figures were no more than modest: they rose from 75,000 residents in 1962 to somewhat fewer than 150,000 by 1970.

Since the 1980s, at the time when Spain began to be spoken of as a country of immigration, foreigners have found themselves in a situation very different to that of immigrants in prosperous post-war Europe. In the post-war period, there had been a massive demand for manpower in both the industrial and service sectors during a phase of «full employment» and the rise of workers' organisations. In contrast, the contemporary social model is conspicuous for its increasing social polarisation and the vulnerability of a large sector of the population. Nowadays, employment continues to increase largely in sectors characterised by the irregular and/or temporary nature of the work. Moreover, Spain's entry into the European Union (then the EEC) and the prospect of the free circulation of EEC citizens facilitated the arrival of residents from member countries at the same time as it began to restrict the entry of people of non-EEC origin.

We have confined our analysis to the second period onwards, as it is since the 1980s that flows of economic immigrants have increased and the Spanish authorities have begun to define an immigration policy. However, it is useful to take a broader view of the process by looking briefly at the evolution of the foreign population in the country since 1955. It is important to distinguish between the two major immigration flows that were occurring. Although their origins were obviously more diverse, in general terms, a useful distinction can be made between foreigners coming from countries with higher levels of income and economic development than Spain and foreigners from poorer or less developed nations. There is no adequate denomination for the first group, and we therefore refer to it indifferently as the «first world», the «North», or «rich» countries (in inverted commas),⁽³⁾ while the second

(3) Within this group, we include European Union countries, other countries from Western Europe (Switzerland, Norway, Iceland, etc.), and the United States, Canada, Japan and Australia.

group we call the «third world», the «South» or «poor» countries. This initial distinction is convenient for indicating the distance that has existed between the true composition of the foreign population in Spain and the subjective perception of its native citizens, influenced by the mass media.

The image of Spain as a country of immigration was becoming widespread in the second half of the eighties. However, recognition of this budding reality failed to take account of the situation as a whole, as it overlooked two very important phenomena, namely:

1) The size of the Spanish population that had *emigrated* to other countries, which continued to be considerably more numerous than the aggregate of foreigners in Spain. As recently as 1999, the official figure for Spanish emigrants was over 1,500,000, while foreign residents in Spain only numbered just over 800,000.⁽⁴⁾

2) The manifest presence of people from «first world» countries among foreign residents. They made up 72% of the total in 1985 and 53% ten years later. Only since 1997 have immigrants from the «South» become the majority, and since then, the growth in their numbers been exponential (see Graph 1.3).⁽⁵⁾

It can be seen how the number of residents from «Northern» countries rose after the introduction of democracy, while immigration from the «South» took off after 1985 (once the first Aliens Law had been enacted). It continued to rise after 1991 (after the first regularisation process of «undocumented» people, the *sans papiers*) and has soared since 1997. The result, to date, of these tendencies is that at the end of March, 2002, the total number of foreigners resident in Spain stood at 1,200,000 (see Table 1.1), of whom 870,000 came from «poor» countries and 388,000 from «rich» ones.

The figures that we have given correspond to persons of foreign origin *who have obtained a residence permit* from the Spanish authorities, and do

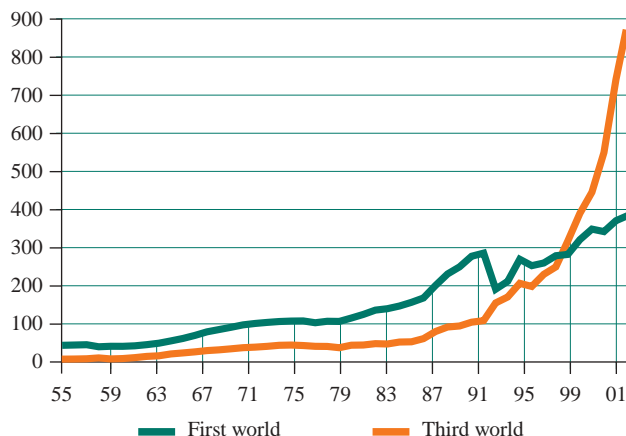
(4) In the early nineties, the sum total of economic remittances sent home by Spaniards resident abroad reached 1.4 million dollars. This is a figure similar to that obtained by the Philippines or Morocco in the same way, although its relative importance in Spain is less (it now adds up to only 0.4% of GDP, whereas in the 1960s, it represented 3%). See ILO (1992): *Migrations*, p.25, Geneva.

(5) The heavy increase in «first world» residents between 1985-90 and the sudden drop in 1990-91 are the result of administrative errors in the registers. The real curve would have shown continuous but slower growth.

Graph 1.3

FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN SPAIN. 1955-2002

In thousands of people



Source: Authors' research based on data from the Ministry of the Interior (figures up to 31st December of each year, except those for 2002 corresponding to 31st March).

not therefore include those who have not been regularised. Consequently, the statistics only offer a delayed and incomplete version of the evolution of the foreign population: one part of it «appears» in police registers only after individuals have been living *de facto* in Spain for some length of time. In this sense, it may be affirmed that there are more foreigners than the official data indicate. This is owing not only to the existence of «undocumented» immigrants, but to the situation of a specific group of people from other countries: namely, those who have obtained Spanish nationality. In legal terms, naturalisation means full parity of rights with native citizens and –among other things– annulment of the formal state of ‘foreigner’; naturalised citizens therefore cease to appear on aliens registers. Between 1955 and 2000, Spanish nationality was granted to 175,000 people, 150,000 of whom have obtained it since 1980. We must therefore add this figure to that of residents, assuming the death rate is low because migrant populations tend to be young.

Overall, therefore, we have 1,200,000 residents, around 150,000 naturalised citizens and an unknown number of people in an illegal situation. Merely as a guide, we can take the number of persons who applied for residence in 2000-2001 and were refused it (some 280,000).⁽⁶⁾ At the beginning of 2002, residents accounted for 3% of the Spanish population; if we add naturalised citizens and the estimated illegals to this figure, the proportion rises to 4%. This is a moderate percentage, although it has risen spectacularly in recent years given that, in 1991, it stood at only 1% (see Table 1.1 of the statistical appendix). Foreigners are obviously not distributed in a homogeneous way throughout the national territory, and therefore some provinces have a far lower percentage than others in which it may be double the average, as we shall see below. Nonetheless, the percentage referring to Spain as whole allows us to establish a comparison with other countries in the developed world.

1.3.1. The situation of Spain in comparison with other developed countries

The OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, which includes the most developed nations)⁽⁷⁾ data referring to 1999 show that, in a list of 22 countries, Spain is placed 19th; in other words, **it is one of the countries with the lowest level of foreign population** (see Graph 1.4). Even taking into account the data for 2002, and assuming that immigration has not increased in the other countries, Spain would only move up three places on the scale, still trailing behind Sweden or France (with over 5%), even farther behind Belgium, Germany, Austria or the United States (8%

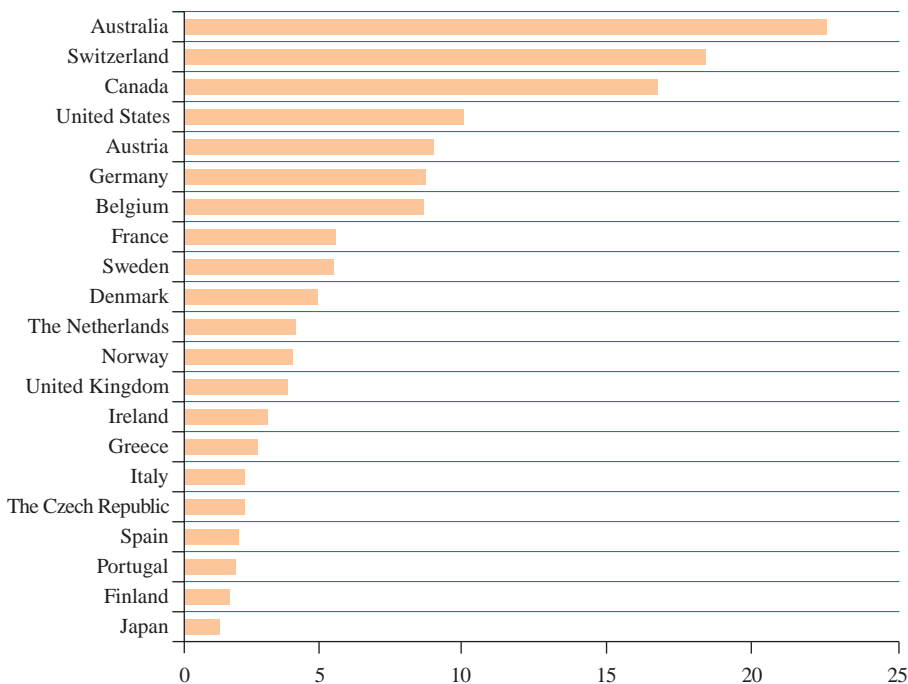
(6) Any estimate of the number of illegal immigrants will always be approximate and provisional. Approximate, because there are no means of calculating with any accuracy a population that eludes the official registers. Provisional, because «illegality» is not a stable condition but a situation that can vary over time. During the second half of 2000 and throughout 2001, several regularisation processes were implemented; the overall balance, in December, 2001, was 615,000 applications and 334,000 permits granted. Therefore, there are 280,000 applicants who continue to be «without documents». To this figure must be added the people who have entered the country subsequent to the regularisations; while those who were granted a residence permit during 2002 and those who have left the country must be deducted.

(7) The original member countries are Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States. They were subsequently joined by Japan, Finland, New Zealand, Mexico, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, South Korea and the Slovak Republic.

Graph 1.4

FOREIGN POPULATION IN OECD COUNTRIES

Data for 1999, in percentages



Note: The percentage of foreign population in Luxembourg stands at 36%.

Source: SOPEMI, *Tendances des migrations internationales 2001*.

to 10%), not to mention Switzerland (19%), Australia (24%) and Luxembourg (36%). It is clear that the latter three countries are special cases, but even if we only consider those closest to us, we can see that to reach the level in France, the foreign population would have to rise by more than one million people in relation to the present figures. It would be advisable to bear this in mind when, in other fields, we demand «homologation with neighbouring countries».

The dynamics of recent years have tended to close the distance, given that during the period 1990-1999 Spain was the European country with the third highest growth rate in immigration after Finland and Greece. In

general, the countries with a lower proportion of immigrants have been those in which the number of foreigners has risen fastest. This does not mean that migratory flows have ceased to the nations with a tradition of immigration (like France, the Netherlands or Belgium), but rather that the rhythm of naturalisation has been greater than the number of new entrants.

1.3.2. Main countries of origin

The period that began in 1996, and continues today, is of particular interest not only because of the high growth rate of the foreign population but because of the changes in its composition. Analysis of this fact is the key to discovering the present dynamics of immigration in Spain. Between December, 1996, and March, 2002, the total number of foreigners more than doubled, rising from 538,000 to 1,243,000. In other words, during this period, more foreigners (705,000) entered the country than were already there to begin with. The great majority (618,000) came from countries in the «South».

Consequently, «third world» immigrants represent 70% of the total. However, divided up by into major zones of origin, the largest group continues to be that of citizens from European Union countries (26.6% of the total), although it leads Africa (26%) and South America (24%) by very little. These three are followed by the groups of immigrants from other European countries (the majority from the old «Eastern bloc») (10%), from Asia (8%), and from Central America (5%). By country, the immigrant group from Morocco (which alone represent 20% of residents) is well ahead of Ecuador (10%), followed by the United Kingdom, Colombia and Germany (somewhat over 5%), and France, Portugal, China, Italy, Peru and Rumania (around 3% each) (see the first two columns of Table 1.2). This panorama is substantially different to the one that existed only five years ago, owing to the differentiated evolution of the different flows.

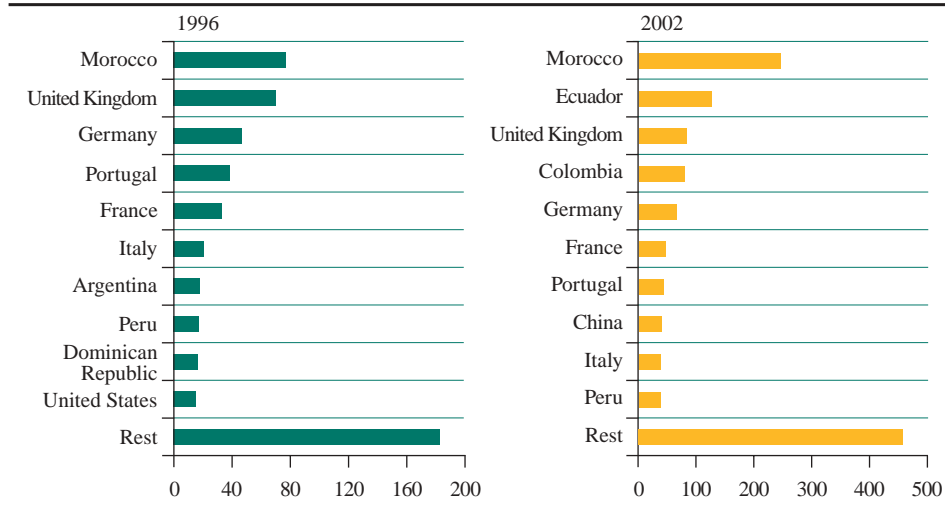
The variation in residents between December, 1996, and March, 2002, in both absolute figures and percentages, has been considerable (see the last four columns of Table 1.2 in the statistical appendix).

- In terms of *numbers*, the groups that increased the most over this five year period were South Americans and Africans (around 225,000 each),

Graph 1.5

FOREIGN RESIDENTS. MAIN NATIONALITIES

In thousands



followed by non-EU Europeans. By nationality, the fastest-growing groups were Moroccans and Ecuadorians, followed by Colombians and, to a lesser extent, Rumanians and Chinese.

- If we look at the *percentage* increases, the highest rates also apply to the flow of South Americans, which clearly exceeds that of Africans; the lowest rate however, corresponds to the flow from the European Union. By country, the highest growth rate corresponds to Ecuadorians (whose numbers multiplied by over 40), Ukrainians (by over 30), Rumanians (by 25) and Bulgarians (by 13). There has also been an appreciable increase in the number of Colombians, Pakistanis, Bolivians, Russians and Poles.

Therefore, although the number of African immigrants has increased enormously, the flows that have risen most sharply **during the past five years of the immigration «boom» have originated in Latin America and Eastern Europe.**⁽⁸⁾

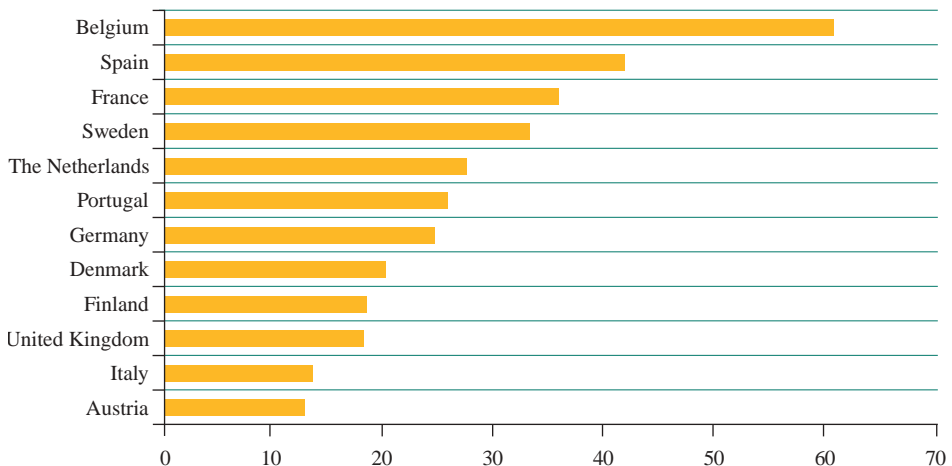
(8) A large number of these are citizens from countries which are candidates for joining the European Union in the near future. In all probability, Rumanians and Bulgarians (the most numerous collectives) will continue to be «non-EU», while Poles will acquire EU status.

As we have seen, the group with the lowest percentage growth is that of foreigners from other EU countries, although in volume, it still represents one quarter of the total number of residents. To put it another way, at the beginning of 2002, in spite of the rapid growth of non-EU immigration, **one in every four foreigners dwelling in Spain came from the EU**. This is an important characteristic of the Spanish migratory model, although it is not the only case within the European context. The data provided by the OECD Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI) show that in Luxembourg in 1999, 89% of foreigners were from other EU countries, while in Belgium, the figure was 62%. In that year, they made up 43% in Spain, around 35% in Sweden and France, and over 25% in the Netherlands, Portugal and Germany (see Graph 1.6). As we already know, between 1999 and 2002, the percentage of EU residents in Spain dropped appreciably, reaching the level of the latter three countries; it would thus appear that we are now in a situation similar to that of several other EU countries. However, if we move beyond the mere comparison of figures, we find different

Graph 1.6

EU RESIDENTS IN EUROPEAN UNION COUNTRIES

Percentage of total number of foreigners, 1999



Note: in Luxembourg, EU residents comprise 89% of the total number of foreigners.

Source: SOPEMI 2001.

compositions of inter-EU migrations. In nations like Belgium, France, Sweden, the Netherlands and Germany, the majority of EU foreigners have come from the *less* developed member countries and they tend to have arrived in the mid twentieth century (from Italy, Portugal and Spain). In contrast, in Spain and Portugal, EU foreigners come from the *more* developed countries (of the «North»), with the exception of the flow Portugal-Spain, which can still be considered a «South-North» movement. Hence the peculiarity of the Spanish case is not due to the volume of EU population, but to the prevalence of people from countries with income levels higher than those of Spaniards.

An issue commonly debated in relation to these populations is whether or not they should be regarded as immigrants. Those who reply in the negative claim that immigrants are only those who change countries in search of an improvement in their economic situation, and that the majority of EU citizens come to Spain after retirement to benefit from the advantageous income differences. As we shall see below, this claim is untrue in the majority of cases. Furthermore, any concept of immigration along these lines is always linked to the notion of (absolute or relative) poverty and tends to disguise the diversity that characterises trans-border human movements, when these have always been made up of groups with a wide variety of qualifications, income levels and social attributes.

1.3.3. Women, men, children, adults, the elderly

Knowledge of the number, nationality of origin and spatial distribution of foreigners is insufficient to overcome an abstract and relatively homogeneous image of immigration. As opposed to the «nationalistic» stereotype of native citizens, who tend to homogenise immigrants in a reductionist way in terms of their nationality, it is interesting to know the different *kinds* that actually exist. The internal composition of each national colony, the dominant roles and the networks of relationships that are established all constitute the social micro-structures on the basis of which each of these collectives develop their various strategies for integration. In Spain, we do not know the civil state (or group of coexistence) or level of education of the foreign population with anything like sufficient accuracy or immediacy, but we are able to identify the different age groups and distribution by sex.

Distribution by sex

As regards the *composition by sex*, the available data show that, within the foreign population as a whole, there is a predominance of men which has increased over the last few years: between 1997 and 2002, the total number of men rose higher than that of women (namely, 126% and 97%). Consequently, the number of women as a proportion of the total foreign population has fallen: they represented 47% of the total in 1992, 48.4% in 1997, and only 44.7% at the start of 2002. At this time, there were 556,000 foreign women and 680,000 foreign men; these figures represent 2.7% and 3.4% of the total of the female and male populations in Spain, respectively.

Nonetheless, this average distribution conceals significant differences. For example, while there is a balanced distribution of the sexes among «Western» Europeans and North Americans, there is an appreciable female majority among Latin Americans (56% of residents are women); and there are far more men than women arriving from Africa (69%) and, though to a lesser extent, from Asia and Eastern Europe (58%). Table 1.3 is a compilation of the figures for each sex corresponding to the twenty-five most numerous collectives.

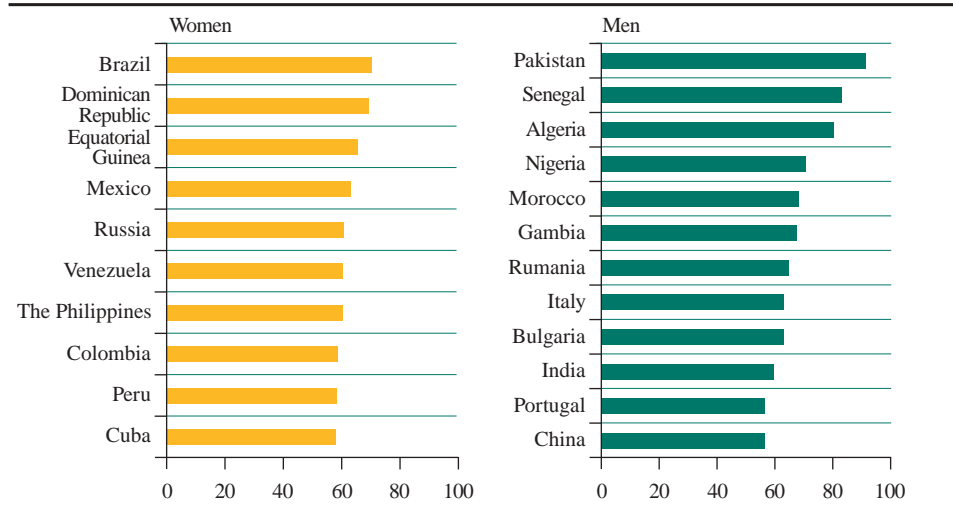
As well as their absolute volume, it is also necessary to know the relative importance of the sexes *within each migrant colony*, because the main referents and solidarity networks are generally established with individuals of the same nationality. From a gender perspective it is not the same to belong to a group characterised by a balance between the sexes (a situation that, in principle, facilitates reproduction of the roles in the society of origin) as it is to belong to one in which women have a clear majority (a circumstance more favourable for achieving a change in traditional roles), or to one in which women are in the minority (which can reinforce male social control).

Consequently, it is useful to identify a marked predominance of one sex or the other among the most numerous groups. The highest rates of feminisation are to be found among immigrants from Brazil and the Dominican Republic (around 70%), Equatorial Guinea (66%), Mexico, Russia, Venezuela, the Philippines, Colombia, Peru and Cuba (between 58% and 63%). It is interesting to observe that the two most numerous groups of

Graph 1.7

NATIONAL COLLECTIVES WITH A MARKED PREDOMINANCE OF ONE SEX

March, 2002, in percentages



women (Moroccans and Ecuadorians) do not appear on this list because, although there are *so many* of them in absolute terms, there are *fewer* than the number of men of the same nationality. Male predominance is marked among immigrants from Pakistan (91 out of every 100 residents is male), Senegal and Algeria (over 80%), Nigeria (70%), Morocco, Gambia, Rumania (around 65%), and Italy, Bulgaria, India, Portugal and China (56% to 63%). In general terms, it can therefore be said that predominantly female groups come from Latin America while predominantly male groups come from the African continent.

The groups in which there is a clear predominance of one sex or the other are, basically, in a more vulnerable situation due to the fact that they have greater difficulties in reproducing the relational patterns and modalities of cooperation and solidarity customary in their countries of origin, in which family structures play a central role. Although there is no reliable confirmation from the available sources, the evidence suggests that there are large numbers of bachelors, and married men whose spouses remain behind

in the country of origin. This circumstance also indicates greater instability on the part of these collectives, which maintain strong ties with the society of origin and do not «settle» in Spain. The possibilities for the integration of married men not yet living with their families are restricted by present government regulations requiring clear proof that they have a job or stable economic means and a dwelling of «the size and characteristics considered normal in the area of residence» in order to initiate family reunification. The labour situation of a large number of immigrants makes it difficult to fulfil these requirements.

There is no single factor that explains the different composition by sex of the various colonies; the relevant factors relate to both the societies of origin and destination. In the case of European residents, the relative balance is related to the majority presence of retired couples. In other cases, what counts is the urban origins of the migrant contingent: in some cultures (especially among Maghrebis and sub-Saharan Africans) the exodus of rural women is harshly stigmatised, which explains the predominance of men in flows from a rural background, and the generally urban origins of the women arriving from such countries. Together with factors specific to the source communities, there are those that condition the labour market in the host society: the majority of emigrants from the Philippines to other countries are men; however, it is mainly women who come to Italy and Spain because they can find jobs in domestic service. It is precisely this kind of demand, and the government policy of quotas, for the admission of new immigrants that have facilitated the feminisation of immigration from Latin American and Asian countries.

Age profiles

As we can see, the apparently homogeneous aggregate of «foreigners» is internally differentiated on the basis of the nationality and sex of the individuals. And to these we must add *age differences*, which reveal the existence of generational cohorts (children, parents, grandparents), each with their own specific characteristics and needs. Of the overall foreign population, children (up to the age of 15) account for 9% of all foreigners

with a residence permit; young people (aged from 16 to 24) form a larger group consisting of 13%; younger adults (up to age 44) are the most numerous contingent, comprising almost half (54%) the number of legal residents; the group of mature adults (aged between 45 and 64) accounts for 16%, and the elderly, only 6%. **In the last five years, there has been a significant increase in the number of younger adults**, outstripping that of the older and younger collectives. This means that the huge growth in immigration since 1996 has been caused mainly by the 25 to 44 age group, since their numbers have risen more than those of the others.

The age profiles in terms of place of origin show that EU Europeans and others from the «first world» (North Americans and non-EU Western Europeans) are the oldest. Younger adults in their working prime are in the majority among immigrants from Eastern Europe and Latin America, and also among Africans and Asians. The segment of young people is larger among the aggregate of people originating from countries in the «South», while children are particularly numerous within the demographic structure of those from Africa and Asia.

As regards nationalities with a significant number of residents, we can identify three main groups in terms of their age structure.

- The first comprises nationalities in which more than one third are aged less than 25; that is, they form a demographic pyramid with a large child-young person component. This is the case of three African collectives (Gambians, Moroccans and Equatorial Guineans) and one Central American one (Dominicans).

- The second comprises those nationalities in which young adults (aged between 25 and 44) make up over 65% of the total. In this group we find natives of Nigeria, Algeria, Ukraine, Pakistan, Mexico, Ecuador, Bolivia, Brazil, Rumania and Senegal.

- The third comprises the colonies in which people aged over 45 account for more than 50%; that is, the oldest age groups. This includes natives of Switzerland, Finland, Norway, Denmark, Great Britain, Sweden and Belgium. Somewhat smaller percentages of this age group are to be

found among residents from the Netherlands, Germany, the USA and France (between 33% and 49%).

Chart 1.1 below shows the age profiles of the main nationalities from «rich» and «poor» countries.

Neither is it possible to highlight any single factor in order to explain these different demographic structures. The predominance of older people among Europeans would seem to be obvious given the nature of this kind of immigration, which was originally made up of the retired and people of independent means. A heavy concentration of younger people in their working prime, aged between 25 and 44, is the prevailing trend among the groups who have arrived in Spain more recently, as they still do not benefit from support networks and the material conditions necessary for bringing or forming a family in the host country. The presence of children also reflects on immigrants' degree of stability: the more securely settled they are, the greater the possibilities for producing a «second generation». This is particularly true of the earliest immigrants from Latin America, especially from countries of the Southern Cone (Chile, Uruguay and Argentina). The geographical distance between the country of origin and Spain also has an influence, particularly when immigrants are in a vulnerable situation; a shorter distance may cause the family nucleus not to emigrate because the emigrant member is able to visit more frequently. Certain cultural practices operate in a similar way, such as the role attributed to grandmothers in the bringing up of children. Among Dominican women of rural origin, for example, the importance of single parent households and the custom of leaving children in the care of other women in the family facilitates female emigration.

The immigration of retired Europeans

In spite of their numerical importance, emigrants from other Western European countries tend to be largely invisible to the native population. The original components of this flow were people who had already retired from the labour market, people with independent means or pensioners, who settled in small towns along the Spanish coasts. During the 1970s, residential estates sprang up in all these areas and they were occupied mainly or exclusively by foreigners. Factors such as the climate, the increase in their

Chart 1.1

RESIDENTS BY NACIONALITY AND AGE GROUP

March, 2002. Percentage distribution

	Aged 0 to 15	Aged 16 to 24	Aged 25 to 44	Aged 45 to 64	Aged over 64
<i>Immigrants from «poor» countries</i>					
Morocco	18.6	17.7	53.3	9.4	1.0
Ecuador	4.7	19.9	67.0	8.3	0.2
Colombia	8.0	15.8	63.9	11.3	1.0
China	12.9	19.0	55.6	10.6	1.8
Peru	7.6	13.0	59.8	16.1	3.5
Rumania	6.8	17.1	65.6	10.2	0.3
Dominican Republic	14.0	18.6	54.1	11.8	1.5
Argentina	7.3	11.3	52.2	21.2	7.9
Cuba	8.6	10.3	62.8	14.9	3.5
Algeria	9.4	8.9	73.3	7.3	1.1
The Philippines	10.3	10.6	56.9	19.9	2.3
Bulgaria	6.5	12.2	64.7	16.1	0.4
Ukraine	3.6	9.7	69.3	17.0	0.3
<i>Immigrants from «rich» countries</i>					
United Kingdom	5.0	6.4	32.4	32.1	24.2
Germany	6.1	6.2	39.6	34.3	13.8
France	7.4	7.7	50.0	22.1	12.8
Portugal	7.2	13.5	51.5	20.8	7.1
Italy	7.7	8.3	52.1	23.1	8.7
Holland	6.1	4.6	40.1	29.3	19.8
United States	6.7	9.2	39.9	25.3	18.9
Belgium	6.1	6.1	36.2	26.6	24.9
Sweden	6.5	7.2	33.2	30.1	22.9
Switzerland	3.3	3.3	19.7	35.7	38.0
Denmark	4.6	5.5	31.2	33.5	25.2
Norway	6.3	5.0	23.9	36.4	28.3
Finland	5.1	4.2	24.8	40.8	25.2

Source: Authors' compilation based on data facilitated by the *Comisaría General de Extranjería y Documentación* of the Ministry of the Interior.

purchasing power resulting from a favourable exchange rate, the weakness of ties with children or grandchildren, and the wish to escape from a highly regulated life in their countries of origin provided the principal motives for emigrating. The first to settle tended to be people who had already been to Spain on holiday. The driving force behind this flow were the property developers who bought arable land from native smallholders, had it reassessed for building purposes, and then built and sold a product not generally within the means of the local population. Moreover, sales promotion of the villas or apartments took place abroad, with all those in each urbanisation tending to be sold in a single country, which led to high concentrations of people of the same nationality.⁽⁹⁾ As a result, the majority of them live in urbanisations separate from the main centres of Spanish population, which has allowed them to remain relatively invisible, and isolated from both their neighbours and local administrations. A large part of this population spends three months or more in another country, which makes them «permanent tourists», or «itinerant residents», even though their usual domicile is in Spain.

The prevailing lifestyles of these urbanisations and urban areas are frequently typical of the countries of origin. In many of them, the presence of Spaniards is unwelcome; and a good deal of economic and social life takes place within the bounds of each community. These features, characteristic of closed ethnic communities, have not however merited the same degree of attention that concentrations of immigrants from the «third world» have attracted. It appears that concern about ghetto tendencies extends only to workers from the «South», although in practice it is a reality in many of the settlements occupied by citizens of European origin.

Incidentally, we must emphasise that pensioners form only a part of the population of EU origin. Even in the case of the national collective with the oldest age profile, namely, Swiss residents, we find that the majority of individuals (62%) are under 65. In all the other collectives, more than 70% of residents are of working age or, to a lesser extent, minors.

(9) Ronquillo, A. and Muñoz, M.^a D. (1998): *Estudio socioeconómico sobre los residentes extranjeros en la Costa Brava*, Gobierno Civil, Girona.

1.3.4. Provincial and regional distribution

Up to this point, all the data on the foreign population have referred to Spain as a whole. This has allowed us to identify the main tendencies and flows, and to compare the situation with neighbouring countries. However, omission of the *spatial* variable might lead us to assume that the situation is similar throughout Spain. To overcome this deficiency, we have to look at the spatial distribution of the foreign population. When we do so, the first thing that we observe is a pattern of *high concentration*, and the second, that the composition of the foreign population varies significantly from one area of the country to another.

The main centres of concentration

In March, 2002, 81% of legal residents lived in six autonomous communities whereas only 63% of the native population inhabited the same regions. This means that the foreign population tends to concentrate more than the native population in certain regions.

- The main zones of concentration are Catalonia and Madrid, where 47% of foreigners live in comparison with scarcely 29% of the total population.
- The two regions that follow in terms of the number of residents, Andalusia and the Comunidad Valenciana, have fewer residents (22% of the total) than natives (28%).
- Next on the list come the two island autonomous communities, the Balearics and the Canaries, where 12% of foreigners and barely 6% of natives live.
- As the remaining eleven autonomies take only 19% of foreigners while 27% of Spaniards live there, there is relatively little trace of the migratory flows within them.

This initial classification indicates that the majority of foreigners choose to live in the autonomous communities on the Mediterranean coast (Catalonia, the Comunidad Valenciana, and Andalusia), or the islands (the

Balearics and the Canaries), and the autonomous community including the national capital, Madrid.

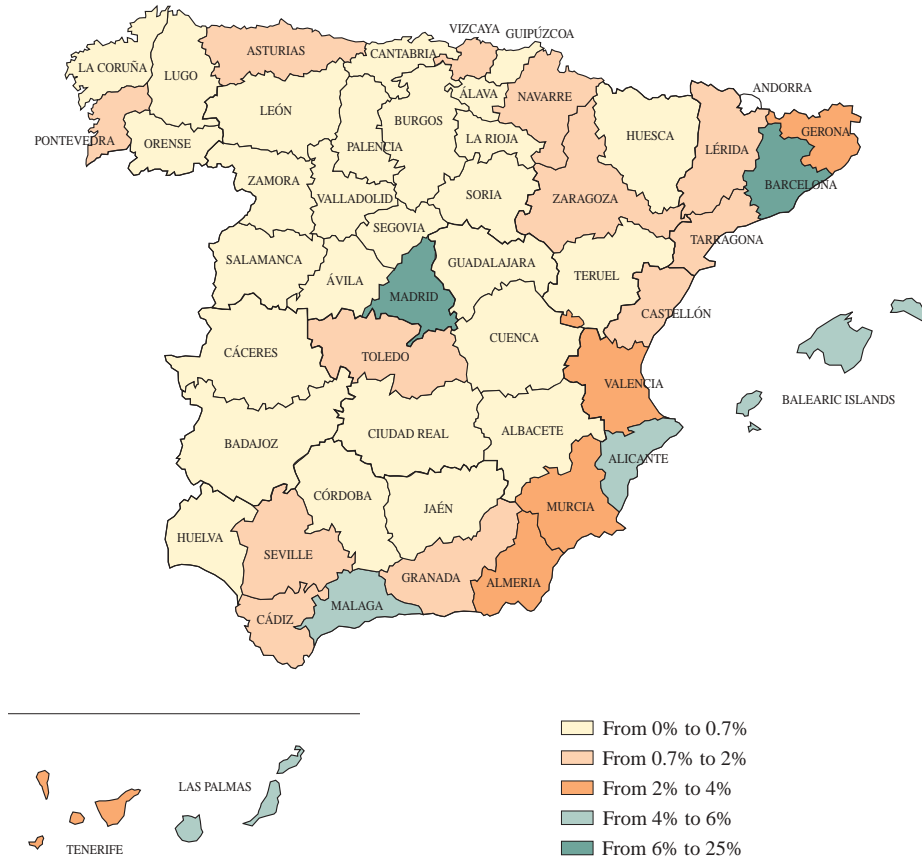
By province, at the top of the list comes Madrid with 23.4%, well ahead of Barcelona with 17.5%. The difference in favour of Madrid has been increasing in recent years, which indicates that it is becoming the focal point for immigration. Next come Alicante, Malaga, the Balearics, and Las Palmas (with around 5% each), followed by Gerona, Almeria, Tenerife, Murcia and Valencia (with approximately 3%). This numerical distribution of foreigners throughout the provinces can be seen on Map 1.1

Nevertheless, the absolute number of foreigners tells us very little unless we place it in relation to the volume of population within each province, in which case we arrive at an indicator of *density* (foreigners as a percentage of the total population of each province). The existence of clearly differentiated situations that range from Almeria at one extreme (where almost 8 out of every 100 inhabitants are foreigners) to Cordoba at the other (where the proportion is barely 0.6%) immediately becomes apparent. Map 1.2 shows which provinces have the highest proportion of foreign population. Almeria and Gerona stand out with over 7%, followed by the Balearics, Las Palmas and Melilla (one of the two Spanish enclaves in Morocco, together with Ceuta) with around 6%, and Madrid, Malaga, Alicante, Barcelona and Tenerife with around 5%.

The evolution recorded between 1998 and 2002 indicates, however, that the provinces in which the «density» of foreigners has increased most rapidly are some of those which previously had the lowest figures. This is true of Albacete, Teruel, Huesca, Cuenca, Soria, Jaén, Segovia and Ciudad Real. This means that, in spite of the high concentrations of immigrant populations, in recent years they have also begun to settle in areas in which they had previously been few and far between. Moreover, during this period, the proportion of foreigners in provinces in which the rates were already high has continued to show a significant increase. Examples of this are Melilla, Almeria, Barcelona, Lérida, Madrid and Murcia. In these cases we find that already existing flows of immigration are gathering momentum.

DISTRIBUTION OF FOREIGN POPULATION BY PROVINCE

March, 2002. In percentages of the total number of foreigners



Residential patterns by zones of origin

Analysis of the distribution by nationalities shows that «third world» immigrants are more likely to settle in Catalonia and Madrid (54%), whereas «first world» immigrants usually choose Andalusia, the Comunidad Valenciana, the Canaries or the Balearics (50%).

The large sector of the population from «rich» countries usually resides in tourist resorts close to the sea, although the different colonies show

- The majority of *Germans* live in the Canaries and the Balearics (42%).

- The *British* and *Belgians* prefer the Comunidad Valenciana and Andalusia (50% and 45% respectively).

- The *Dutch* and the *Swiss* have opted for the Comunidad Valenciana and Catalonia (47% and 54% respectively).

- The *French* are concentrated in Catalonia, Madrid and the Comunidad Valenciana (60%).

- *US Americans* prefer Madrid, Andalusia and Catalonia (67%).

- The majority of *Italians* live in Catalonia, Madrid and the Canaries (66%).

- The *Portuguese* are an exceptional case: they prefer to live in Galicia, Madrid and Castilla y León (53%).

Among the principal «third world» nationalities living in Spain, we would highlight the following profiles:

- An extremely high concentration in a single province. This is the case of *Pakistanis* in Barcelona (69%) and *Poles* in Madrid (62%).

- A particularly high concentration in Madrid and Catalonia. Namely, *Filipinos* (78%), *Peruvians* (74%), *Dominicans* (71%), and *Chinese* (61%).

- A main nucleus in Madrid and the rest spread throughout several provinces. Examples of this pattern are the *Ecuadorians* (46% in Madrid), who are also in evidence in Catalonia, the Comunidad Valenciana and Murcia; the *Rumanians* (44%), with nuclei in Catalonia, Andalusia, Aragón and Castilla-La Mancha; and the *Colombians*, of whom one third are in Madrid, and another third spread between Catalonia, the Canaries and the Comunidad Valenciana.

There are also groups with a unique profile. Among the most numerous collectives, the following stand out:

- One third of *Moroccan* immigrants lives in Catalonia, and another third lives in either Madrid or Andalusia.

- 71% of *Argentineans* live in Catalonia, Madrid or Andalusia.
- 57% of *Cubans* are to be found in the Canaries, Madrid and Catalonia.
- *Algerians* are centred mainly in the Comunidad Valenciana (29%), with other large communities in Catalonia, Andalusia and Aragón (accounting for another 39%).
- *Bulgarians* are to be found mainly in Madrid (35%), and in Castilla y León and the Comunidad Valenciana (another 34%).
- 75% of *Ukrainians* are distributed between Madrid, Andalusia, the Comunidad Valenciana and Catalonia.
- There is a particularly high concentration (54%) of *Senegalese* in Catalonia and Andalusia.

The spatial distribution of the different colonies has not occurred at random, but neither is there some mechanism of automatic allocation; the migratory process is a social reality shaped by the expectations and decisions of the actors involved in it. For example, such a large proportion of Moroccans in Catalonia can be explained by the existence of older nuclei of residents in the suburbs of Barcelona and, especially, by the «reservoir» of migrants who intended to cross the Pyrenees after 1973. As this population became settled, the migratory chain was set in motion. The reason that a majority of Latin Americans are to be found in Madrid and Barcelona, however, is because of the enormous demand for domestic workers, providing jobs for the women from that part of the world. The extremely high concentration of Gambians in Catalonia is due to immigration encouraged by farmers in the region of the Maresme in the early 1980s, a flow which was not to continue and became reduced to the original nucleus. Algerians' preference for the Comunidad Valenciana is due to proximity, to the existence of a means of direct communication with Alicante and the earlier presence of people of that nationality (seasonal sellers and some *pied-noirs* who arrived after 1962).

«Ethnic» maps in the provinces with high immigration

In the section above, we have examined the distribution of the foreign population in terms of the main collectives. We can also carry out analysis by focussing on the provinces, which allows us to discover the composition of the immigrant population within each one. The figures for them all can be consulted in the statistical appendix; here, we shall merely analyse the ten where the most immigrants are living, in order to show the existence of different «migratory models» at a local level.

As we already know, there are three main groups in Spain as a whole: Latin Americans, Maghrebis, and EU Europeans (and other non EU «westerners»), in order of importance. These are followed by another two groups of similar size: Eastern Europeans and Asians. In Chart 1.2 we can see the provincial variations that affect this model. First, we identify the three main areas, in terms of whether the predominant group is Western European (from the European Union, plus Norway, Switzerland, Liechtenstein, etc.), Latin American or Maghrebi. Then we go on to analyse the variations existent within each one of these blocs:

Chart 1.2

FOREIGN RESIDENTS BY ZONE OF ORIGIN AND PROVINCE OF RESIDENCE

March, 2002. Percentage distribution

Province	Zone of origin						
	Latin America	Maghreb	Western Europe	Eastern Europe	Asia	sub-Saharan Africa	Others
Spain	29.3	21.8	21.2	7.7	7.7	4.0	8.3
Madrid	45.8	14.2	12.3	12.0	8.5	3.0	4.2
Barcelona	29.1	30.3	15.0	3.3	14.9	3.8	3.6
Alicante	17.6	14.3	34.1	7.3	3.8	1.3	21.6
Malaga	10.0	11.3	38.5	4.4	5.9	2.6	27.3
Balearics	16.8	11.6	43.0	3.3	3.4	3.2	18.7
Las Palmas	25.5	15.1	32.9	2.3	9.8	3.7	10.6
Gerona	10.7	38.8	22.2	5.2	3.8	14.6	4.7
Almeria	13.5	49.2	7.3	9.1	1.4	10.6	8.9
Tenerife	23.9	4.1	41.7	2.4	7.4	1.8	18.7
Murcia	33.8	42.9	10.3	3.8	2.4	2.2	4.6
Valencia	33.4	14.9	19.1	13.5	8.9	3.6	6.6

- *Western Europeans predominate in:* Malaga, the Balearics, Tenerife, Alicante and Las Palmas. Whereas in Malaga the second group is Maghrebi, in the other three it is Latin American. Third place is occupied by Eastern Europeans in the Balearics and Tenerife, and by Asians in Las Palmas and Malaga.

The principal nationalities are the following: British and Moroccans in Alicante and Malaga; Germans and Moroccans in Las Palmas; British and Germans in Tenerife; and Germans and British in the Balearics.

- *Latin Americans predominate in:* Madrid. This is the most numerous group, accounting for almost half of the total number of foreigners. Some distance behind come Maghrebis and Western Europeans, with a similar volume that is almost equalled by Eastern Europeans.

The most numerous nationalities are Ecuadorians and Moroccans.

- *Maghrebis predominate in:* Barcelona, Gerona, Almeria and Murcia. The second largest group is Latin American, except in the case of Gerona where it is Western European. Third on the list come Western Europeans in Barcelona, Almeria and Murcia, but not Gerona, where it is sub-Saharan Africans.

The most numerous nationalities in each case are Moroccans and Ecuadorians in Barcelona, Almeria and Murcia; and Moroccans and Gambians in Gerona.

Births and marriages: is there a demographic recovery owing to immigration?

One of the arguments commonly employed when it comes to explaining, even to justifying, South-North migrations is the «demographic contribution» of immigrants. Given that the host societies, especially in Europe, are characterised by low birth rates and rising percentages of elderly people, the arrival of younger adults should have a «rejuvenating» effect on the inverted age pyramid. There can be no doubt that this occurs initially, but the crucial question is whether it applies in the medium and long-term: what happens as immigrants become settled in Spain?

One of the key aspects to analyse in this respect is birth rate patterns, comparing those of native women with those of immigrant women. In general, the latter (above all, those arriving from the «South») come from societies with birth rates far higher than that of Spanish women. If, having emigrated, they maintained those rates, the result would indeed be a rejuvenation of the population due not only to the arrival of young women, but also to the greater number of births taking place. Unfortunately, to date there are no systematic data that allow an evaluation of what is happening.

It is possible to approach this question in a limited way by analysing the figures for births registered in Spain on the basis of the mother's nationality. The most recent data available correspond to the year 1999, during which 4.9% of births corresponded to women of non-Spanish nationality (18,500 out of 380,000). This percentage is higher than the percentage of foreign women in relation to the aggregate Spanish female population (2.7%). It therefore seems clear that the birth rate among immigrant women is higher than that of native women. This analysis should now be refined by a breakdown of the mothers' nationality in order to identify differences between national collectives, but such data are unavailable.

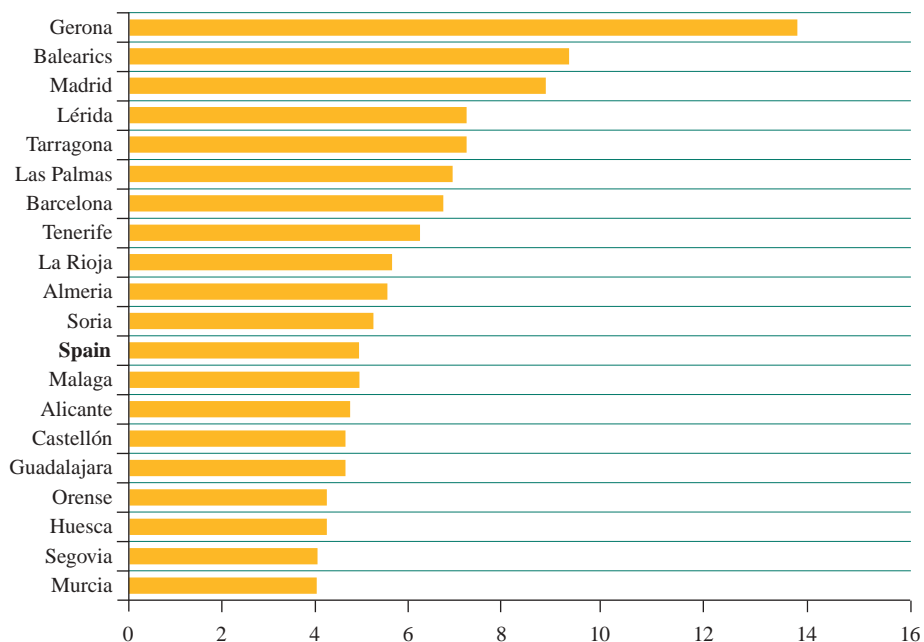
The demographic contribution of immigration as a result of new births varies greatly from one province to another. The differences are due to: a) high birth rates among foreign women, b) low rates among native women, or c) different combinations of both factors. The highest figures are for the city of Melilla, in which almost one third of births were to foreign women. Rates far higher than the national average were also to be found in Gerona and Ceuta (around 13%), the Balearics and Madrid (9%), Lérida, Tarragona, Las Palmas, and Barcelona (7%), Tenerife, La Rioja and Almeria (around 6%) (see Graph 1.8). At the opposite end of the scale are the provinces in which the number of births to foreign women does not even reach 1%: namely, Jaén, Córdoba, Albacete, Huelva and Ciudad Real.

These figures, corresponding to only one year, do not allow us to identify possible trends in the future. However, from countries with a longer experience of immigration, we do know that immigrant birth rates tend to adjust to the level of those of native women over time. If such a tendency were

Graph 1.8

BIRTHS TO FOREIGN MOTHERS. PRINCIPAL PROVINCES. 1999

Percentage of the total number of births in each province



to occur in Spain, demographic «rejuvenation» would only take place for a few years. Nevertheless, it could be prolonged to the extent that women of child-bearing age continue to arrive in significant numbers. On the other hand, there may be a proliferation of the number of mixed couples of native and immigrant origins. In this case, we can assume that there will be a certain estrangement of the foreign partner from their community of origin as they would be cohabiting with a Spanish person. This would also lead to the adoption of birth rate patterns closer to those existing in this society.

There are data on marriages in which at least one of the spouses is foreign, although we cannot be sure how many of them were resident in Spain and how many arrived in the country as a result of marriage. We can only confirm that during 1999 there were approximately 10,000 «mixed»

marriages (between a Spanish man and a foreign woman or vice versa) and almost 1,200 between foreigners. From these figures, we can identify certain preferences on the basis of the sex of the Spanish spouse (see data in Table 1.6 of the statistical appendix):

- Spanish men have tended to marry Latin American and European women; the most common nationalities being Colombians, Moroccans, Brazilians, Germans, British and Dominicans.

- Spanish women have tended to marry European and African men; the most common nationalities being Moroccans, English, Germans, Italians, French and Portuguese.

However, «mixed» couples continue to be in the minority, as «mono-ethnic» marriages, formed by people of the same nationality, continue to prevail, whether they take place in the society of origin or once both members have settled in Spain. Therefore, in the short and medium term, the evolution of birth rate patterns among immigrants will depend on decisions taken by couples married to a spouse of their own nationality.

II. Immigration and education: foreign pupils

The growing presence of foreign immigrants in Spain is not only limited to adults: a significant number of the new arrivals are children. Furthermore, family migrations and the formation of new emigrant couples leads to the birth of foreign children on Spanish soil, many of whom retain the original nationality of their parents. These younger generations - the direct or indirect result of immigration - constitute new populations that must be incorporated into the institutions of the country of residence, of which the education system is a prime example.

The education process is one of the key elements as a means of socialisation and social integration of these new generations. In the classroom, the children of immigrants are offered the opportunity to learn - more easily than their parents - the basic codes of Spanish society (including the native languages) and to initiate a process of formal qualifications. Insofar as the education system is responsible for inculcating the basic values intrinsic to citizenship, in accordance with prevailing standards, it is a vehicle of social reproduction that emphasises national values. Nonetheless, increasing attention is now being paid to intercultural coexistence and the specific social realities of pupil groups as a result of the growing diversity among pupils and recent legislative developments. At present, the Spanish school system is wavering between the inertia of reproducing what already exists, and an incipient willingness to accept –though not without effort– the contributions of socially and culturally diverse pupil groups.

Our aim in this chapter is to outline the characteristics of foreign pupils' evolution within the non-university education system over one decade. It is not only a question of their numbers but of their differentiating characteristics, such as nationality, sex, place of residence and degree of integration into the school system (level of education, type of school).

To accomplish this aim, we have used the statistics on foreign pupils compiled by the education authorities of the autonomous communities, and published annually by the Ministry of Education in the *Estadísticas de la Educación en España*. These data have their limitations,⁽¹⁾ but the advantages of knowing them and analysing them are obvious, as they allow us to disregard misleading impressions deriving from our own particular experience and/or the impact of media messages, and to depict a more comprehensive and «objective» panorama.

2.1. There are fewer native pupils and more of foreign origin. But foreign pupils continue to form a small minority

The birth rate in Spain has fallen significantly over the last twenty years. One of the consequences of this change in demographic behaviour has been a reduction in the school age population. This tendency is apparent in the evolution of the total number of pupils enrolled in non-university education between the academic years of 1991-92 and 2001-02. In round figures, the number dropped from 8,200,000 pupils to 6,630,000; in other words, in the space of only ten years there was a reduction of 1,575,000, a figure equivalent to 19.2% of the existing number of pupils in 1991. Given that the birth rate in Spanish society continues to be one of the lowest in the world, this decreasing tendency will continue in the short and medium term.

Meanwhile, over the same period under analysis, the opposite tendency was clear among pupils of non-Spanish nationality, whose numbers

(1) These are data drawn up by each one of the schools, compiled by staff who are not specialised in statistical records; it is therefore not always clear what definition of «foreigner» has been applied. Moreover, the compilation and systematisation of data is carried out by each of the autonomous community administrations, which does not always guarantee homogeneity of criteria. In addition, the data available refer exclusively to pupils, without recording any information about their social or family circumstances.

have undergone continuous and significant growth. In ten years, they rose from 36,600 to 201,500, an increase of no less than 450%. The figures listed in Table 2.1 (see the statistical appendix) also tell us that this increase has accelerated since the academic year of 1997-98 and particularly since 1999-2000 (the total figure doubled during the seven years between 1991 and 1997, and doubled again in the next four). In other words, **the number of foreign pupils increased continuously over the last decade, and most especially towards the end.** This means we have to assume that the upward tendency will continue in the next few years.

However, these two opposing trends (the decrease of native pupils and increase of foreign ones) are a long way from heralding the «replacement» of Spanish pupils by immigrant ones. Because we started out with groups of such very different dimensions (more than eight million Spaniards, less than 40,000 foreigners), the percentage of immigrant boys and girls has risen from 0.4% of total enrolment (in 1991-92) to a still modest 3% (in 2001-02) over the last decade. These are moderate figures, at least from the perspective of the state school system as a whole, although, as we are about to see, the percentages are considerably higher in certain areas.

A reading of these data, and the trends they reveal, allows us to make the following observations:

- If the present demographic and migratory dynamics continue, the presence of foreign pupils could act as a palliative to the drop in enrolment and, consequently, the possible loss of teaching posts.
- The slowness of public administrations and the school system in dealing with this novel situation of diversity in the classroom, which has been detected in several studies, might be excused on the basis of the limited extent of the phenomenon.
- Nevertheless, the increasing presence of foreign pupils, added to the lack of specific training for teaching staff, mean that some teachers suffer from overwork and stress, and resent the extra «burden» that is placed upon them

2.2. A diversity of origins that does not allow simplifications

So far, we have only compared native pupils with another collective which we have labelled «foreign». This designation is purely negative (as we are referring to an aggregate whose only common feature is that of not being Spanish) and it tends to lump together populations with clearly differentiated social characteristics. If we overemphasise this angle, we do no more than contribute to the (ethnocentric) social construction of an entelechy – the «immigrant collective» – which only exists in the uniformising imagination of natives and state institutions.

Of all the differences between foreign pupils, the essential one to remember is their *zone of origin and nationality*. Let us see what information there is in this respect, by analysing the composition of foreign pupils in the academic year 2001-02. We shall see below the processes of change that have led to this situation.

2.2.1. An outline of the present situation

If we begin by looking at where these pupils come from on the basis of their continent of origin, we find that there are three main zones. Children arriving from the Americas make up 47% of the total; those from the various European countries account for 25%, and those from Africa, 24%. Trailing a long way behind comes the small minority of 6% from Asian countries.

Closer analysis allows us to identify the three main groups more clearly: they come from South America (40%), North Africa (20%) and the European Union (16%). We would highlight the presence of children from European Union countries because, although they are not usually classed as «immigrants», there can be no doubt that they contribute their share of «diversity» to the classroom. Overall, these three groups make up 76% of foreign pupils. They are followed by the collectives from other European countries (10%), Asia (6%), Central America (5%), sub-Saharan Africa (4%) and North America (1%).

An even more detailed examination gives us the main nationalities of these foreign pupils. In Table 2.2 (see the statistical appendix) is a list of the national collectives comprising more than 500 pupils during the academic year 2001-02. Most striking is the size of the groups from Morocco, Ecuador and Colombia. A considerable way behind come the British, Argentineans, Germans, Dominicans, Rumanians, Peruvians, Chinese and French. These eleven nationalities account for 68% of foreign pupils. In order to reach 80%, we have to include another ten nationalities. Analysis of these figures allows us to arrive at two initial conclusions:

1) Three groups stand out: children of Moroccan, Ecuadorian and Colombian origins who, as a whole, account for more than 40% of foreign pupils.

2) The remaining 56% is made up of a broad spectrum of nationalities, which demonstrates the diversity of origins and reflects linguistic, cultural, religious and social differences.

2.2.2. Changes over the last decade

The most recent data available depict a panorama of national diversity, which is the result of the process of *differentiated evolution* of the different groups. In order to evaluate the rhythm of growth pertinent to each one, we have taken the figures for the academic year 1991-92 as our base referent, and given it a value of 100. For the aggregate of foreigners, the index had reached a value of 549.7 in the academic year 2001-02; this means that the number of pupils had multiplied by 5.5.

Taking this average aggregate of foreigners as our reference point, we can identify the groups which have increased at a faster or a slower rate.

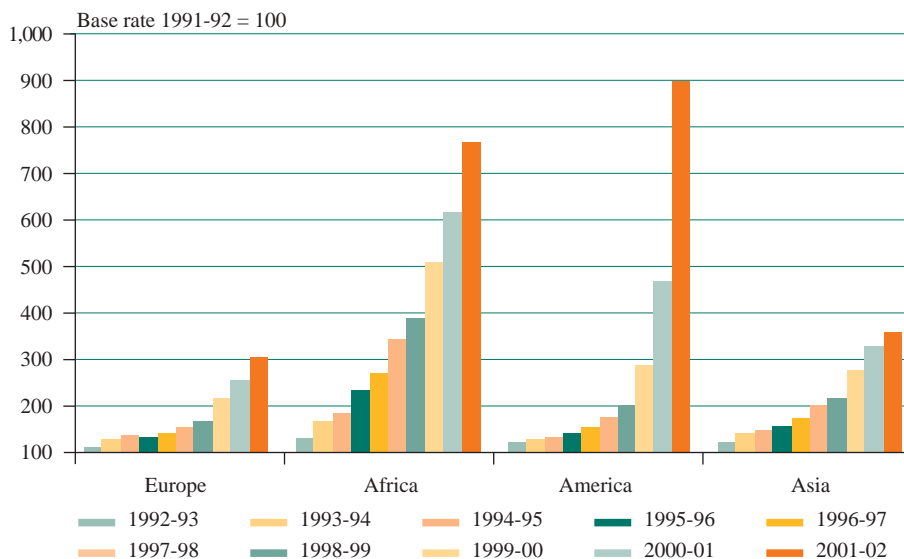
- *Faster* increase: Latin Americans (index 2001-02 = 1,011), other Europeans (887) and Africans (770).

- *Slower* increase: North Americans (214), EU Europeans (217) and Asians (360).

Graph 2.1

EVOLUTION OF FOREIGN PUPILS BY ZONE OF ORIGIN

Academic years 1991-92 to 2001-02



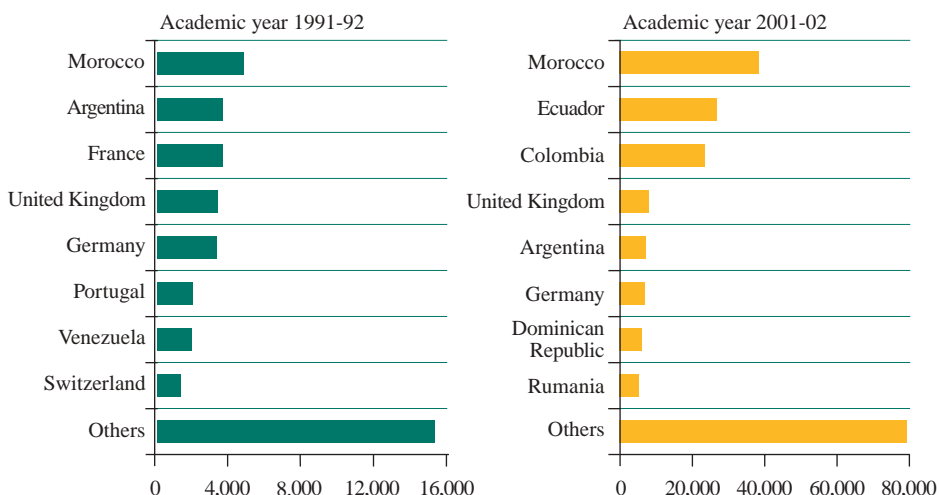
This unequal evolution shows that the greatest increases correspond to non-EU pupils, especially those from Latin America, the Maghreb and Eastern Europe.

As a result of this evolution, *the composition by nationality of foreign pupils has altered* since the beginning of the academic year 1991-92. The most numerous group at that time came from countries belonging to the European Economic Space (EES), followed by Latin Americans. The ranking of nationalities with the highest number of pupils was headed by Morocco, and followed by Argentina, France, the United Kingdom, Germany, Portugal, Venezuela, Switzerland, the USA and Italy. Ten years later, as we have seen, Latin Americans have overtaken EES members, and Africans are approaching the same level as the latter. The list by country of origin continues to be headed by Morocco, but Venezuela, Switzerland, the USA and Italy have disappeared from the first ten places, and the EU nationalities have fallen

back to make way for Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Peru and China. Incidentally, the number of Argentinean pupils had been falling up to 1999-2000, but over the last two years it has begun to rise again. Graph 2.2 gives the main nationalities of foreign pupils at the start and the finish of the period that we are analysing.

Graph 2.2

FOREIGN PUPILS BY NATIONALITY



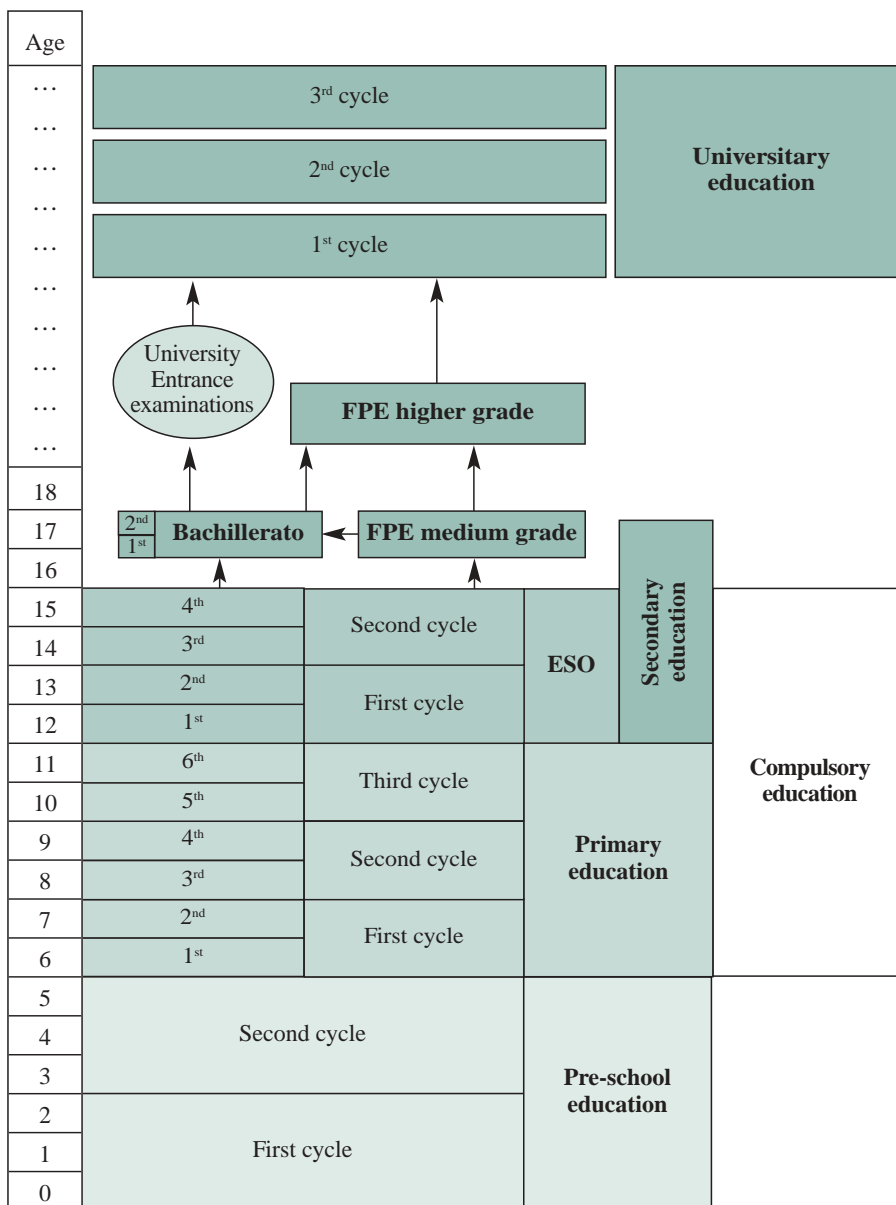
2.3. Diversified integration according to the stage in the educational cycle

As we have just demonstrated, the population called «foreign pupils» is far from homogeneous as regards its origins. We are about to see other differences based on pupils' sex, but at this point we shall consider some of the *internal differences within the education system*, specifically the structure of the various educational cycles. Since the most recent education reform (the LOGSE in 1990), non-university education has been structured in the manner shown in Graph 2.3.

- Pre-school Education: from 0 to 5 years of age; six years grouped in two cycles (non-compulsory).

Graph 2.3

**STRUCTURE OF THE SPANISH EDUCATION SYSTEM.
GENERAL COURSES**



Source: compiled by CIDE from the regulations.

- Primary Education: from 6 to 11 years of age; six years grouped in three cycles (compulsory).

- Compulsory Secondary Education (Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria – ESO): from 12 to 15 years of age; four years, divided into two cycles (compulsory).

Compulsory education therefore has a duration of ten academic years, ideally for children between the ages of 6 and 15. Afterwards there is a variety of options that we could include under the heading of «non-compulsory secondary education», namely:

- Bachillerato (Higher Certificate or ‘A’ levels): 16 and 17 years of age; two years.

- Formación Profesional (FP) de Grado Medio (Vocational Training, Intermediate Level): 16 and 17 years of age; two years.

- Formación Profesional (FP) de Grado Superior (Vocational Training, Advanced Level): 18 years and over; two years. Requirements: Bachillerato or an entrance examination for those aged over 20.

As well as the above, there are also the following modalities:

- Enseñanzas de Régimen Especial (Special Education Regimes), (Artistic, Language, Sports).

- Educación Especial (Special Education): for pupils with mental, physical or sensorial disabilities, or serious behavioural problems. These children can be sent to specialised centres, stay in special units within normal schools, or remain with their class while receiving specialised help.

- Programas de Garantía Social (Socially Guaranteed Programs): for those aged over 16 who failed the ESO; these programs offer work experience, with the option of starting Vocational Training after a test.

The bulk of foreign pupils are in primary education (44%), the next largest segment is in secondary education (ESO) (27%), and there is a smaller segment in pre-school education (19%). There are far fewer pupils to be found in non-compulsory secondary education (4% studying Bachillerato, 3% in Vocational Training and Socially Guaranteed Programs). These data

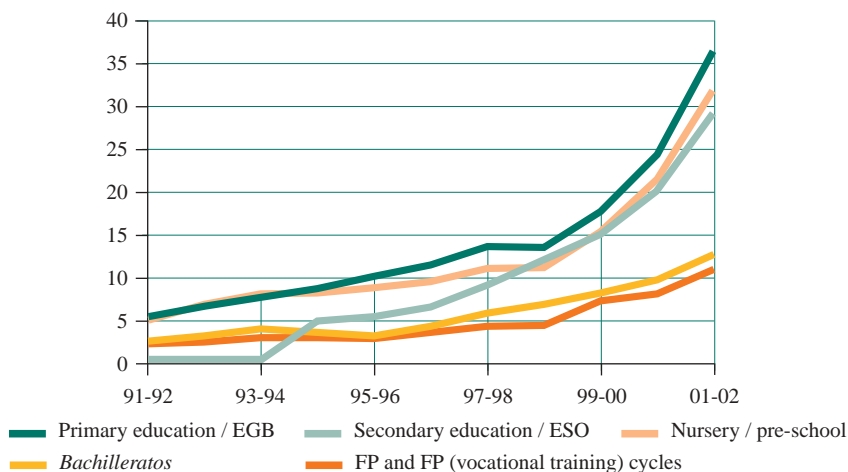
alone indicate a strong showing in compulsory education (Primary and ESO) and a very limited one in the different modalities of non-compulsory secondary education. This circumstance is owing largely to the fact that many young people do not continue studying when they have finished ESO. However, as this is also true of native pupils, we need to find out whether the tendency to leave school is similar or whether there are differences. One way of doing so is to calculate the proportion of foreign students out of the total number at each stage of education.⁽²⁾

The lines of Graph 2.4 show that, by the academic year of 1991-92, there were double the number of foreign children in primary (then known as EGB) and pre-school education as there were in secondary education (Bachillerato and FP). Since then, the numbers have continued to rise at all stages of education, but the growth has been stronger in primary and pre-school than in non-compulsory secondary education. An adequate evaluation of the increase in enrolment in ESO is still not possible, largely because its introduction has been staggered over the last few years. But there are two facts of special significance relating to foreign pupils that we do know. Firstly, the high numbers to be found in non-compulsory pre-school education show that the Spanish school system is being widely used by migrant families with small children. Secondly, the growth in the volume of pupils enrolled in the Socially Guaranteed Programs reflects a failure rate at ESO level. Since the academic year 1997-98, the proportion of foreigners to Spaniards is greater in these Programs than in Bachillerato and Vocational Training; which means that the «failure rate» in secondary education is higher for immigrants. We do not know to what extent we are looking at a circumstantial adjustment process or the appearance of a lasting pattern that will cause concern if it continues.

(2) In recent research, we tried out another, more limited method based on a survey of Moroccan and Dominican families. In this study, we compared their rates of attendance by age group with the Spanish average for the academic year 2000-01. We found that attendance is almost absolute for all groups, both immigrant and native, in the age cohort of compulsory education (aged 6-15), and it is also high at pre-school level (aged 3 to 5). However, the rate drops among immigrants over the age of 16: around 66% of Moroccans and Dominicans aged between 16 and 17 attend school compared with 85% of Spaniards, falling to around 35% of those aged between 18 and 20 (the Spanish average is 61%). At higher levels of education, (21 to 24 years of age), one third of Spaniards, around 20% of Moroccans and almost no Dominicans, continue their studies. See Colectivo Ioé (2002), *Inmigración y género en la escuela española*, CIDE, Madrid.

PROPORTION OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN EACH EDUCATION CYCLE

Evolution 1991-92 / 2001-02, number per thousand



At all events, from the above, we can arrive at two main conclusions:

- The volume of foreign pupils has been growing, especially in the last few years.
- Their numerical importance within the classroom is still limited: somewhat over 3% of enrolment in pre-school and primary education, and barely 1% in non-compulsory secondary education.

Therefore, when we hear allusions to «crowds» of foreigners, or «colleges for immigrants», it must be remembered that these are isolated cases that have been reported in some of the areas with the highest concentrations of immigrant populations; they are certainly not the norm. In any case, alarmist analyses usually refer only to pupils of a certain origin: comments about the «worryingly high concentrations» of pupils from European Union countries (with the occasional exception of Portugal) or North America are hardly frequent.

In this sense, it should be remembered, yet again, that any comparison between foreigners and Spaniards conceals the differences existing between

the various groups of immigrant pupils based on their nationality. If we wish to take these into account, we have to turn to data from the academic year 1999-2000, the last one for which we have detailed information (see Table 2.3 in the statistical appendix). The figures give an indication of the demographic composition of these populations, and also their tendency to continue studying, or not, beyond the compulsory stage. They tell us that:

- The youngest children, who are mainly in pre-school education, come from the Philippines, Poland, Algeria, Ecuador, Rumania, Morocco, Italy and India. It is reasonable to assume that they belong to young parents who have recently arrived in the country, bringing small children with them, or who have had them once they have settled in Spain. The populations with the fewest children at this level are from Switzerland, Equatorial Guinea, Venezuela and Argentina.

- The highest percentages of pupils to be found in primary education are Rumanians, Pakistanis, Algerians, Ecuadorians and Cubans (around 50%). The lowest percentages correspond to the Swiss, Venezuelans, Argentineans and French (under 10%). It is of course the former who belong to collectives in which the number of residents has increased sharply in recent years; so that the flows have a strong family component, as school age children are growing up. The latter, however, belong to groups that have not shown a significant increase in size in recent years (with the partial exception of Argentineans); consequently, there are no small children arriving, only the ones already resident in the country who have grown up and attend school at higher levels of the education cycle.

- In ESO, the largest groups of pupils come from Argentina, the Dominican Republic, China and Venezuela, while the smallest come from the «first world» (the United Kingdom, Italy, the USA, the Netherlands), Rumania and Mexico.

- The presence of foreign pupils in Bachillerato is of dual significance: firstly it indicates the presence of a «second generation» closer to adolescence than childhood; secondly it indicates to what extent the children of foreigners have been incorporated into non-compulsory secondary education, with the prospect of continuing their studies for some years to

come. Here the differentiation is clear: by nationality, the largest groups of pupils at this level come from the «first world» (Canada, Switzerland, the USA and Germany) or South America (Mexico, Venezuela and Argentina); while the smallest groups belong to nationalities with some of the highest numbers of economic immigrants: Morocco, Pakistan, Algeria, Rumania, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and the Philippines, as well as Portugal.

2.4. Variations in the composition of pupil groups by sex

The composition by sex of native pupils is balanced: in 1991-92, there were 50% of each sex and, in 1999-2000, there were 51% of boys and 49% of girls, figures consistent with a slight demographic majority of men. In contrast, among foreign pupils there has traditionally been a certain predominance of males that has tended to decrease in recent academic years: they represented 53.6% of the total in 1991-92, falling to 52% in 1999-2000. In 1991-92, this male majority was particularly marked among Africans (58.6%) and Asians (56.2) but nine years later the percentages had dropped to 55.8% and 52.4%, respectively.

The rate of growth among male pupils was 163% over the nine years analysed (226% from the «third world» and only 71% from the «first world»), and 180% among girls (250% and 85%, respectively). In other words, over the 1990s, both the number of boys and girls increased but the increase in girls was more pronounced, which has contributed to redressing the balance between the sexes.

The comparison between foreign and native pupils on the basis of their sex shows that, of the total of school age children, the percentage of immigrant boys rose from 0.5% in 1991-92 to 1.5% in 1999-2000, while that of immigrant girls went up from 0.4% to 1.4% over the same period.

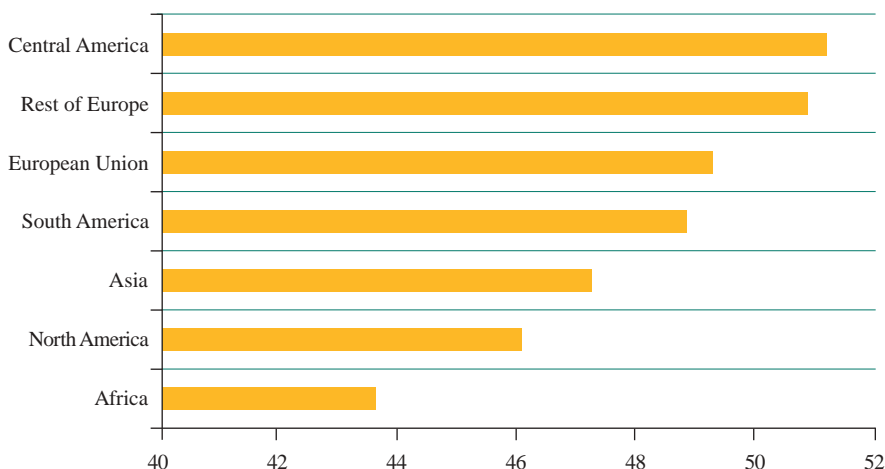
If we consider only the most important nationalities, we can (initially) identify three different groups by the division of the sexes:

Predominantly male. Pupils of Moroccan origin show a high degree of masculinisation (+24.8% in non-university education as a whole). It is a

Graph 2.5

GIRLS AMONG FOREIGN PUPILS BY ZONE OF ORIGIN

Academic year 1999-2000, in percentages



rate that tends to increase in line with the stage of education: 10% in pre-school, 17% in primary, 36% in ESO and 47% in Bachillerato.

Predominantly female. This group is characterised by the greater feminisation of pupils, generally and more noticeably in secondary education. The most evident example is to be found among pupils from the Dominican Republic (4,071 pupils in the academic year 1999-2000). There were 7% fewer girls than boys in pre-school education, they were evenly distributed at primary level, and there were far more girls in secondary education (+18% in ESO and +63% in non-compulsory secondary education).

Balance between the sexes. This model is typical of European, South American and native pupils. On the basis of a balance between the sexes among pupils as a whole, girls have a slightly smaller presence at the stages of compulsory education (around 5% fewer than boys) and a larger one at the non-compulsory stages subsequent to ESO (around 10% more than males). Specifically, they are significantly better represented in Bachillerato (+26%

of girls from the European Union and +17% of those from South America) and under-represented in Vocational Training (–24% and –4% respectively).

We do not know whether the existence of these three groupings of countries on the basis of pupils' sex will be a lasting feature or whether, more probably, it is merely circumstantial and will tend to modify over time. To be able to clarify the situation, we shall have to wait for data from future academic years. Nevertheless, it is important to stress that these differences **do not respond to any customs of preventing children of one sex or the other from attending school**: the percentages in the classroom reflect the same balances or imbalances that are to be found in the composition of the main under-age immigrant groups. This means that any explanation of a male or female predominance in certain groups must be sought in the migratory patterns of families, which may opt to bring children of one sex rather than the other with them when they come to Spain.⁽³⁾

2.5. Maps of the distribution of foreign pupils: differences between autonomous communities

So far, we have been considering foreign pupils within the context of Spain as a whole. However, as we know, the distribution of the foreign population is far from geographically homogeneous and there are some areas with a particularly high concentration of immigrants. This is true of the autonomous communities of Madrid, Catalonia, Andalusia (especially the provinces of Almeria and Malaga), the Balearics, the Canaries, the Comunidad Valenciana (especially Alicante and Valencia) and Murcia.

The distribution of pupils largely coincides with this general distribution. By autonomous communities, the main concentrations are to be found in Madrid (28.5%) and Catalonia (17%), followed by the Comunidad Valenciana (12%), Andalusia (10%) and the Canaries (7%). The important

(3) In the survey of Moroccan and Dominican families in Madrid and Barcelona to which we have referred above, the attendance rate of the girls in these collectives is almost total in the age band (6-15) coinciding with the compulsory education cycles. After the age of 16, the rates drop in both groups, although the percentage is higher for girls than boys: 5% and 14% in the Dominican and Moroccan collectives, respectively. See Colectivo Ioé: *Immigración y género en la escuela española*, op.cit.

change in this respect is how Catalonia, which was the major centre for some years, has now been overtaken by Madrid. In the last ten academic years, the growth in the number of immigrant pupils in Madrid has been more than double that of Catalonia, although both areas started out with high numbers. However, the most significant growth has occurred in communities that had a low enrolment of foreign pupils. These include Murcia, where the numbers multiplied by 36, Castilla y León, by 20, La Rioja and Extremadura, by 10 or more, and Castilla-La Mancha, Cantabria and Madrid, by over 7. The smallest increases were recorded in Galicia, Ceuta and Melilla (which barely doubled their enrolment figures), and Catalonia, the Basque Country and Asturias (which tripled them).

If we now look at the provincial distribution, the two areas that stand out are Madrid and Barcelona, although their respective roles were reversed between 1991 and 2002: the former increased its percentage of the national total (from 20.3% to 28.5%) while the latter dropped back (from 22.3% to 12.2%). After them come Alicante (with 6% of foreign pupils), and the Balearics, Valencia, Murcia and Las Palmas (with 4% each). They are followed by Malaga and Tenerife (over 3%), and Gerona and Almeria (over 2%). The remaining provinces receive less than 2% of foreign school-age pupils in Spain.

The provinces that show the highest percentage growth are those in which immigration, and its impact on the education system, was very limited in 1991; consequently, slight numerical increases turn into sizeable percentage variations. Provinces in Castilla-La Mancha and Castilla y León, like Albacete, Toledo, Ciudad Real, Cuenca, Soria and Zamora increased their enrolment 20 or 30 times over, as did Cáceres, Murcia and Teruel. Increases were also significant in La Rioja, Huesca, Salamanca, Segovia, Palencia and Avila, Almeria and Huelva. Above average increases also occurred in provinces in which foreign pupils had previously been present in larger numbers, such as Madrid, Las Palmas and the Balearics. Increases below the national average were to be found in all the Galician provinces, in Ceuta and Melilla, several Andalusian provinces⁽⁴⁾ (Malaga, Granada and Cadiz) the three Basque

(4) There is no breakdown of data by provinces for Andalusia until the academic year 1993-94. Consequently, the trend in these provinces has been established by comparing its evolution since that date.

Melilla (5%). At the other extreme, we find Jaén, Badajoz, Córdoba, Seville and La Coruña (around 0.5%) (see Map 2.1). It is clear that the numerical importance of these pupils, and the volume of resources that must be allocated by the education authorities as a result, varies significantly from one province to another.

2.5.1. «Ethnic» profiles by autonomous community

Along with the quantitative evolution of the aggregate, specific combinations of foreign pupils in terms of their origins have been taking shape in each one of the regions. A detailed analysis would require study of the developments in each province, with a close look at the most representative nationalities. However, such scrupulous attention to detail would in fact make it more difficult to identify the major differences. We have therefore restricted ourselves to outlining what is happening in each one of the autonomous communities, taking the zone of origin (continent or subcontinent) as our referent. The information has been summarised in Chart 2.1 (below), and allows us to identify clearly differentiated profiles:

- A predominance of Latin American pupils is evident in Asturias, Navarre and Cantabria, as well as Galicia and Madrid.
- Africans are in an absolute majority in Ceuta and Melilla, but also in Extremadura. In Catalonia, Murcia and Castilla-La Mancha, they make up approximately one third.
- Pupils from EU countries do not predominate in any one region, but they add up to around a third of enrolment figures in the Balearics, the Canaries and Andalusia, and 25% in the Comunidad Valenciana.
- «Other Europeans», largely from Eastern European countries, are conspicuous in Castilla y León (20% of foreign pupils), the Comunidad Valenciana, Aragón, Cantabria and Castilla-La Mancha (14%).
- Pupils from Asian countries are to be found largely in the Canaries (10%), La Rioja, Catalonia and Madrid.

Chart 2.1

FOREIGN PUPILS BY ZONE OF ORIGIN AND AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY. ACADEMIC YEAR 2001-02

Percentage distribution

Autonomous community	Zone of origin						
	Latin America	Africa	European Union	Rest of Europe	Asia	North America	Australasia
Andalusia	25.0	26.8	30.3	9.8	5.3	2.7	0.2
Aragón	42.1	28.2	8.6	14.3	4.7	2.1	0.0
Asturias	65.6	6.6	11.1	9.0	3.4	4.3	0.2
Balearics	35.7	19.2	34.7	6.0	3.5	0.8	0.1
Canaries	41.4	10.2	32.9	4.4	10.0	1.0	0.1
Cantabria	58.3	6.1	12.3	14.0	4.3	4.9	0.1
Castilla y León	39.4	17.5	16.1	19.0	4.9	2.9	0.1
Castilla-la Mancha	45.8	31.4	5.1	13.6	3.0	0.9	0.1
Catalonia	37.0	39.4	8.3	7.4	6.5	1.5	0.0
Comunidad Valenciana	38.5	15.3	25.6	14.5	4.5	1.4	0.1
Extremadura	15.6	68.7	9.5	2.8	2.7	0.6	0.0
Galicia	55.4	10.7	20.2	8.4	2.9	2.1	0.2
Madrid	53.6	19.8	8.1	10.4	6.4	1.7	0.1
Murcia	46.5	36.1	7.7	6.8	2.4	0.5	0.0
Navarre	63.2	13.8	10.6	9.6	1.4	1.5	0.0
Basque Country	49.2	19.9	15.7	7.0	5.6	2.5	0.1
La Rioja	46.2	26.8	6.7	11.8	8.1	0.2	0.0
Ceuta	2.2	88.1	4.4	2.2	3.0	0.0	0.0
Melilla	0.3	94.3	3.5	0.3	0.3	1.4	0.0

2.6. Types of school: Comparative inequity? Badly-distributed burdens?

The organisation of the Spanish education system introduces another element of internal differentiation in terms of the type of school. We can distinguish three main types: state or public schools, private schools that function «in coordination» with the State (they teach the official curriculum and receive state subsidies), and the private schools that are not subsidised. The statistical information covers the first two groups (which are obliged to

provide information to the education authorities), which is the where the vast majority of pupils go to school.

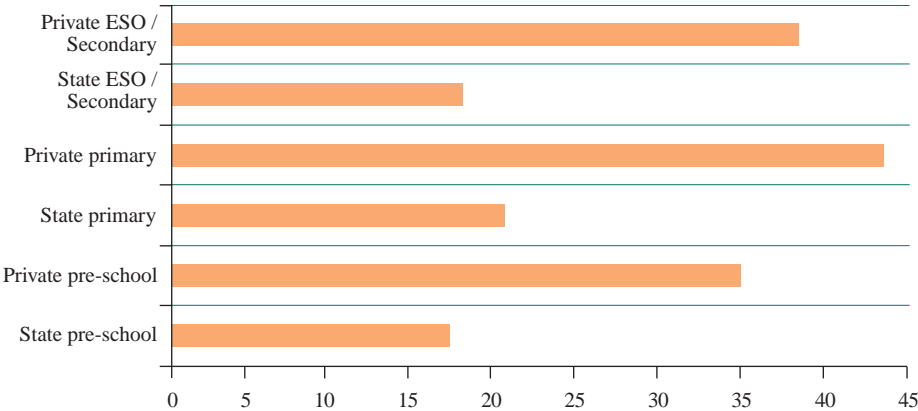
Considerable differences can be observed as to the type of school attended by native and foreign pupils. During the year 2001-02, state schools taught 67.6% of Spanish pupils and 80.9% of foreign ones or, to put it the other way round, private schools took 32% of native pupils and 19% of immigrants, a difference that appears at all stages of non-university education. In Graph 2.6, we can see how the number of foreigners per 1,000 pupils in state schools is double that of private ones in pre-school, primary and compulsory secondary education, which are precisely the levels at which the majority of foreign pupils attend school.

Furthermore, **these differences are tending to increase**. In the academic year 1996-97, 69.5% of Spanish pupils and 73.5% of foreign ones attended a state school. Six years later, in 2001-02, the percentages were 67.1% and 80.9%, respectively. This means that there is a lower proportion of Spanish pupils now in state education (-2.3 points), and a rising proportion of foreign pupils (+7.5) In other words, although the majority of both

Graph 2.6

FOREIGN PUPILS PER 1,000 ENROLLED AT EACH STAGE OF EDUCATION

Academic year 2001-02, number per thousand



collectives attend state schools, the tendency is for native children to «transfer» to private schools, while immigrant children remain in state ones.

However, the label «foreign» once again obscures the existence of substantial differences within this aggregate of pupils. The largest majority of those who attend state schools (or do not attend, or are refused by private schools) are Africans (90%), followed by non-EU Europeans and Latin Americans (around 80%). Those from Asia and the European Union average slightly higher than Spanish pupils,⁽⁵⁾ while around 40% of those from Australasia and North America go to subsidised private schools.

From the geographical point of view, there are also substantial differences in the way pupils are distributed between state and private schools. As Graph 2.7 shows, almost all foreign pupils attend state schools in Melilla, Extremadura and Ceuta, with similarly high figures for Andalusia, Galicia, Catalonia and the Comunidad Valenciana. At the other extreme, one third of foreign pupils attends a private school in the Basque Country, La Rioja and Cantabria, and the figures are also high for Madrid, Navarre and Aragón.

These differences have no single explanation as there are a number of factors whose weight varies from one region to another. Of these, however, we would draw attention to the type of schools available, the education policies of each autonomous community, the distribution of foreign pupils, and the economic situation of their families.

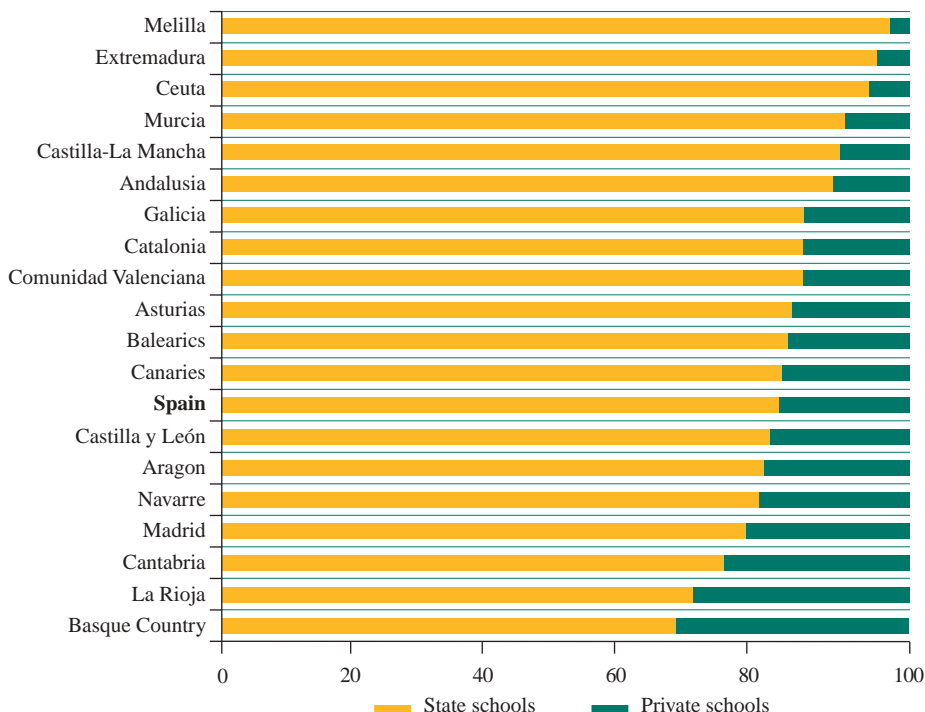
What lies behind the issue of how pupils of immigrant origin are distributed between state and private schools? The way things are portrayed at present, it is as though there is controversy about the apportioning of a *burden*, a problem, pupils who are not wanted by schools. It is obvious that the sudden arrival in our classrooms of a growing number of boys and girls from other countries and cultures causes difficulties for the teaching staff and organisational problems for the schools, because there has been no appropriate training (recycling and the professional adaptation of teaching

(5) The percentage of pupils in state schools is relatively high owing to the presence of Portuguese pupils, a high proportion of whom attend them. If we exclude this group, the other EU nationalities attend state schools to a lesser extent than Spanish pupils.

Graph 2.7

FOREIGN PUPILS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY

Academic year 2001-02, in percentages



staff) nor provision of the necessary resources. Moreover, beyond some general guidelines in favour of «attention to diversity», in many cases there are no policies or resources to promote the adaptation of the school system to the new reality. In this context, improvisation has become the norm, which can lead to attitudes of rejection towards the «invasion» of classrooms by foreign pupils (the extent of which, as we have already seen, is actually limited).

In this situation, immigrant pupils appear to be more of an imposition than an addition and an element of enriching diversity, or even a guarantee of

maintaining school numbers and teaching posts. It is important to overcome this negative image and enhance the possibilities for foreign families to have a choice of school, in the same way as Spanish ones. Because it may be that, despite the aim of «distributing pupils among schools in a balanced way», their families have other preferences.

III. The labour integration of foreigners in Spain

So far we have offered an overview of the general characteristics of the immigrant population in Chapter I, and those of foreign school-age children in Chapter II. In this chapter we set out to examine another specific segment of the people who have arrived from abroad: those participating in the labour market. Although immigration is not always synonymous with work, we shall see that there may be relatively little difference, particularly among some collectives. While there are people who are «inactive» in some groups, in others, the vast majority of their members have a job, have had a job, or are looking for a job.

Sources of information: their scope and limitations

This chapter is based on analysis of the statistics of new job registrations in the Spanish Social Security system from the records of December of 1999, 2000, 2001, and the first quarter of 2002.⁽¹⁾ This allows us to analyse the evolution of the foreign workforce and highlight some of the principal trends.

(1) All the data come from the Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social. The data referring to the *total number of affiliates* is from the *Boletín de Estadísticas Laborales*, the most recent of whose registers corresponds to the period January-March, 2002 (first quarter). Data corresponding to the *foreign population* of 1999, 2000 and 2001 are published in the *Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales of the Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales*; those for the first quarter of 2002 come from a file dated 10-04-2002 supplied by the IMSERSO and drawn up by the Asociación Nexos.

This source has its advantages and its disadvantages in comparison with other official statistics. On the positive side, it refers to all foreigners (whatever their nationality and the legal status that gives them the right to reside in Spain), and it is the equivalent of a «census» rather than a sample, since it faithfully records all job registrations (in this sense, it is an improvement on both the Work Permit Statistics and the Active Population Survey). On the negative side, however, it is register of «new jobs», not people, and the same individual may therefore appear more than once in the stock total. Moreover, a growing number of those registered only contribute for short periods owing to the high rate of temporary employment, a circumstance that is obscured by the global figures which present a panorama of «solidity and stability» that may not actually be true. To this must be added the existence of the underground economy (namely, unregistered workers) and various types of fraud (the payment of contributions without having a job, or payment under one regime while actually working under another, etc). Last but not least, the label «foreigners» excludes naturalised immigrants, since they figure in the statistics, as corresponds to their legal status, as Spaniards.

3.1. Quantitative evolution of the foreign workforce: strong growth in recent years

In the period under analysis (December, 1999 - March, 2002), the number of foreigners registered with Social Security as employed rose 112%: from 334,976 to 711, 432. In the same period of time, the total of new job registrations in the system rose by a far more modest 11%. As a result of these disproportionate evolutions, the *relative importance* of foreigners as regards total new registrations has increased continuously: from 2.3% in 1999 to 3% in 2000, 3.9% in 2001, and 4.5% by the end of March, 2002 (see Table 3.1 of the statistical appendix). During this period, *24% of the growth in affiliation has corresponded to foreign workers.*

Thus, **in a period in which affiliation levels are breaking all-time records, the registration of foreign workers is increasing even more rapidly.** In other words, a growing part of the increase in affiliation is the result of migratory movements.

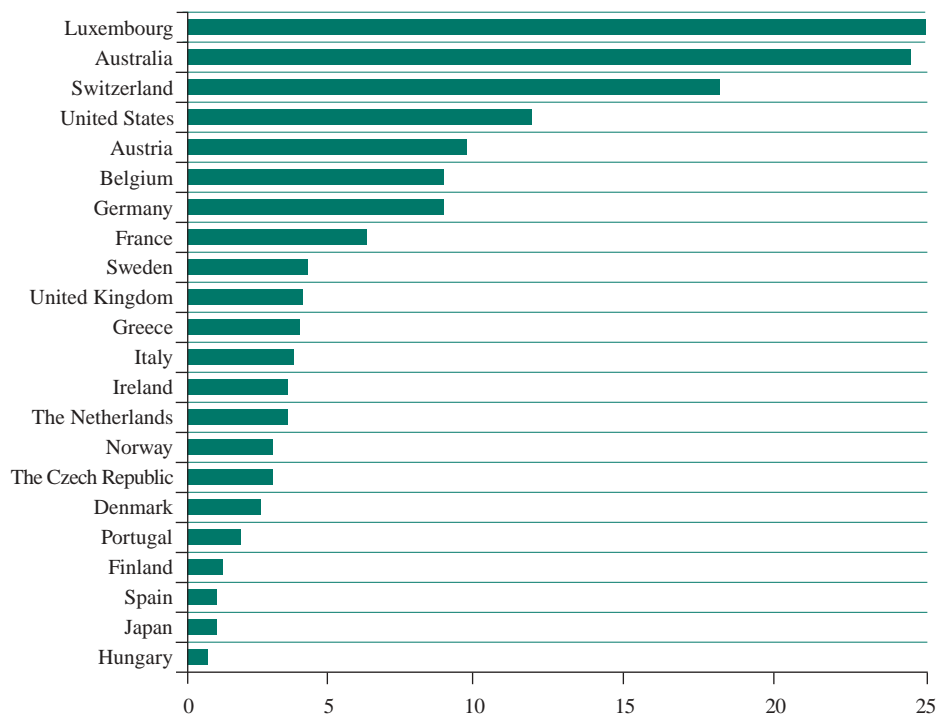
3.1.1. The situation of Spain within the framework of developed countries

Having established this recent continuous growth of the foreign workforce in Spain, we should ask ourselves what is happening in the rest of the most developed countries in the world. With data from the active population surveys of each country in 1999, the OECD showed that Spain continued to be placed among the countries with the least proportion of immigrants in the labour market: in a list of twenty-two, it had the third lowest percentage, ahead of only Hungary and Japan. At that time, the percentage of foreigners in the active population was estimated at 1%. Assuming that it has

Graph 3.1

FOREIGN WORKERS

Percentage of the active population of each country. 1999



Source: SOPEMI, 2001.

currently risen to over 4%, and that the situation remains unchanged in the other countries, the situation in Spain would now be similar to that of England or Sweden, but we would still be behind France, Germany, Belgium, Austria, Switzerland and Luxembourg, as well as Australia and the United States.

Nevertheless, as we shall see below, this «approximation» to the levels of other OECD countries is occurring in the quantitative sense (the percentage of foreigners out of the total number of workers in the country) but not in the qualitative sense (the way in which the foreign workforce is incorporated into the labour markets).

3.1.2. The origin of foreign workers

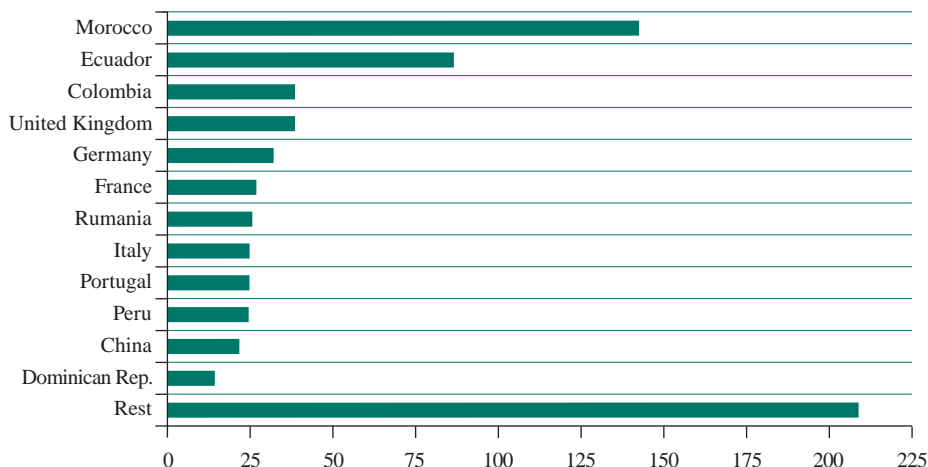
As we know, the category «foreigners» makes no distinction between populations or job situations that are actually highly diversified. It is therefore essential to refine the initial impression deriving from this global analysis by considering immigrants' zones of origin (continents and subcontinents) and the principal nationalities.

On the basis of this criterion, we discover that the most numerous contingents come from Latin America, Africa and the European Economic Space, in that order. Significant changes have taken place during the period under analysis: Latin Americans moved up from third place in 1999 to first place in the first quarter of 2002, while their relative weight in relation to the total number of foreigners rose from 18.8% to 30.2%. Meanwhile, immigrants from the European Economic Space moved in the opposite direction (dropping from first place, with 37.7%, down to third place with 25%) and Africans remained in second place, although their relative importance diminished (from 31.3% to 27.1%). There were also significant changes in the other collectives, as Asians moved down from fourth place to make way for immigrants from the «rest of Europe» (mainly from the old Eastern Bloc countries), who moved up from 4.5% to 9.6% of the total. In short, the two groups of workers that increased the most during this period were non-EU Europeans (358%) and Latin Americans (241%).

Graph 3.2

FOREIGN WORKERS PAYING SOCIAL SECURITY CONTRIBUTIONS BY NATIONALITY

First quarter, 2002, in thousands



If we go on to analyse the most numerous nationalities, we see that the most spectacular *growth* has taken place among Ecuadorians (1,061%), Rumanians (696%), Colombians (626%) and Bulgarians (517%), followed some way behind by Russians (260%), Pakistanis and Mauritians (250%) and Czechs (200%).

Of the total *number* of people registered as employed, the distribution is as follows:

There are two clearly prevalent nationalities, Moroccans (142,178) and Ecuadorians (86,449).

- Some distance behind them come Colombians, British (around 38,000), Germans (32,000), French (27,000), Rumanians, Italians, Portuguese and Peruvians (around 25,000 each) and Chinese (22,000).

- Next come Dominicans, Argentineans and Cubans with between 10,000 and 20,000 each.

- They are followed by Algerians, Bulgarians, Filipinos and Poles with around 10,000 each.
- There are between 5,000 and 10,000 Ukrainians, Dutch, Senegalese, Pakistanis, Belgians and Brazilians.

3.1.3. Activity, inactivity, unemployment: emigrating to work?

As we have seen, not all the foreign population is of working age, given the existence of the under-age segment. Moreover, among those who fulfil the age requirement (that is, anyone over 16), not everyone is employed nor wishes to be; in other words, there is a sector of the *population that is inactive*. Although this is the usual term, this so-called «inactivity» is only in respect of paid employment, which does not mean that these people do not work (at household chores or doing community work, for example) or that they refrain from other activities on a permanent basis (such as studying). Thus, although we employ the current terminology, this is an observation to be borne in mind.

The activity/inactivity relationship can vary on the basis of several factors, such as the demographic composition of the human group (the proportion of people of working age), the family structure (the number of its members and the relationship between the different generations), and the institutional services available (schools, family allowances, etc.), as well as existing job opportunities.

Among the clichés concerning immigration is the typical one about people emigrating in order to improve their situation in life by finding paid employment. Hence migration has become synonymous with work and, by definition, high rates of activity. Another of the clichés which, in the Spanish case, is persistent, is that foreigners emigrating from the «South» come to work (because they are «poor»), while those from the «North» come to live off their independent incomes (because they are «rich»). In order to prove or disprove these claims, we have to know the activity rates of the native population, of the aggregate of foreigners, and of the most numerous national groups.

The activity rate is obtained from the relation between the number of «active» people (with or without a job) and the total of the population of working age (16 or over, in the Spanish case). The tool most commonly employed in Spain to measure this rate is the Encuesta de Población Activa (EPA or Active Population Survey), but this does not provide adequate information about the realities of immigrants' job situations,⁽²⁾ so we have to turn to other indicators as well. We chose to relate the number of Social Security contributors to the number of residents aged over 16. Although the figure we obtain is not exact,⁽³⁾ it provides a basic orientation on the relationship with immigrants' activity, as long as we remember that we are dealing with a *rate of employment* (or contribution), since we have no information about the unemployed, or the unlawfully employed (who are not paying contributions), who are also active. This means that if a high percentage of unemployment or underground employment exists in a population, we will obtain a low rate, since many people of working age will not appear as registered contributors. To give us an idea of the differences between the two indicators, it is enough to know that in the first quarter of 2002, the EPA revealed an activity rate of 53.7% for the Spanish population as a whole, while the rate of employment/contributions –on the basis of Social Security job registrations– was 46.9%. (Therefore the almost 7 percentage point difference corresponds to the unemployed or the non-registered employed).

Taking the latter figure as our referent, we observe that **the rate of legal employment among foreigners is clearly higher than that of the native population:** 77 out of every 100 foreigners of working age are paying their contributions as workers. Among foreigners themselves, we find differences in terms of their place of origin: it is striking that the rate of employment of «first world» immigrants (85%) is higher than that of «third

(2) At all events, the APS finds that the activity rates of foreigners are higher than those of natives in the case of both men (84% compared to 72%) and women (57% compared to 50%). See SOPEMI 2001, p.59.

(3) Among other reasons, the inaccuracies derive partly from the fact that Social Security registrations can exaggerate the activity figures, as in the case of a person registered more than once because they have more than one job, for example; and partly because of the diversity of sources that we are comparing (residence permits and Social Security contributions), which may process the information at different intervals. Therefore, in some cases, we may find activity rates of over 100% (when more contributors to Social Security appear than there are adults with a residence permit), a circumstance which is impossible in practice.

world» ones (79%). These figures do not necessarily indicate that foreigners from the «North» are any more active than those from the «South», as the level of unemployment among the latter (which we do not know) may be higher, but they do show that **the majority of foreigners from the «North» are actively employed**, and refute the stereotype of a retired or economically independent majority.

By nationality, we find the highest rates among immigrant groups from the «South», namely those from Poland, the Philippines and Bulgaria (over 90%), Peru, Rumania, and Nigeria (over 85%), and Mauritania, Gambia, Morocco, Ecuador and the Ukraine (around 80%). But we also find similar or even higher rates among those from Italy, Germany, France and Portugal. At the other extreme are the groups from the «North» with the most elderly populations; particularly those of Switzerland (only 32% of the population over 16 paid contributions), Norway (43%), and Finland, the United States, Denmark, but also Brazil and Mexico (around 50%).

In order to refine these figures, we have to enquire into the levels of unemployment among foreigners. According to the EPA, the rate of unemployment rose to 13.2% among men and 17.7% among women in the year 2000. However, we also know that the EPA does not provide adequate information about the work situation of immigrants. Another source of reference are the job applications recorded by the INEM (Instituto Nacional de Empleo, the National Institute of Employment): these do not necessarily equate to «unemployment», because some people in employment will apply if they are looking for another job with better working conditions than their present one. However, they do tell us which collectives most often resort to this method with the prospect of improving their position in the labour market.

At the end of 2001, there were 87,000 foreigners seeking work, of whom 23,000 received benefits or an allowance (mainly Africans and EU Europeans) and 19,000 had never had a regular job in Spain (mainly Latin Americans). If we compare the volume of job-seekers with job registrations we find that the highest unemployment figures correspond to African workers (for every 100 workers contributing, there are 20 looking for employment) and the lowest, to Asians (6%) (see data in Table 3.9 of the statistical appendix). By nationality, the groups most affected are those from Algeria, Equatorial Guinea,

Mauritania and Gambia (over 25%), followed by those from Nigeria, Cuba, Venezuela, Pakistan, Brazil, Mali and Morocco (20% or more). In contrast, the figures for job-seekers from China, the Philippines, Rumania and Argentina are conspicuously low . However, it should be pointed out that low figures for those who have «signed on» are not necessarily proof of no unemployment, it may be that some collectives prefer to look for work without an intermediary like the INEM.

3.2. Composition by sex: male predominance with some exceptions

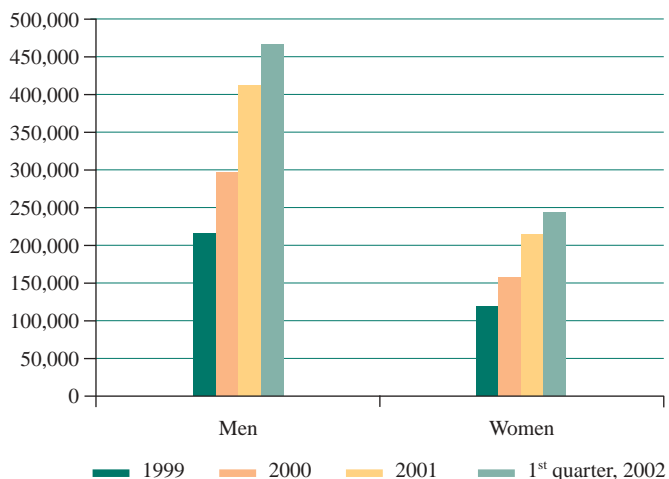
Men predominate not only in the foreign working population as a whole (65.7%), but in each of the zones of origin, although to differing degrees. The highest percentage of men corresponds to Africans (85%), and the lowest to Latin Americans (52%); in between come Asians (68%), non-EU Europeans (64%) and those from the European Economic Space (61%).

Analysed by nationality, the panorama is more varied, since there are some groups in which men predominate, but others in which women do. With an overwhelming majority of male workers we find Pakistanis, Algerians and Senegalese (over 90% are men), followed by Moroccans (85%), Portuguese, Rumanians, Italians and Bulgarians (around 70%), and Chinese, Argentineans, Ukrainians and Dutch, around 60%. The main collectives with a female majority are Dominican (72% of contributors are women), Brazilian (65%), Filipino (60%), Peruvian (55%) and Colombian (52%). As we shall see below (in 3.5), the predominance of one sex or the other is related to the most important branches of activity in each one of the colonies.

Incidentally, not only did the number of men increase more rapidly (116%) than the number of women (106%) from 1999 (see Table 3.3 of the statistical appendix), but the importance of each of the sexes in relation to the overall number of workers registered with the Social Security system was different. While both sexes carried the same weight (a little over 2 foreigners for every 100 contributors) in 1999, by March, 2002, men outweighed women (4.8 and 4 foreigners for every 100 contributors, respectively) .

Graph 3.3

EVOLUTION OF FOREIGNERS REGISTERED WITH SOCIAL SECURITY BY SEX



3.3. Foreign workers are younger than Spaniards (and the differences are tending to increase)

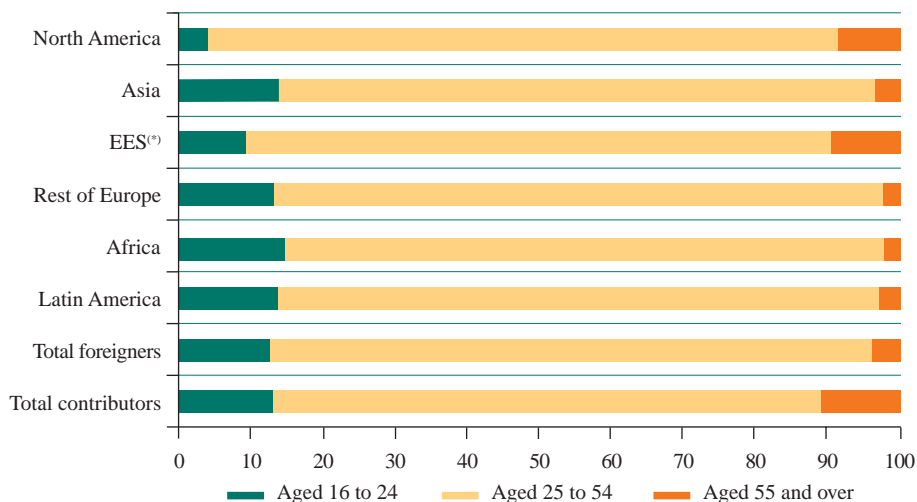
The composition by age of the workforce in a society is an indicator of its physical condition (health, strength, etc.) on the one hand, and its capacity for renewal (studies, qualifications, adaptation to new cultural patterns, etc.) on the other. If we compare the age profile of immigrants with that of the aggregate of registered workers, we can see that, in comparison to Spaniards, the former are more concentrated in the 25 to 54 age segment, somewhat less so in the «young» adult segment (16 to 24) and considerably less so in the segment of the over fifty-fives. Consequently, we can say that, as a rule, **the foreign workforce is not as old as the native one**, even though it includes more «mature» adults than «young» adults.

As we can see in Graph 3.4, the largest groups of young people are to be found among Africans, Latin Americans and Asians; they comprise around 14%, which is above average for both foreigners and natives. This young population has barely begun its working life, so it is foreseeable that its

Graph 3.4

FOREIGNERS REGISTERED WITH SOCIAL SECURITY BY ORIGIN AND AGE GROUP

Distribution in percentages. First quarter, 2002



(*) EES: European Economic Space.

presence in the Spanish labour market will be long-lasting. In contrast, the highest indices of contributors aged over 55 are to be found among EU Europeans (9%) and North Americans (8.2%), which is above average for foreigners but below that of Spanish workers. Workers aged over 55 are coming to the end of their working lives and approaching retirement, which means that they will go on to enlarge the population that ceases to contribute and, when the time comes, start receiving a pension, while their healthcare costs will tend to rise in line with age.

An analysis by nationality of origin reveals the following (see Table 3.4 of the statistical appendix):

- The enormous importance of the segment aged 16 to 24 among: Nigerians, Malians, Ecuadorians and Chinese, (17%), Moroccans and Portuguese (15%), Rumanians, Dominicans, Pakistanis, Colombians and Indians (14%).

- Groups with a greater number of people aged over 45: English and Germans (33%), US Americans (30%), Swedes (29%), Dutch and Belgians (27%), Argentineans, Chileans and Uruguayans (25%).
- A higher concentration of workers aged between 25 and 44 among: Algerians (87%), Nigerians (80%), Brazilians (78%), Cubans and Ukrainians (76%), Ecuadorians, Colombians, Rumanians and Senegalese (74%).

Between 1999 and the first quarter of 2002, there was a slight rejuvenation of the foreign workforce, whose average age fell from 36 to 35. This change was more marked in the following cases: a drop of three years among Argentineans, Senegalese, Chileans and Bolivians; and of two years among Colombians, Indians, Uruguayans, Mexicans, Russians and Czechs. At the other extreme, there was an average age increase (of one year) among only the Dutch, Swiss and Cameroonians.

If we compare these trends with the numerical evolution of each collective, it is clear that those that have experienced most growth have also experienced a rejuvenation of their age pyramid, with the sole exception of Mauritanian workers. It can therefore be affirmed that, in the period under analysis, **the incorporation of foreign workers led to the conformation of a younger workforce**, with respect to both Spanish and immigrant workers with a job who pay contributions.

3.4. Social Security regime and branch of activity: «jobs for emigrants» or «normal» jobs employing emigrants?

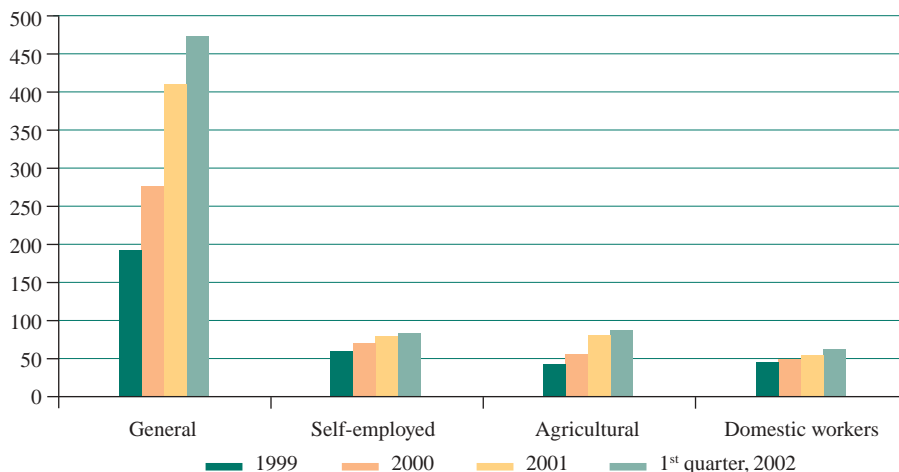
During the three years analysed not only have the number, national origins and age profiles of foreign workers changed, the tendencies as regards type of affiliation to the different regimes of the Social Security system have also altered significantly.⁽⁴⁾ While the average increase in the aggregate immigrant workforce was 112%, the percentage of workers affiliated to the General Regime rose by even more (157%). On the other hand, the number of

(4) A number of Special Regimes exist: the Self-employed Workers Regime, the Agricultural Regime, the Domestic Workers Regime, the Seamen's Regime and the Coal-mining Regime. All wage-earners who are not classified under one of the above contribute to the General Regime.

Graph 3.5

EVOLUTION OF FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS BY SOCIAL SECURITY REGIME

Thousands of persons



employed or self-employed workers registered under the Special Agrarian Regime rose by below the average (102%), and the increases in the special Self-employed Workers and Special Domestic Workers Regimes (38% and 36.5%, respectively) were far more modest.

As regards the *volume* of workers registered with the different regimes, the General and Coal-Mining Regimes accounted for 65.6% of foreigners (compared with 55.3% in 1999), the Special Agricultural Regime for 12.8% (the same percentage as in 1999), the Self-employed Workers Regime for 12.6% (18% in 1999) and the Domestic Workers Regime for 8.6% (13.4% in 1999). In short, the General Regime became more important while the Self-employed and Domestic Workers Regimes became less so.

This recent tendency indicates that the majority of new workers have registered as wage-earners in jobs that are neither agricultural nor domestic. We still do not know whether this will be a lasting alteration or merely a circumstantial change, but **it does seem to point towards a normalisation of**

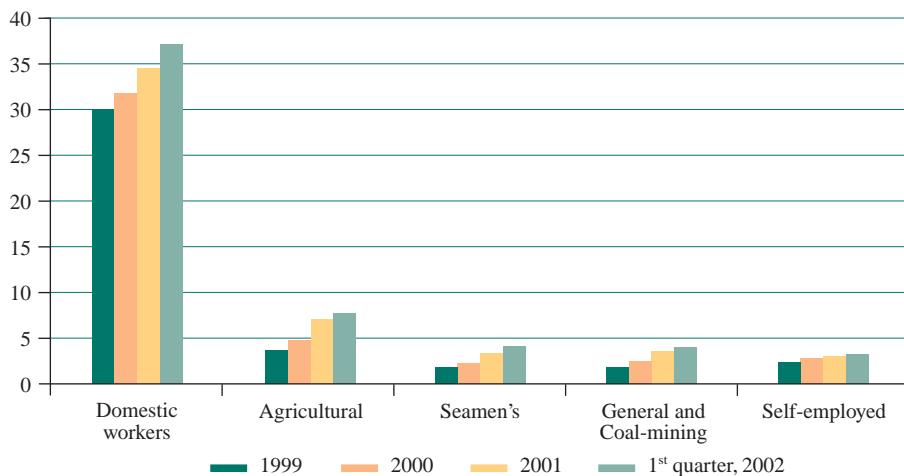
the modalities of labour incorporation, insofar as immigrant employment is beginning to extend beyond the activities that had seemed to constitute closed labour niches (namely, domestic service and agricultural labour).

If we now look at another angle, which is the *relative importance* of foreigners out of the total number of workers contributing to each regime, we find widely varying situations. In the Domestic Workers Regime there is a very large proportion of foreign workers (37.2%, up from 30.1% in 1999). The proportion is also significant but much lower in the Special Agricultural Regime (7.7%; up from 3.7% in 1999), and it is even less in the Self-employed Workers (3.2%; up from 2.4%) and General (4%, up from 1.8%) Regimes. In spite of these differences, however, it is clear that the «weight» of foreign workers has increased in all these regimes during the period analysed.

Graph 3.6

FOREIGN WORKERS OUT OF REGISTERED TOTAL, BY CONTRIBUTIVE REGIME

Percentages of total number of affiliates



3.4.1. Profiles differentiated by sex

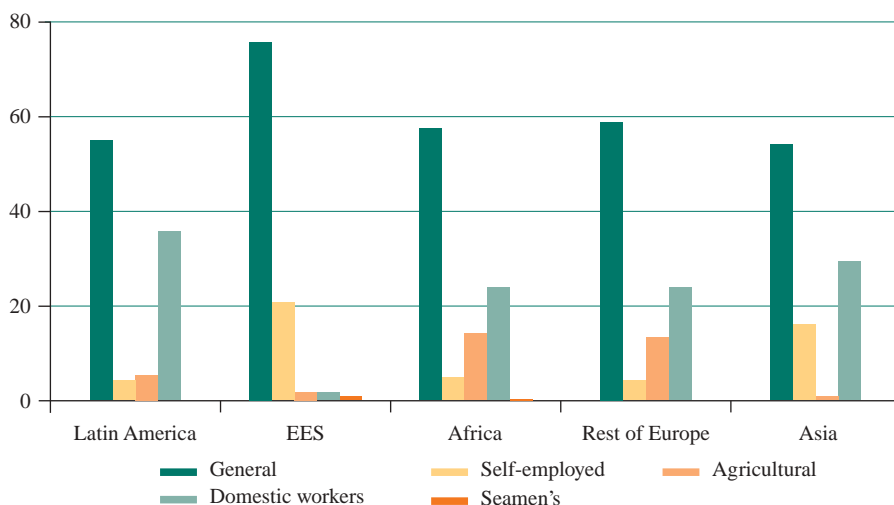
This general distribution by regime displays specific variations in terms of workers' sex. The most glaring variation is to be found in the Special Domestic Workers Regime, which accounts for a large number of foreign women (23%) compared to an insignificant number of men (1%). Owing to this specialisation, men contribute more generally than women under the other regimes. The figures for men and women respectively in the General Regime are 70% vs. 62%; in the Agricultural Regime, 16% vs. 6%; the Self-employed Workers Regime, 13% vs. 10%; the Seamen's Regime (0.6% vs. 0.1%); and the Coal-mining Regime (0.4%, no women).

Something similar occurs if we take into account workers' zone of origin and their sex. In Graphs 3.7 and 3.8, we can see the distribution of each sex by regime.

Graph 3.7

FOREIGN WOMEN BY ORIGIN AND SOCIAL SECURITY REGIME

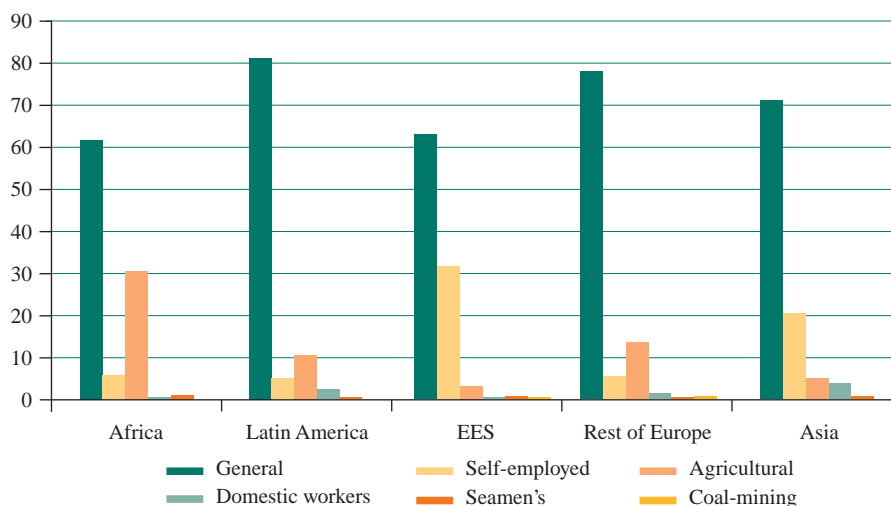
Percentage distribution within each zone of origin. First quarter, 2002



Graph 3.8

FOREIGN MEN BY ORIGIN AND SOCIAL SECURITY REGIME

Percentage distribution within each zone of origin. First quarter, 2002



- As regards *women*, we can see that domestic service is of more importance among Latin American and Asian women workers and of minimal importance for those from the European Economic Space (EES). In contrast, the latter are well-represented in the General and Self-employed Workers Regimes. There is also a substantial number of self-employed Asian women. In agriculture, however, there is only a significant minority of African and Eastern European women.

- As for *men*, although there is a majority contributing to the General Regime in all the groups, the percentages are higher among Latin Americans and non-EU Europeans. Self-employment is particularly evident among EU Europeans and Asians. Agriculture is most important among Africans and, to a certain extent, among Eastern Europeans and Latin Americans.

If we study the analysis in greater depth, and take into account the nationality and sex of contributors, we observe the following profiles:

Women

- Women from EES countries and the United States present a similar profile, in which the General and Self-employed Workers Regimes are clearly the most important (more than 75%, and nearly 20%, respectively, of each collective). Consequently, there are practically no women in agriculture, fishing or mining. Argentinean and Venezuelan women have a similar profile, although there are also a certain number in domestic service.

- Filipino (68%), Dominican, Ecuadorian, Peruvian, Bolivian, Colombian, Polish and Ukrainian (over 40%) women are particularly highly concentrated in the domestic service sector.

- Chinese women workers are the immigrants from the «South» with the highest proportion in self-employment (26%), followed by Argentineans, Brazilians and Venezuelans (somewhat over 10%).

- A significant percentage of women from Poland (25%), Morocco, Ecuador, Rumania and Ukraine (over 10%) work in agriculture.

- The women with the lowest percentages of workers in the General Regime are Ecuadorians, Dominicans, Poles and Bolivians (less than 50%).

Men

- The highest concentrations of men in the General Regime are to be found among Dominicans and Equatorial Guineans (over 90%), and Cubans, Peruvians, Chileans, Gambians and Bulgarians (over 80%).

- The highest numbers of workers to be registered under the Special Self-employed Workers Regime are British, German and Danish (over 40%), Dutch, Belgian, Swedish and Austrian (over 30%), and Italian, French, Chinese, Indian, Senegalese and Argentinean (over 20%).

- The only nationality with a significant number of men working in domestic service is Filipino (22% of contributors). No other nationality has more than 4%.

- There are large numbers of men from Morocco and Guinea Bissau working in agriculture (over 30%), as well as Algerians, Mauritians, Ghanians and Ecuadorians (over 20%).
- The only contributors to the Special Seamen's Regime are minorities of workers from Ghana, Portugal, Senegal, Peru, Mauritania, Nigeria and Guinea Bissau (between 2% and 4% of each collective).
- In the Coal-mining Regime, there are only Poles (4%), Portuguese (3%) and Pakistanis (0.1%).

3.4.2. The main branches of activity

Our analysis now requires further breakdown because there is a wide range of different activities included within the Social Security General Regime which, so far, is like a closed book that we know nothing about. The means of overcoming this obstacle is to examine the branches of activity to which the companies that employ immigrants belong.⁽⁵⁾

The data show that the foreign population is grouped principally in the hotel and catering trade (14.5%), construction and agriculture (around 14% each), domestic service (9%), other business activities (8%), the retail trade (7.3%), the wholesale trade (4.6%) and education (3%). Therefore, if we exclude the activities classed under Special Regimes, we can say that **wage-earners contributing to the General Regime are concentrated mainly in hotel and catering, construction and trade.**

Between 1999 and 2002, the most noticeable increases occurred in branches which, until then, had not been remarkable for their volume of foreign employment. These include the oil and gas industries, the footwear industry, public health, construction, the machine industry, textiles and road transport. In contrast, sectors showing a tendency towards stagnation or reduction include coal mining, education and domestic service.

(5) In this case, the information available refers to the years 1999, 2000 and 2001; we do not know the figures for the first quarter of 2002.

As well as the volume of workers in each activity, it is interesting to observe the importance of foreigners in comparison with the total number of workers in each branch. In 2001, the activities with the highest percentage of foreigners were domestic service (30% of contributors), hotel and catering (9%), agriculture, rentals and property services (7%), the oil, gas and uranium industries (5.6%), and construction (5%). These are followed by fishing, the retail trade, education, communications, computer science, other business activities, cultural activities and diverse personal services, with between 3% and 4% of workers each.

Between 1999 and 2001, the number of foreigners doubled in several industrial sectors (metalwork, leather, textiles, food, wood and cork, furniture, etc.), transport, construction, public administration and agriculture. In contrast, the increases have been minimal in air transport, coal mining, education and domestic service.

In sum, the tendencies described show an **expansion in the jobs available to foreign workers in industrial activities and the service sectors**, moving away from the traditional areas of agriculture and hotel and catering (which are growing at the same rate as the foreign workforce as a whole), construction (which is growing even faster) and domestic service (with far more modest increases).

It is worth noting the different composition by sex in the main branches of activity as well. At the end of 2001, men represented two thirds of the overall total and women, one third. However, these proportions are subject to radical variations in some activities that have an absolute majority of *men* (over 90% of affiliates), such as construction, fishing, mining, the wood and cork industries, transport, metallurgy and metalwork; and agriculture, which has 86%. In contrast, *women* are in the majority in domestic service (89%), healthcare (63%), communications and transport-related jobs, education and diverse personal services (all over 50%). They amount to somewhat less than half in hotel and catering, finance and insurance, other business activities and the textile industry.

3.4.3. The Spanish situation with respect to other developed countries

The latest report of the OECD Permanent Observatory of Migrations (2001) compares the integration of foreign workers from several countries, taking as reference the sectors of activity in which they are employed. The data show that the labour integration of immigrants in Spain presents a specific profile that can be summarised as having the following features (see data in the statistical appendix):

- Spain has the highest levels of employment in *agriculture*: well ahead of the next country on the list (Italy) and doubling those of the following ones (the USA, Greece, France and Denmark).

- It also has the highest percentage of employment in *domestic service*, equalled by Greece, but almost double that of the next country (Italy), and triple that of the following one (Portugal).

- The concentration of workers in *hotel* and *catering* is also highest in the Spanish case, although with less marked differences in comparison with the countries that follow (Ireland, Germany and Finland).

- The percentages of workers in *trade* are similar to the average in the rest of the OECD countries.

- The job levels recorded in *construction* place Spain in a medium to high position on the scale, but well below Greece, Portugal, France and Luxembourg which have very high concentrations.

- Spain is also in an average position as regards jobs in *education* (half that of Finland or Sweden but double that of Greece or Luxembourg).

- The lowest percentages are to be found in jobs in *industry* (Spain and Luxembourg come in last place), *health and social services* (ahead of only Italy and Greece) and *public administration* (slightly ahead of Greece and Finland).

Therefore, although the number of foreign workers, and the proportion of the total active population that they represent, is increasing in Spain and approaching levels similar to those of many developed countries,

the same cannot be said of their degree of labour integration. Until now, the situation in Spain has shown specific characteristics that resemble those of other countries in Southern Europe (Greece, Portugal and Italy) rather than those of other nations in which more highly-skilled jobs in industry and services seem to be more easily accessible to foreigners.

3.5. Territorial distribution: specialised local markets for immigrants?

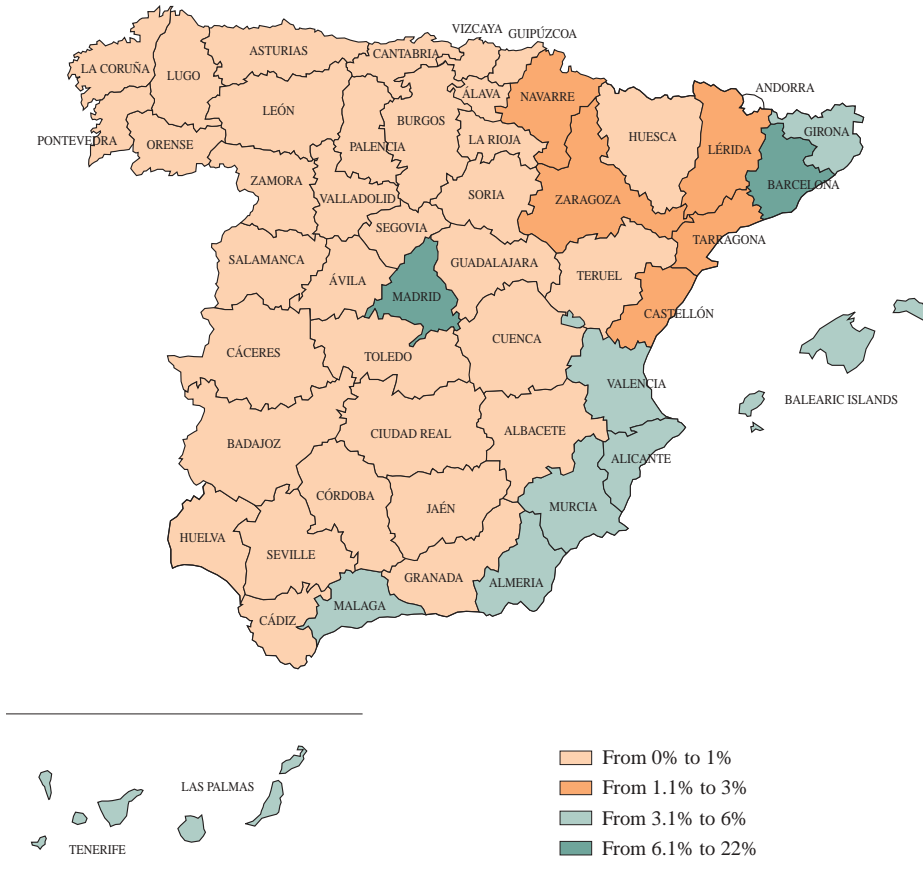
So far, analysis of the data has referred to Spain as a whole, overlooking the significant differences that exist as regards the territorial localisation of the foreign workforce. As the data indicate the distribution of work by provinces and autonomous communities, we can identify territorial distribution patterns as well as the existence of labour integration models differentiated on the basis of geographical area.

The autonomous communities with the largest *number* of foreign workers are Catalonia and Madrid (more than 150,000 in each one in the first quarter of 2002), Andalusia (82,000), the Comunidad Valenciana (72,000), the Canaries (57,000), Murcia and the Balearics (somewhat less than 40,000 each). By province, the highest concentrations are to be found in Madrid, Barcelona, Alicante, Las Palmas, Almeria, Malaga, Tenerife, Valencia, Murcia and Gerona (see Map 3.1).

The major growth in this *evolution* between 1999 and the first quarter of 2002 was recorded in areas where there had previously been few foreigners: the two Castiles, Aragón, La Rioja and Cantabria. More limited increases occurred in regions with a history of immigration (the Canaries and the Balearics), but also in others with almost none (Extremadura and Galicia); which suggests that growth is slowing in the first two and failing to take off in the second two. By province, the most striking increases have occurred in Albacete, Segovia, Burgos, Valladolid, Teruel, Soria, Avila and Palencia (with a more than 150% increase in the number of individuals). This evolution indicates **that foreigners are spreading outwards geographically from the poles of initial concentration** towards other areas of «interior Spain».

DISTRIBUTION OF FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS BY PROVINCE

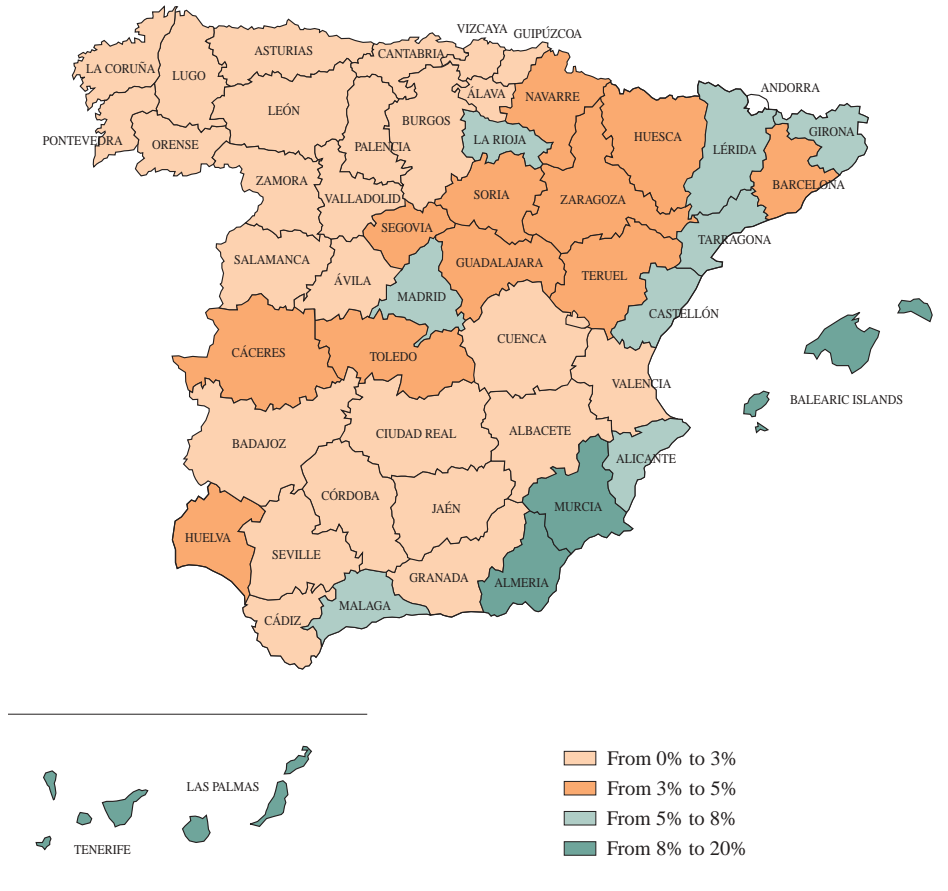
First quarter, 2002. Percentage of total number of foreigners



The «density» of foreign workers by autonomous communities (i.e. the percentage of foreigners out of the total of contributors) is highest in the Balearics (10%), Murcia and the Canaries (somewhat over 8%), followed by Madrid (6.3%), La Rioja and Catalonia (around 5.5%). It is lowest in Galicia, Asturias and the Basque Country (less than 2%). By province, Melilla stands out with 15.6%, followed by Almería (12.6%), the Balearics (10%), both provinces in the Canaries (Tenerife and Las Palmas), Murcia, Gerona, Ceuta, Alicante, Madrid, Lérida and Malaga (between 6% and 8.5%) (see Map 3.2).

PROPORTION OF FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS OUT OF TOTAL NUMBER OF CONTRIBUTORS

First quarter, 2002. In percentages



These figures merit special attention to be able to comprehend how **the effect of immigration on jobs is very different depending on the province analysed**. Moreover, the percentages refer to the aggregate workforce in each province, but if we were to analyse only certain branches of activity –those with the highest concentrations of foreigners– the figures would rise significantly.

3.5.1. Territorial distribution on the basis of place of origin

The distribution of the different workforce flows throughout Spain presents specific profiles. By principal zone of origin (see Chart 3.1), we observe the particularly high concentration of Asians and Africans in Catalonia, while Latin Americans and non-EU Europeans are to be found mainly in Madrid. Those from EES countries show a pattern of broader territorial dispersion, with their largest centres in Catalonia, the Canaries, Andalusia, Madrid and the Comunidad Valenciana.

A more refined analysis, in terms of the principal nationalities of origin, reveals the following profiles (see Tables 3.5 and 3.6 of the statistical appendix):

Non-EU contributors

- *Peruvians* and *Poles* are highly concentrated in Madrid (almost 50%). Another third of Peruvians live in Catalonia, while the Poles are more evenly distributed, mainly between Andalusia, Catalonia and the Comunidad Valenciana.

- The *Pakistanis* are the most closely-grouped collective in Catalonia (over half the total); the remainder are fairly well spread out, especially between Andalusia, the Comunidad Valenciana and La Rioja.

- Two thirds of *Filipinos* and *Dominicans* are shared out between Madrid and Catalonia, although they are more concentrated in the region of Madrid.

- Half the *Chinese* and *Ecuadorians* also live in these two autonomous communities (the numbers are balanced among the Chinese, while Ecuadorians prefer Madrid). The remainder are distributed as follows: Chinese in the Comunidad Valenciana, Andalusia and the Canaries; Ecuadorians in Murcia and the Comunidad Valenciana.

- The *Senegalese* work mainly in Catalonia and Andalusia.

- *Algerians* work in the Comunidad Valenciana, as well as Catalonia, Andalusia and Aragón.

Chart 3.1

FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS BY ZONE OF ORIGIN AND AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY OF RESIDENCE

In percentages

Autonomous community	Zone of origin				
	Latin America	Africa	EES	Rest of Europe	Asia
Catalonia	19.1	27.1	18.5	15.1	33.1
Madrid	33.6	13.4	13.3	24.3	25.8
Andalusia	6.0	15.8	14.0	12.2	9.4
Comunidad Valenciana	7.8	8.6	12.5	16.5	8.7
Canaries	6.5	4.3	15.8	2.8	8.5
Murcia	6.6	10.2	1.4	1.7	1.3
Balearics	3.1	4.0	10.6	2.5	2.9
Aragón	2.5	3.4	1.1	5.7	1.5
Castilla y León	2.8	1.5	2.3	5.8	1.6
Castilla-La Mancha	2.8	2.4	0.6	6.1	1.2
Basque Country	1.8	1.4	2.9	1.3	1.9
Galicia	1.9	0.8	3.1	0.7	0.7
Navarre	2.3	1.4	1.4	1.7	0.5
Extremadura	0.5	2.5	0.6	0.3	0.5
La Rioja	0.7	1.0	0.6	1.3	1.5
Asturias	1.1	0.3	0.9	1.1	0.3
Cantabria	0.9	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.4
Melilla	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ceuta	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

- *Bulgarians* are active in Castilla y León, Madrid and the Comunidad Valenciana.

- There is less spatial concentration among *Moroccan* and *Ukrainian* workers. The former prefer Catalonia, followed by Andalusia, Madrid and Murcia. The latter are to be found in Catalonia, the Comunidad Valenciana, Andalusia and Madrid.

Contributors from EU and more developed countries

- *British* and *Swedish* in the Canaries and Andalusia
- *Germans* in the Canaries and the Balearics.
- *Belgians* in the Comunidad Valenciana, followed by Catalonia and the Canaries.
- *US Americans* in Madrid.
- *French, Italians* and *Dutch* in Catalonia, followed by Madrid (for the first two) or Andalusia (for the latter).
- The *Portuguese* are distributed between Madrid, Galicia, Castilla y León and Catalonia.

3.5.2. Spatial distribution by sex

In the country as a whole, there is a majority of men as compared to women (66%-34%). The regional map shows a significant polarisation of situations, between Murcia, the region with the largest foreign male workforce (80% are men) and Madrid, with the largest female workforce (44% are women). Other autonomous communities with a *male* majority include Extremadura, La Rioja, Castilla-La Mancha, Aragón and Navarre (over 70%). By province, the largest male majorities are in Cáceres, Murcia, Almería and Lérida, followed by Teruel, Huesca and Ciudad Real.

The highest percentages of *women* are to be found in Madrid, Cantabria, the Canaries, Asturias, the Balearics and Galicia. By province, Madrid still comes first, followed by Seville, Málaga, La Coruña, Tenerife, Avila, Cantabria and Asturias (see Table 3.7).

These profiles are related to local productive structures and the job opportunities that have developed for foreign workers.

3.5.3. Local job markets for foreigners?

One interesting question we should ask is whether the immigrant workforce has characteristics of its own in different provinces. Although we

do not know its distribution by branches of activity, we can make an approximation on the basis of the data corresponding to the Social Security regimes. This allows us to divide up the provinces into six groups, in terms of which regime is the most widespread in comparison with the average distribution in Spain.

- The provinces with a majority of the workforce employed in *agriculture* are Cáceres (84%), Huelva and Almeria (over 70%), Murcia (65%) and Jaén (53%); these are followed by Albacete, Cuenca, Granada and La Rioja (over 25%).

- *Self-employed* workers are to be found principally in Badajoz, Malaga, Tenerife, Cadiz, Granada, Alicante, the Balearics and La Coruña (between 20% and 30% of contributors in each province).

- Workers registered for *domestic service* are most numerous in Ceuta (30%), Melilla and Cantabria (20%), Madrid, Seville and Asturias (over 15%).

- The highest percentages corresponding to the *General Regime* are in Alava, Barcelona, Lérida, Gerona, Segovia (80%), Zaragoza, Las Palmas, Guadalajara, Castellón, Tarragona, Teruel, Huesca and Soria (75% or more).

- Contributors to the Special *Seamen's* Regime are only prevalent in Lugo and Pontevedra (9% of contributors in each province), Guipúzcoa, Cadiz, Vizcaya and La Coruña (3% or more).

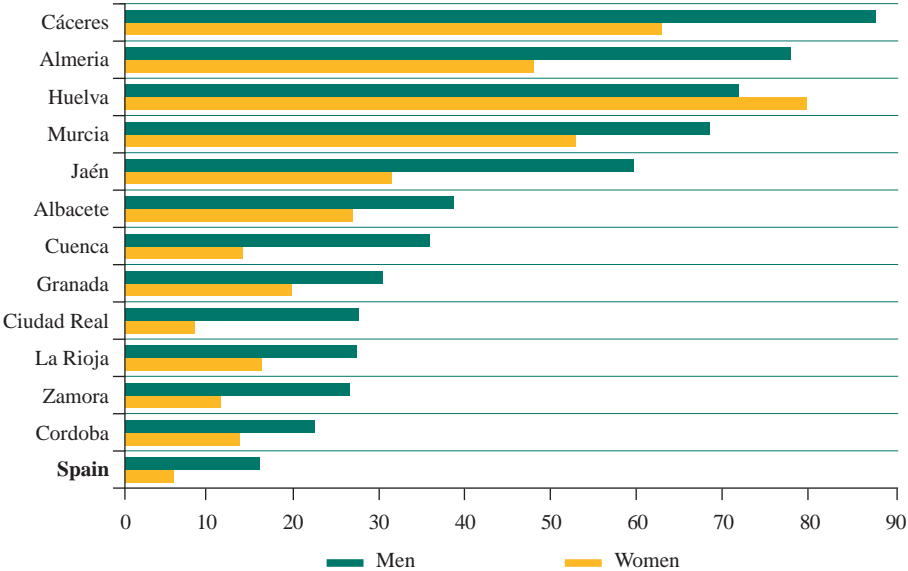
- Contributors to the Special *Coal-mining* Regime are to be found mainly in the province of León (19% of those registered) followed by Asturias (5%), a long way behind.

Map 3.3 depicts this relative labour specialisation of the foreign workforce in the provinces with the most clearly defined profiles. Those that remain white show almost no deviation from the average values corresponding to the country as a whole. The coloured provinces show an above average number of workers contributing to the corresponding regime. For example, the fact that jobs in domestic service appear to predominate in Madrid does not actually mean that this is foreigners' principal occupation, but that the percentage of domestic workers is well above the national average.

Beginning with the provinces that employ most workers in the agricultural sector (see Graph 3.9), we observe that, with the exception of Huelva, **the proportion of men employed is higher than that of women** in all of them. In Huelva, not only are there more women than men contributing to the Special Agricultural Regime, but 80% of all registered foreign women contribute to it. In Cáceres, Almeria and Huelva, over 70% of foreign men contribute to the Special Agricultural Regime (whereas it is only in Huelva that women reach this figure). At first sight, it would appear that rural employment «is men’s work», but this claim is not borne out in Cáceres, Almeria or Murcia, where around half the female workforce is employed in the agricultural sector.

Graph 3.9

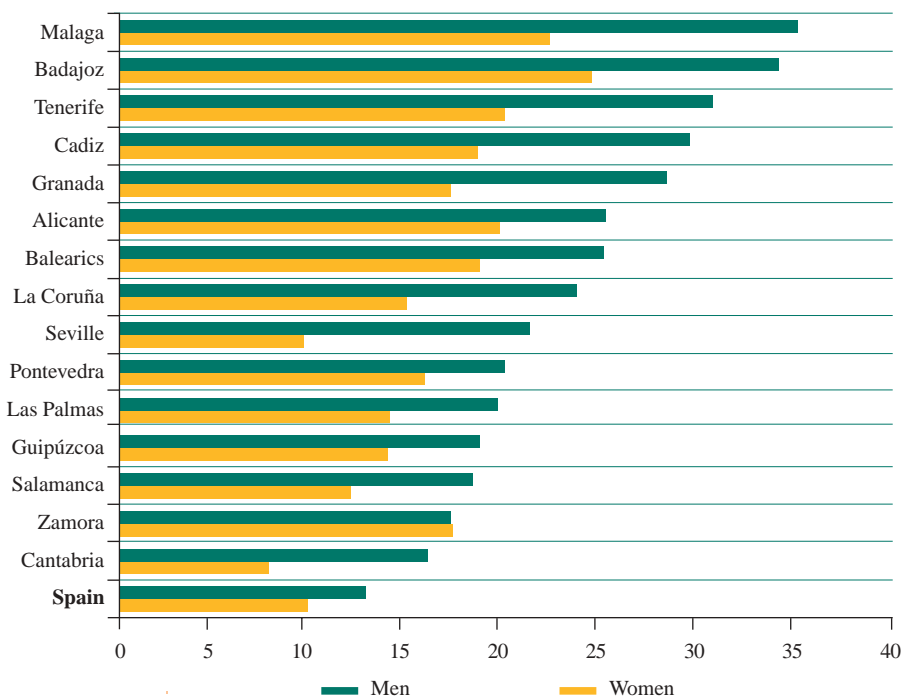
PROPORTION OF FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS IN EACH PROVINCE REGISTERED UNDER THE SPECIAL AGRICULTURAL REGIME, BY SEX
 First quarter, 2002



Graph 3.10

PROPORTION OF FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS IN EACH PROVINCE REGISTERED UNDER THE SPECIAL SELF-EMPLOYED WORKERS REGIME, BY SEX

First quarter, 2002



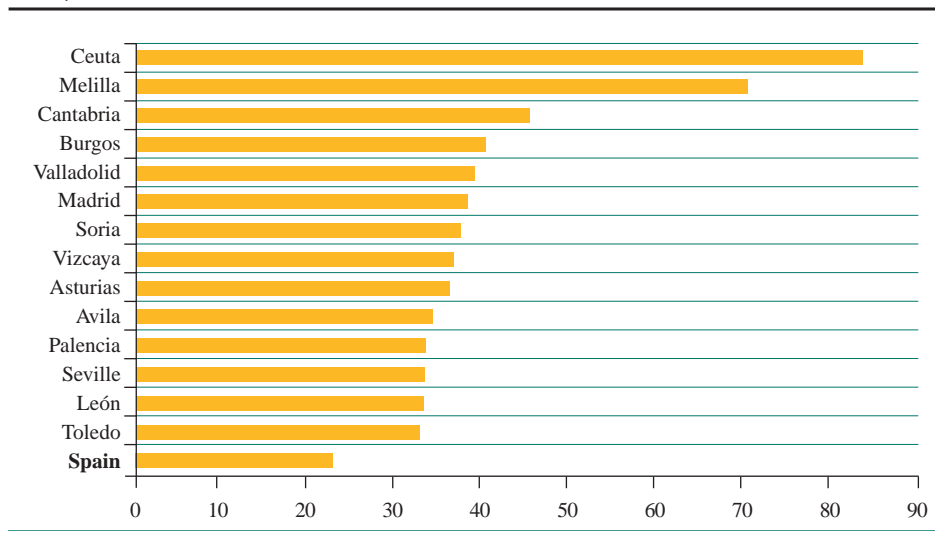
Among *self-employed* workers (contributing to the Special Self-employed Workers Regime), there is also a higher proportion of men than women in employment. In seven provinces (Malaga, Badajoz, Tenerife, Cádiz, Granada, Alicante and the Balearics), there are more than 25% of men, while there are only three (Badajoz, Malaga and Tenerife) in which women exceed 20%, without reaching 25%.

As we have already pointed out, the major difference in terms of sex derives from the lack of men compared to the high concentration of women in *domestic service*. But the registration of women workers in this

Graph 3.11

PROPORTION OF FOREIGN WOMEN CONTRIBUTORS IN EACH PROVINCE REGISTERED UNDER THE SPECIAL DOMESTIC WORKERS REGIME

First quarter, 2002



occupational sector is not uniform throughout the country. Graph 3.11 show the main areas: besides Ceuta and Melilla (where almost all jobs for foreign women are limited to those in domestic service), there are twelve other provinces in which 30% or more women contribute to the Special Domestic Workers Regime. Among these, Madrid stands out as the only one that has a large number of women contributors. The data we have discussed indicate that the employment of women in domestic service is most common in those provinces in which they do not have the option of working in agriculture or being self-employed.

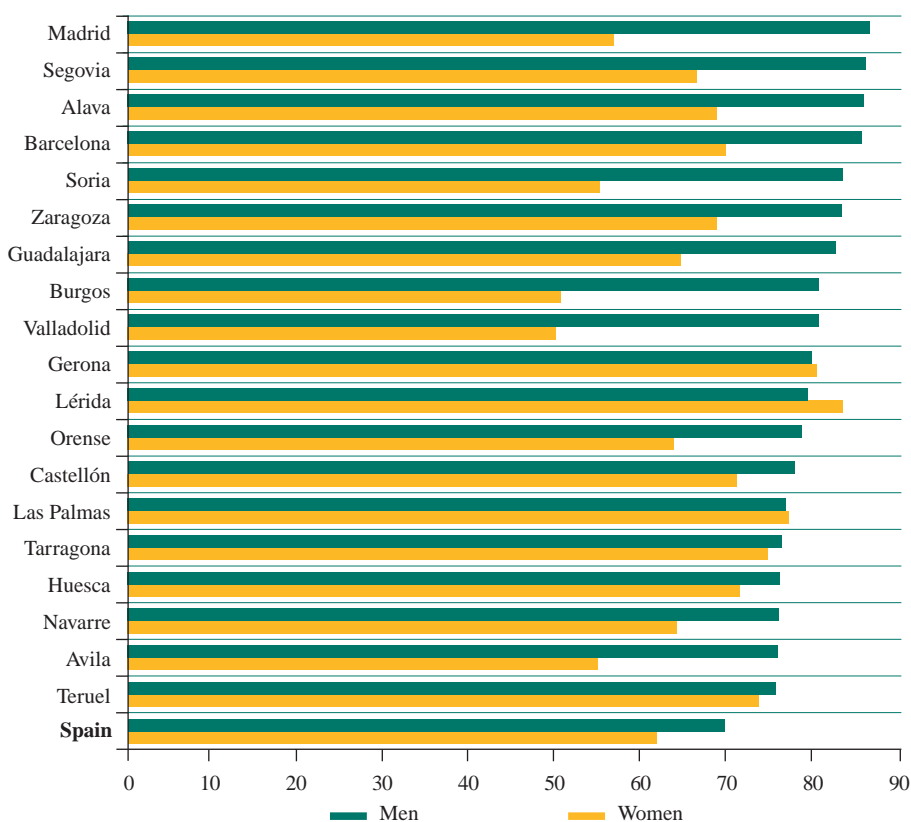
As a result of the above distributions, it is possible to establish appreciable differences in terms of gender among contributors to the *General Regime* in some provinces, namely those in which there is a greater number of women in domestic service or, to a lesser extent, who are self-employed.

In the two minority regimes, the difference in terms of sex is overwhelming. While the number of women registered under the Special *Seamen's* and *Coal-mining* Regimes does not reach even 1% in a single province, there are some exceptional cases among men. Around 13% of men in Lugo and Pontevedra, and around 5% in Cadiz, Guipúzcoa, Vizcaya and La Coruña contribute to the former; while 28% in León and 7% in Asturias contribute to the latter.

Graph 3.12

PROPORTION OF FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS IN EACH PROVINCE REGISTERED UNDER THE GENERAL REGIME, BY SEX

First quarter, 2002



IV. Final Summary

In this final chapter, we summarise the main issues that derive from the data presented. Some of these would appear to be «incontrovertible facts», while others must be subjected to closer scrutiny. At all events, it is important to remember that the data in themselves –although they may serve to orientate us– do not offer sufficient information to allow us to provide in-depth explanations or answers to the «whys and wherefores» of the phenomena. These must be sought in works of analysis and theoretical reflection, some of which appear in the annotated bibliography. With this proviso, let us see what can be derived from the data presented in this report:

- Contemporary international migratory processes are taking place against a background of asymmetric, hierarchised globalisation, which is promoting the liberalisation of flows of capital and goods while restricting the flows of human beings who wish to live in other countries. These restrictions are not imposed impartially on all social groups or nationalities: migratory policies benefit certain flows and repress others.

- Contemporary Spanish society is characterised by demographic stagnation and ageing, the widespread integration of women into the labour market, economic growth accompanied by high levels of unemployment and precarious employment, and systems of social protection that, in conjunction with networks of family support, permit the simultaneous existence of unemployment and unfilled vacancies.

- These social circumstances have very little in common with those existing in post-war Europe (characterised by full employment and the primacy of industrial occupations), which absorbed significant migratory flows. Consequently, there is little sense in comparing the «way in which Spaniards emigrated» in the 1960s to the way in which some foreigners migrated to Spain in the 1990s.

- Foreign immigration has increased enormously over the last decade, but especially from 1996 onwards (between December, 1996, and March, 2002, the number of foreigners admitted was higher than the number already in Spain up to that time). It is a population composed of flows of diverse origins: until that year, «first world» foreigners had predominated, but since then those from the «third world» have been in a majority.

- Foreigners as a whole represent 3% of the Spanish population; this figure rises to 4% if we include those who have become naturalised Spaniards and those who are in the country illegally (the «*sans papiers*»). These proportions were considerably lower some years ago, but Spain is still a long way behind the immigration percentages to be found in other developed countries. For example, even to reach the level in France – which does not have the highest percentages among European nations – the current foreign population (1,243,000 residents, 150,000 naturalised citizens and between 250,000 and 300,000 ‘illegals’) would have to increase by another one million people.

- By broad zones of origin, the principal group is that of citizens from European Union countries (26.6% of the total), which is only very slightly ahead of arrivals from Africa (26%) and South America (24%); after them come those from other European countries (mainly from old «Eastern Bloc» countries) (10%), those from Asia (8%), and from Central America (5%). By country, immigrants from Morocco and Ecuador form the largest groups (they alone represent 20% and 10% of residents respectively), followed by the United Kingdom, Colombia and Germany (somewhat over 5% each), and France, Portugal, China, Italy, Peru and Rumania (around 3%).

- During the last five years, the highest growth rates correspond to Ecuadorians, Ukrainians, Rumanians and Bulgarians. There has also been a

significant increase in Colombians, Pakistanis, Bolivians, Russians and Poles. Although the number of African immigrants has risen appreciably, during these years of the immigration «boom», the flows that have increased the most have originated from Latin America and Eastern Europe.

- There is a larger number of men (55.3%) than women (44.7%) in the foreign population as a whole, an imbalance that has increased in recent years. But important differences exist between foreign collectives: in general, the groups with a majority of women are from Latin America whereas those with a majority of men are from the African continent. Higher indices of feminisation are to be found among immigrants from Brazil and the Dominican Republic, Equatorial Guinea, Mexico, Russia, Venezuela, the Philippines, Colombia, Peru and Cuba. Male majorities are most marked among immigrants from Pakistan, Senegal, Algeria, Nigeria, Morocco, Gambia, Rumania, Italy, Bulgaria, India, Portugal and China. In relation to the total population of Spain, foreign women represent 2.7% and men, 3.4%.

- In the last five years there has been a significant increase of young adults (aged between 25 and 44), in comparison with older and younger collectives; this means that the enormous growth in immigration subsequent to 1996 is mainly attributable to people within this age band. The most elderly collectives are EU Europeans and others from the «first world» . The group of young adults, who are in their working prime, is in a majority among those from Eastern Europe and Latin America, and also among Africans and Asians. The segment of young people is larger among those from «Southern» countries, while there are significantly more children within the demographic structure of those coming from Africa and Asia.

- The distribution of the foreign population in Spain is very unequal. By provinces, Madrid occupies first place, followed by Barcelona. Some way behind come Alicante, Malaga, the Balearics and Las Palmas, and even further behind come Gerona, Almeria, Tenerife, Murcia and Valencia. The provinces with the highest *proportion* of foreign population in relation to the native population are Almeria and Gerona (more than 7% is foreign), the Balearics, Las Palmas and Melilla (around 6%), Madrid, Malaga, Alicante, Barcelona and Tenerife (around 5%).

- Different «migratory models» can be established on the basis of the groups that predominate in each territory. The provinces with the highest number of foreigners can be divided up into three main types: those where there is a majority of «Western» Europeans (Malaga, the Balearics, Tenerife, Alicante and Las Palmas); those where there is a majority of Maghrebis (Barcelona, Gerona, Almeria and Murcia) and those with a majority of Latin Americans (Madrid).

- The low Spanish birth rate has caused a reduction in the school-age population throughout the education system. Over the eleven academic years from 1991-92 to 2001-02, enrolment in non-university education dropped by 19%. In contrast, enrolment of foreign pupils rose by 450%. In the academic year 2001-02, there were 201,518 foreign pupils, which accounted for 3% of the total at non-university level.

- Three main groups of pupils can be identified: children from the Americas make up 47% of the total; those from a variety of European countries account for another 25%, and those from Africa, 24%. Far behind these comes a minority of 6% from Asian countries. Comparing these percentages with the distribution of the aggregate of foreigners, there is an over-representation of Latin Americans and an under-representation of Eastern Europeans, a circumstance that can be explained by the different family composition of each migratory flow. The three principal national groups are Moroccans, Ecuadorians and Colombians.

- The bulk of foreign pupils is currently studying at primary level (44%), the second largest group at secondary level, or ESO (27%), and the third largest is in pre-school education (19%). Their numerical importance within the classroom is still limited: somewhat over 3% of enrolment in pre-school and primary education and barely 1% in non-compulsory secondary education (*Bachillerato* and Vocational Training). Moreover, at present, a larger number of immigrants abandon their studies than do Spaniards once they have finished ESO.

- Although the proportion of foreign to native pupils is only 3% in the country as a whole, this average varies considerably between provinces. Those with the highest percentages of foreign pupils are Madrid, the

Balearics, Gerona, Alicante and Melilla (over 5%). At the other extreme are Jaén, Badajoz, Córdoba, Seville and La Coruña (with less than 1%).

- Two thirds of Spanish pupils and 81% of foreign ones are taught within the state school system. In other words, private schools take one third of native children and barely 19% of immigrant children. Furthermore, this difference is tending to increase: although the majority of both collectives is taught in state schools, the tendency among native children is to «transfer» to private ones, while that of immigrant children is to remain in the state system. The pupils with the least representation in private schools are of African, Eastern European and Latin American origin.

- In a period in which the indices for Social Security affiliation have reached historic levels, the registration of foreign workers has increased far more rapidly than that of native ones; in other words, a growing part of the increase in affiliation is due to migrant contributions (24% since 1999). In March, 2002, the overall number of foreigners accounted for 4.5% of job registrations. This proportion is similar to that of England or Sweden, but below that of France, Germany, Belgium, Austria, Switzerland, Luxembourg, Australia and the United States.

- The activity rate among foreigners is higher than among the native population, which seems logical when we are talking about labour migration. The same is true of the number of contributors (or those in formal employment). Incidentally, it has been demonstrated that the bulk of foreigners from the «North» are in active employment, contradicting the stereotype of a majority of pensioners or people of independent means.

- The proportion of each sex among foreign workers is similar to that of workers in Spain as a whole: two thirds are men and one third, women. The groups with a marked male majority are Pakistanis, Algerians, Senegalese, Moroccans, Portuguese, Rumanians, Italians, Bulgarians, Chinese, Argentineans, Ukrainians and Dutch. The most markedly female collectives are Dominicans, Brazilians, Filipinos, Peruvians and Colombians.

- The foreign workforce is younger than the native one, although it is made up of more «mature» adults (aged 24 to 40) than «young people» (aged between 16 and 24). The groups with a younger age profile are Africans,

Latin Americans and Asians; the oldest are EU Europeans and North Americans, although they are not as old as than Spanish workers.

- Originally, the foreign workforce was highly concentrated in a few activities: domestic service, agriculture, construction, hotel and catering, and trade. The majority of successful job applicants are now registering as wage-earners in sectors that are neither agriculture nor domestic service. The most noticeable increases have occurred in sectors which had not previously been conspicuous for their volume of employment (the oil and gas industries, the footwear industry, public health, construction, the machine industry, textiles and road transport); on the other hand, numbers have tended to decrease or stagnate in domestic service, coal mining and education. The trend therefore appears to be for a slow expansion of the number of foreign workers in industrial and service sector jobs, moving away from the traditional core of agriculture and catering (which are growing at the same pace as the overall foreign workforce), construction (which is growing even faster) and domestic service (with far more modest increases).

- Whereas foreigners represent 4.5% of contributors to the Social Security system, in some branches they exceed this average. This is particularly true of domestic service (29% of contributors), hotel and catering (9%), agriculture, rentals and property services (7% each), as well as the oil, gas and uranium industries (5.6%) and construction (5%).

- Comparing the structure of immigrant employment with that of OECD countries, it is evident that in Spain there is a higher concentration in domestic service, agriculture and catering; the percentages are similar in construction, trade and education, and they are clearly inferior in industry, health and public administration. The profile of the Spanish case is somewhat similar to that existing in other countries of southern Europe and differs sharply from that predominant in the nations of the central and northern parts of the continent.

- Foreigners are becoming more widespread geographically; they are expanding outwards from their initial centres of concentration (Madrid, Barcelona, the Canaries, the Balearics, Almeria and Murcia) towards parts of «interior Spain». In spite of this tendency to spread out, the volume and

importance of the foreign workforce remains particularly pronounced in certain provinces. The percentage of immigrants out of the provincial workforce is highest in Melilla, Almeria and the Balearics (over 10%), both provinces in the Canaries, Gerona, Ceuta, Alicante, Madrid, Lerida and Malaga (over 6%).

- Taking as our referent the distribution of foreigners in different branches of activities throughout Spain, there are important deviations in some provinces. This means that we can identify the provinces with the highest concentrations in *agriculture* (Cáceres, Huelva, Almeria, Murcia and Jaén); in *self-employment* (Badajoz, Malaga, Tenerife, Cadiz, Granada, Alicante, the Balearics and La Coruña); in *domestic service* (Ceuta, Melilla, Cantabria, Madrid, Seville and Asturias); in *fishing* (Lugo, Pontevedra, Guipúzcoa, Cadiz, Vizcaya and La Coruña); and in *coal-mining* (León). In others, however, it is wage-earners contributing to the Social Security *General Regime* who predominate in many provinces (Alava, Barcelona, Lérida, Gerona, Segovia, Zaragoza, Las Palmas, Guadalajara, Castellón, Tarragona, Teruel, Huesca and Soria).

STATISTICAL APPENDIX

Table 1.1

RESIDENTS FROM THE «FIRST» AND «THIRD» WORLDS IN SPAIN

Evolution 1955-2002

Year	Total residents			First World	
	Number	Annual rate	% of population	Number	Annual rate
1955	66,043	–	0.2	50,181	–
1960	64,660	–0.4	0.2	47,570	–1.0
1965	99,582	10.8	0.3	67,997	8.6
1970	148,400	9.8	0.4	103,409	10.4
1975	165,039	2.2	0.4	113,655	2.0
1980	183,422	2.2	0.5	130,598	3.0
1985	241,971	6.4	0.6	173,413	6.6
1991	360,655	8.2	1.0	196,272	2.2
1995	499,773	9.6	1.2	264,455	8.7
1998	719,647	14.7	1.8	325,234	7.7
1999	801,329	11.4	2.0	352,672	8.4
2000	895,720	11.8	2.2	346,235	–1.8
2001	1,109,060	23.8	2.7	374,584	8.2
2002	1,243,919	12.2	3.0	388,217	3.6

Source: Authors' research based on data from the Ministry of the Interior, *Statistics of foreign residents* (several years). The figures correspond to 31st December of each year except those for 2002, which are only up to 31st March (the latter come from a file provided by the *Comisaría General de Extranjería y Documentación*, CGED).

% of foreigners	Third World			Unknown origin
	Number	Annual rate	% of foreigners	
76.0	14,160	–	21.4	1,229
73.6	15,706	2.2	24.3	1,309
68.3	30,333	18.6	30.5	1,215
69.7	43,983	9.0	29.6	976
68.9	49,613	2.6	30.1	1,222
71.2	50,964	0.5	27.8	967
71.7	67,564	6.5	27.9	1,039
54.4	160,516	22.9	44.5	964
52.9	234,983	11.6	47.0	335
45.2	393,718	22.5	54.7	695
44.0	448,739	14.0	56.0	699
38.7	552,005	23.0	61.6	1,017
33.8	742,482	34.5	66.9	1,785
31.2	871,892	17.4	70.1	1,235

Table 1.2

FOREIGN RESIDENTS BY NATIONALITY AND ZONE OF ORIGIN

Residents 2002 - 1st quarter		Evolution 1996-2002			
Nationality	Number	Nationality	Number	Nationality	%
First World	387,982	First World	104,314	First World	36.8
Third World	871,892	Third World	617,798	Third World	243.1
European Union	330,716	South America	228,896	South America	323.3
Africa	323,527	Africa	224,810	Africa	227.7
South America	299,692	Rest of Europe	106,117	Rest of Europe	143.4
Rest of Europe	126,787	European Union	78,968	Asia	132.2
Asia	95,133	Asia	54,161	Central America	93.1
Central America	64,344	Central America	31,014	European Union	31.4
Morocco	247,940	Morocco	170,751	Ecuador	4,175.4
Ecuador	124,543	Ecuador	121,630	Ukraine	3,243.8
United Kingdom	81,345	Colombia	65,278	Rumania	2,497.7
Colombia	73,143	Rumania	34,618	Bulgaria	1,374.3
Germany	62,983	China	28,522	Colombia	830.0
France	45,648	Peru	18,627	Pakistan	430.2
Portugal	42,824	Germany	17,085	Bolivia	428.7
China	39,338	Italy	16,100	Algeria	359.1
Italy	37,462	Cuba	15,161	Russia	348.0
Peru	36,650	Ukraine	14,078	Poland	311.1
Rumania	36,004	Bulgaria	13,372	China	263.7
Dominican Rep.	30,916	Algeria	13,310	Senegal	254.5
Argentina	24,107	Dominican Rep.	13,071	Nigeria	254.5
Cuba	22,975	United Kingdom	12,986	Morocco	221.2
Netherlands	17,641	France	12,514	Cuba	194.0
Algeria	17,016	Pakistan	10,630	Equatorial Guinea	151.3
The Philippines	15,199	Poland	9,869	Brazil	116.4
Bulgaria	14,345	Senegal	9,098	Gambia	115.3
Ukraine	14,078	Nigeria	9,098	Peru	103.4
United States	13,975	Russia	7,200	Italy	75.4
Belgium	13,740	Brazil	6,629	Dominican Rep.	73.2
Pakistan	13,101	Argentina	5,861	Norway	72.8
Poland	13,041	Gambia	5,076	Finland	69.8
Senegal	12,673	Portugal	4,508	Venezuela	49.5
Brazil	12,323	Bolivia	4,094	Belgium	39.5
Venezuela	9,916	Belgium	3,893	Sweden	38.9

Table 1.2 (cont.)

Residents 2002 - 1st quarter		Evolution 1996-2002			
Nationality	Number	Nationality	Number	Nationality	%
Gambia	9,477	Netherlands	3,716	France	37.8
Russia	9,269	The Philippines	3,429	Germany	37.2
India	9,228	Venezuela	3,282	Uruguay	36.1
Sweden	9,093	Equatorial Guinea	3,172	India	34.1
Chile	7,762	Sweden	2,548	Argentina	32.1
Switzerland	7,358	Norway	2,368	Chile	30.8
Nigeria	6,540	India	2,346	The Philippines	29.1
Denmark	5,976	Finland	2,184	Mexico	27.1
Norway	5,621	Chile	1,826	Netherlands	26.7
Mexico	5,499	Uruguay	1,453	United Kingdom	19.0
Uruguay	5,481	Mexico	1,171	Denmark	17.0
Finland	5,315	Denmark	869	Portugal	11.8
Equatorial Guinea	5,268	Switzerland	220	Switzerland	3.1
Bolivia	5,049	United States	-1,686	United States	-10.8
Total	1,243,919	Total	704,935	Total	130.8

Source: Authors' research based on data from the Ministry of the Interior, *Statistics of foreign residents* (several years).

Table 1.3

MAIN FOREIGN NATIONALITIES BY SEX

Percentage distribution. March, 2002

Women			Men		
Nacionality	Number	%	Nacionality	Number	%
Morocco	78,379	14.1	Morocco	168,217	24.7
Ecuador	61,904	11.1	Ecuador	62,580	9.2
Colombia	43,235	7.8	United Kingdom	39,602	5.8
United Kingdom	40,859	7.3	Germany	30,634	4.5
Germany	31,343	5.6	Colombia	29,780	4.4
France	23,034	4.1	Portugal	24,021	3.5
Dominican Republic	21,527	3.9	Italy	23,435	3.4
China	21,516	3.9	Rumania	23,269	3.4
Portugal	18,502	3.3	France	22,251	3.3
Peru	17,079	3.1	China	22,049	3.2
Italy	13,767	2.5	Peru	14,965	2.2
Cuba	13,344	2.4	Algeria	13,608	2.0
Rumania	12,697	2.3	Argentina	12,309	1.8
Argentina	11,645	2.1	Pakistan	11,877	1.7
The Philippines	9,188	1.7	Senegal	10,466	1.5
Brazil	8,716	1.6	Cuba	9,547	1.4
The Netherlands	8,706	1.6	Dominican Republic	9,203	1.4
Belgium	6,960	1.3	Bulgaria	8,973	1.3
United States	6,732	1.2	The Netherlands	8,760	1.3
Ukraine	6,519	1.2	Ukraine	7,554	1.1
Venezuela	6,001	1.1	United States	7,142	1.0
Poland	5,992	1.1	Poland	6,971	1.0
Bulgaria	5,359	1.0	Belgium	6,659	1.0
Russia	5,310	1.0	Gambia	6,381	0.9
Sweden	4,897	0.9	The Philippines	5,951	0.9

Source: Authors' research based on data provided by the CGED of the Ministry of the Interior.

Table 1.4

FOREIGN POPULATION BY AGE GROUP AND ORIGIN. 2002

Percentage distribution

Origin	Aged 0 to 15	Aged 16 to 24	Aged 25 to 44	Aged 45 to 64	Aged over 64
First World	6.3	7.6	41.9	28.2	16.1
Third World	11.4	15.9	59.7	11.4	1.5
EES ^(*)	6.3	7.6	41.9	28.2	16.1
Latin America	7.2	16.0	62.3	12.4	2.1
Africa	17.2	16.4	56.2	9.2	1.0
Asia	11.8	15.4	57.0	13.5	2.4
Eastern Europe	7.4	14.4	64.0	13.4	0.7
Rest of First World	6.3	6.5	34.2	30.4	22.7
Rest of Third World	5.8	11.5	54.9	23.1	4.7
Total foreigners	9.9	13.4	54.3	16.4	6.0

(*) EES (European Economic Space): all the members of the European Union, plus Norway, Iceland and Liechtenstein.

Source: Authors' research compiled from data of the CGED of the Ministry of the Interior.

Table 1.5

CHILDREN BORN TO A FOREIGN MOTHER. 1999

Percentage of total number of births

Province	%	Province	%
Melilla	30.9	Toledo	2.9
Gerona	14.3	Cantabria	2.9
Ceuta	12.7	Cáceres	2.8
Balearic Islands	9.4	Burgos	2.8
Madrid	8.9	Valencia	2.7
Lérida	7.2	Teruel	2.7
Tarragona	7.2	Pontevedra	2.5
Las Palmas	6.9	Ávila	2.4
Barcelona	6.7	Salamanca	2.2
Tenerife	6.2	Vizcaya	2.2
La Rioja	5.6	Guipúzcoa	2.1
Almeria	5.5	Asturias	2.1
Soria	5.2	Cuenca	2.0
Spain	4.9	Palencia	2.0
Malaga	4.9	Zamora	1.7
Alicante	4.7	La Coruña	1.7
Castellón	4.6	Cádiz	1.7
Guadalajara	4.6	Valladolid	1.5
Orense	4.2	Granada	1.5
Huesca	4.2	Seville	1.1
Segovia	4.0	Badajoz	1.1
Murcia	4.0	Ciudad Real	0.9
Zaragoza	3.7	Huelva	0.7
Navarre	3.6	Albacete	0.7
Álava	3.2	Córdoba	0.6
León	3.1	Jaén	0.5
Lugo	3.1		

Source: *Instituto Nacional de Estadística* (data published in *Delegación del Gobierno para la Extranjería y la Inmigración, Anuario Estadístico de Extranjería 2001*).

Table 1.6

MARRIAGES CELEBRATED IN SPAIN WITH AT LEAST ONE FOREIGN SPOUSE, BY NATIONALITY AND SEX OF THE CONTRACTING PARTIES. 1999

Nationality	Women	Nationality	Men
Spain	43.7	Spain	45.6
Latin America	26.6	EES	23.4
EES	11.9	Africa	11.9
Africa	7.8	Latin America	9.9
Rest of Europe	6.4	Rest of Europe	3.9
Asia	2.0	Asia	2.6
North America	1.4	North America	2.4
Australasia	0.2	Australasia	0.2
Colombia	9.0	Morocco	7.3
Morocco	5.7	United Kingdom	4.7
Brazil	4.0	Germany	4.4
Germany	2.7	Italy	4.2
United Kingdom	2.4	France	3.6
Dominican Republic	2.3	Portugal	2.2
France	2.1	United States	2.2
Cuba	2.1	Cuba	2.0
Peru	2.0	The Netherlands	1.5
Ecuador	1.9	Algeria	1.4
Portugal	1.7	Colombia	1.4
Argentina	1.5	Argentina	1.4
Poland	1.4	Peru	1.0
Russia	1.4	Poland	0.9
United States	1.2	Ecuador	0.9
Rest	15.0	Rest	15.4

Source: *Instituto Nacional de Estadística* (data published in *Delegación del Gobierno para la Extranjería y la Inmigración, Anuario Estadístico de Extranjería 2001*).

Table 1.7

RESULTS OF THE REGULARISATION PROCESSES. 2000-2001

On 31st December, 2001

Process	Law applicable	Applications		
		Submitted	Admitted	Refused
Extraordinary regularisation	<i>Ley 4/2000</i> <i>Real Decreto 18/II/2000</i>	244,327	152,207	92,120
Re-examination	<i>Ley 8/2000</i> <i>Real Decreto 16/II/2001</i>	57,616 ^(*) (cases officially reviewed)	36,013	21,603
Ecuadorians	Immigration agreement between Spain and Ecuador	24,884	24,352	532
<i>Arraigo</i>	<i>Ley 8/2000</i> <i>Artículo 31.4</i>	346,166	122,310 (up to 31-12-2001)	223,856
Totals		615,377	334,882	280,495

(*) This figure is not included in the total number of applications submitted because these cases are dealt with in the extraordinary regularisation process.

Source: *Delegación del Gobierno para la Extranjería y la Inmigración, Balance 2001*, p. 30.

Table 1.8

EVOLUTION OF FOREIGNERS AND NATURALISED CITIZENS IN THE COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION. 1990-1999

Country	1990	1999	% total population	Annual growth	Naturalised citizens	
					1990-1999	Annual growth
Austria	456,000	748,000	9.2	7.1	152,000	10.8
Belgium	904,000	897,000	8.8	-0.1	213,000	2.5
Denmark	160,000	259,000	4.9	6.9	63,000	11.3
Finland	26,000	87,000	1.7	26.1	17,000	33.3
France	3,596,000	3,263,000	5.6	-1.0	1,084,000	2.3
Germany	5,342,000	7,343,000	8.9	4.2	2,316,000	9.0
Greece ^(*)	200,000	600,000	5.7	22.2	n.d.	n.d.
Ireland	80,000	117,000	3.1	5.1	n.d.	n.d.
Italy	781,000	1,252,000	2.2	6.7	65,000	7.6
Luxembourg	113,000	159,000	36.0	4.5	9,000	5.4
Netherlands	692,000	651,000	4.1	-0.7	505,000	7.5
Portugal	107,000	190,000	1.9	8.6	5,000	9.1
Spain	278,000	801,000	2.0	20.9	86,000	24.3
Sweden	483,000	487,000	5.5	0.1	323,000	7.5
United Kingdom	1,723,000	2,208,000	3.8	3.1	477,000	6.2
European Union	14,941,000	19,062,000	5.1	3.1	5,315,000	7.0

(*) The data corresponding to Greece are estimated.

n.d. = no data

Source: SOPEMI-2001.

Table 2.1

ENROLMENT IN NON-UNIVERSITY EDUCATION, SPANIARDS AND FOREIGNERS

Evolution of the academic years 1991-2002

Academic year	Spanish pupils	Foreign pupils	Total number of pupils	% foreigners
1991-92	8,201,500	36,661	8,238,161	0.4
1992-93	8,074,611	43,845	8,118,456	0.5
1993-94	8,000,964	50,076	8,051,040	0.6
1994-95	7,811,671	53,213	7,864,884	0.7
1995-96	7,610,110	57,406	7,667,516	0.7
1996-97	7,432,881	62,707	7,495,588	0.8
1997-98	7,236,733	72,363	7,309,096	1.0
1998-99	7,047,564	80,687	7,128,251	1.1
1999-00	6,861,979	103,401	6,965,380	1.5
2000-01	6,753,412	133,684	6,887,096	1.9
2001-02	6,629,471	201,518	6,830,989	3.0
Variation 1991-92 / 2000-01	-1,572,029	164,857	-1,407,172	-
Percentage of variation	-19.27	449.7	-17.1	-

Source: Authors' research based on MECD, *Estadísticas de la Educación en España*.

Table 2.2

FOREIGN PUPILS. MAIN NATIONALITIES

Academic year 2001-02

Origin	Number	%	Accumulated %
Morocco	38,233	19.0	19.0
Ecuador	26,722	13.3	32.2
Colombia	23,540	11.7	43.9
United Kingdom	8,130	4.0	47.9
Argentina	7,415	3.7	51.6
Germany	6,969	3.5	55.1
Dominican Republic	6,126	3.0	58.1
Rumania	5,388	2.7	60.8
Peru	5,356	2.7	63.5
China	5,003	2.5	65.9
France	4,299	2.1	68.1
Portugal	3,900	1.9	70.0
Venezuela	3,842	1.9	71.9
Brazil	2,978	1.5	73.4
Bulgaria	2,975	1.5	74.9
Italy	2,802	1.4	76.3
Cuba	2,672	1.3	77.6
Poland	2,440	1.2	78.8
Russia	2,253	1.1	79.9
Chile	2,050	1.0	80.9
Equatorial Guinea	1,892	0.9	81.9
Algeria	1,872	0.9	82.8
Ukraine	1,779	0.9	83.7
United States	1,754	0.9	84.6
Belgium	1,423	0.7	85.3
Netherlands	1,369	0.7	85.9
Philippines	1,341	0.7	86.6
Mexico	1,330	0.7	87.3
Switzerland	1,268	0.6	87.9
India	1,108	0.5	88.4
Total	201,518	100	-

Source: MECD, *Estadísticas de la Educación en España 2001-2002. Datos Avance*.

Table 2.3

PUPILS BY NATIONALITY AND EDUCATION CYCLE. 1999-2000

Percentage distribution

Nationality	Pre-school	Primary	ESO/ Secondary	Bachillerato	Other	Unknown
Morocco	19.7	44.5	31.0	1.4	3.3	0.1
Germany	13.7	41.5	24.9	12.0	2.6	5.4
United Kingdom	16.2	42.2	20.0	4.6	1.0	16.1
Colombia	16.6	46.3	28.9	4.5	3.5	0.3
Dominican Republic	11.5	43.7	38.0	3.2	3.6	0.0
France	16.9	34.5	26.6	9.9	4.4	7.7
Portugal	17.3	46.3	28.5	3.8	3.9	0.2
Ecuador	20.0	48.5	25.2	3.9	2.4	0.0
Peru	13.0	41.0	31.1	7.1	7.7	0.0
Argentina	10.1	31.4	41.1	12.4	4.9	0.2
China	15.7	42.7	36.4	4.4	0.7	0.1
Venezuela	9.1	31.7	36.1	13.7	9.3	0.1
Italy	19.2	43.1	22.5	11.5	2.5	1.2
Brazil	14.3	46.0	28.2	8.4	2.7	0.4
Cuba	11.6	47.2	31.2	6.5	3.5	0.0
Poland	24.2	41.7	25.6	5.3	3.0	0.1
Switzerland	7.5	27.2	25.4	16.0	21.2	2.7
Equatorial Guinea	9.0	38.9	29.8	7.2	15.0	0.0
Mexico	17.1	45.7	20.7	14.6	1.9	0.0
Rumania	19.9	53.4	22.5	3.1	1.1	0.0
Russia	10.9	43.0	30.3	6.0	2.1	7.6
Belgium	15.8	39.0	27.7	8.7	4.9	4.0
Holland	17.6	41.7	23.1	7.4	2.1	8.2
India	18.8	41.9	25.0	8.2	0.8	5.3
The Philippines	25.6	43.5	25.1	4.1	1.6	0.2
Chile	13.2	40.5	31.0	10.3	5.0	0.0
Algeria	20.8	48.5	23.7	2.3	3.8	1.0
United States	14.2	34.9	23.0	15.6	4.7	7.6
Pakistan	16.3	52.0	28.7	1.5	1.5	0.0
Canada	12.6	39.6	24.5	17.6	0.6	5.0
Total n° of foreigners	16.5	42.4	28.6	6.0	3.8	2.7
Total n° of nationals	16.3	36.1	28.7	11.5	7.5	0.0

Source: Authors' compilation from the data file provided by the MECED.

Table 2.4

PROPORTION OF FOREIGN PUPILS IN EACH EDUCATION CYCLE

Evolution of the academic years 1991-2002. Number per thousand

Stage of education	Number of foreign pupils per 1,000 enrolled										
	91-92	92-93	93-94	94-95	95-96	96-97	97-98	98-99	99-00	00-01	01-02
Nursery / Pre-school	5.0	6.8	8.0	8.1	8.7	9.4	10.9	11.0	15.1	21.1	31.2
Primary / EGB	5.4	6.6	7.6	8.6	10.0	11.3	13.4	13.3	17.4	23.9	35.7
Special Education	–	2.2	4.7	4.0	5.0	5.4	8.3	6.4	12.1	15.9	12.6
ESO / Secondary	–	–	–	4.9	5.4	6.5	9.0	11.9	14.8	19.7	28.6
Bachilleratos	2.6	3.2	4.0	3.6	3.2	4.3	5.8	6.8	8.1	9.6	12.5
FP and FP cycles	2.3	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.6	4.3	4.4	7.2	8.0	10.8
Socially Guaranteed Programs	–	–	–	–	2.4	2.9	6.2	14.4	11.1	15.9	19.7
Total	4.5	5.4	6.3	6.8	7.5	8.3	9.9	11.0	14.5	19.5	28.7

Source: Compilation by the authors based on MECD, *Estadísticas de la Educación en España*.

Table 2.5

PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS AMONG FOREIGN PUPILS BY NATIONALITY AND STAGE OF EDUCATION

Academic year 1999-2000

Nationality	Total	Pre-school	Primary	ESO/ Secondary	BUP-COU	Bachillerato	Other (1)
Morocco	43.2	47.3	45.4	38.9	36.5	54.4	27.5
Germany	49.5	46.5	49.9	49.9	52.0	52.7	44.5
United Kingdom	49.1	47.5	48.1	50.4	55.5	58.6	42.6
Colombia	49.9	52.7	48.8	49.2	44.3	57.9	52.5
Dominican Republic	52.2	48.1	50.1	54.2	78.8	66.7	55.4
France	49.5	49.8	48.5	49.8	59.1	55.4	40.6
Portugal	48.6	48.0	47.3	50.0	56.7	64.5	42.8
Ecuador	50.3	52.5	49.2	50.5	48.1	56.5	44.9
Peru	49.1	42.0	49.8	50.1	52.5	55.0	48.9
Argentina	45.9	48.1	46.2	44.7	50.5	48.4	41.7
China	47.5	49.2	47.5	45.6	45.2	58.8	54.5
Venezuela	49.9	49.7	50.3	45.6	55.2	59.4	53.6
Italy	48.8	50.9	47.0	47.7	52.6	51.9	59.1
Brazil	50.2	52.3	47.4	49.1	63.3	68.1	51.1
Cuba	52.0	50.0	50.5	52.5	58.6	64.3	55.6
Poland	49.1	48.3	46.6	52.0	50.0	63.5	46.7
Switzerland	58.9	46.7	48.7	50.8	47.6	69.6	85.5
Equatorial Guinea	52.0	49.2	53.2	58.8	43.5	57.4	37.5
Mexico	47.3	48.9	43.0	47.4	53.6	62.2	45.8
Rumania	46.3	38.4	48.5	45.3	71.4	66.7	42.9
Russia	50.1	44.8	50.3	48.6	44.8	52.5	54.2
Belgium	50.5	48.3	48.8	52.9	63.2	59.3	42.6
Holland	52.3	48.5	55.2	50.2	54.3	66.0	30.4
India	53.3	54.3	50.8	55.0	57.4	68.0	62.5
The Philippines	48.8	49.6	49.7	45.6	60.0	62.5	37.5
Chile	49.2	53.0	48.6	50.6	43.2	39.4	52.0
Algeria	45.4	44.0	46.4	45.0	60.0	45.5	37.1
United States	43.9	43.2	46.4	37.5	54.5	38.1	61.5
Pakistan	37.8	42.9	41.2	28.9	60.0	50.0	14.3
Canada	52.8	60.0	46.0	56.4	58.3	68.8	0.0

(1) Includes pupils from FP (Vocational Training), Training cycles of FP, Socially Guaranteed Programs and Special Education.

Table 3.1

EVOLUTION OF THE NUMBER OF REGISTERED CONTRIBUTORS					
	1999	2000	2001	1st quarter 2002	Evolution %
Total n° of registrations	14,344,900	15,062,900	15,765,300	15,912,400	10.9
Foreigners	334,976	454,571	607,074	711,432	112.4
Percentage of foreigners / Total	2.3	3.0	3.9	4.5	

Source: *Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social*. Compilation: Colectivo Ioé.

Table 3.2

EVOLUTION OF FOREIGN WORKERS BY ZONE OF ORIGIN

Registered contributors

Origin	Number			
	1999	2000	2001	1st quarter 2002
Latin America	63,065	101,273	172,816	214,928
Africa	104,706	138,321	168,452	192,677
EES	126,267	141,633	159,487	177,620
Rest of Europe	14,915	28,094	51,086	68,305
Asia	28,933	37,582	47,429	51,615
North America	4,124	4,410	4,809	5,277

Source: *Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social*. Compilation: Colectivo Ioé.

Table 3.3

EVOLUTION OF FOREIGN WORKERS BY SEX

Sex	1999	2000	2001	1st quarter, 2002
Men	216,194	296,658	398,553	467,224
Women	118,604	157,780	208,414	244,192
Total	334,976	454,571	627,795	711,432
<i>Percentage of each sex out of total n° of foreigners</i>				
Men	64.5	65.3	65.7	65.7
Women	35.4	34.7	34.3	34.3
<i>Percentage of foreigners out of total n° of contributors</i>				
Men	2.4	3.2	4.3	4.8
Women	2.3	2.8	3.6	4.0

Source: *Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social*. Compilation: Colectivo Ioé.

	% increase 1999 - 1st quarter 2002	Percentage distribution			
		1999	2000	2001	1st quarter 2002
	240.8	18,8	22,3	28,5	30,2
	84.0	31,3	30,4	27,7	27,1
	40.7	37,7	31,2	26,3	25,0
	358.0	4,5	6,2	8,4	9,6
	78.4	8,6	8,3	7,8	7,3
	28.0	1,2	1,0	0,8	0,7

Table 3.4

FOREIGNERS REGISTERED WITH SOCIAL SECURITY BY NATIONALITY AND AGE GROUP

Percentage distribution. Third quarter, 1999, and first quarter, 2002

Nationality	1999			2002			1999	2002	99-02 Difference
	Aged 16 to 24	Aged 25 to 54	Aged 55 and over	Aged 16 to 24	Aged 25 to 54	Aged 55 and over	Average	Average	
Morocco	12.6	84.5	2.9	15.8	81.9	2.1	34	33	-1
United Kingdom	9.2	80.5	10.2	8.7	79.7	11.5	39	39	0
Germany	6.4	81.3	12.3	6.1	81.2	12.6	40	40	0
France	9.6	84.9	5.5	9.7	84.3	6.0	36	35	-1
Portugal	18.5	76.9	4.6	15.2	80.0	4.8	35	35	0
Peru	9.4	87.0	3.6	10.5	85.7	3.8	36	35	-1
Italy	8.6	82.7	8.8	9.5	83.0	7.5	37	36	-1
Dominican Rep.	12.1	85.8	2.0	14.2	83.3	2.4	35	34	-1
China	18.2	80.0	1.7	17.2	81.3	1.4	34	33	-1
The Philippines	11.5	83.9	4.6	9.3	86.0	4.5	37	36	-1
Netherlands	8.2	84.5	7.3	5.8	85.3	8.8	37	38	1
Ecuador	14.6	84.1	1.3	17.7	81.3	1.0	33	32	-1
Cuba	9.0	86.2	4.7	7.5	87.8	4.7	35	35	0
Argentina	5.8	86.1	8.0	9.2	84.2	6.6	39	36	-3
Colombia	7.0	89.7	3.3	13.8	84.2	1.9	36	34	-2
Belgium	9.5	83.2	7.3	9.0	83.0	8.0	37	37	0
Algeria	6.4	92.3	1.3	6.7	92.3	1.0	33	33	0
Senegal	4.3	92.7	2.9	8.6	89.0	2.4	38	35	-3
Poland	6.1	91.6	2.2	11.5	86.4	2.1	35	34	-1
United States	3.8	87.8	8.4	3.9	87.7	8.3	39	39	0
Gambia	4.0	95.3	0.6	9.4	88.9	1.0	37	36	-1
Rumania	12.2	86.8	1.0	14.9	84.1	1.0	33	32	-1
Sweden	13.7	76.4	10.0	13.0	76.3	10.7	37	37	0
India	14.1	80.7	5.2	14.9	81.4	3.7	36	34	-2
Brazil	8.4	89.7	1.9	12.0	86.2	1.8	34	33	-1
Chile	5.8	84.9	9.3	7.3	86.2	6.5	40	37	-3
Venezuela	6.5	90.5	3.1	9.2	87.8	3.0	36	35	-1
Ireland	13.3	81.3	5.2	11.5	82.6	5.9	35	35	0
Pakistan	14.0	84.2	1.7	13.6	85.5	0.9	33	32	-1
Austria	9.0	81.7	9.3	6.8	82.5	10.7	38	38	0
Nigeria	29.4	70.4	0.1	17.4	82.3	0.2	29	29	0
Denmark	11.0	76.4	12.5	9.7	77.0	13.3	38	38	0
Bulgaria	7.3	90.4	2.2	9.7	88.4	1.9	36	35	-1

Table 3.4 (cont.)

Nationality	1999			2002			1999	2002	99-02
	Aged 16 to 24	Aged 25 to 54	Aged 55 and over	Aged 16 to 24	Aged 25 to 54	Aged 55 and over	Average	Average	Difference
Uruguay	6.1	86.0	7.7	9.9	83.5	6.6	38	36	-2
Mexico	4.1	90.4	5.5	5.1	90.7	4.2	37	35	-2
Mali	28.8	71.0	0.2	16.9	82.8	0.2	29	29	0
Switzerland	4.5	79.1	16.4	3.2	79.0	17.8	42	43	1
Guinea Bissau	18.4	80.8	0.8	12.9	86.0	1.1	32	32	0
Japan	1.7	88.3	10.1	1.9	85.4	12.6	43	42	-1
Russia	6.7	88.9	4.3	11.5	85.6	2.9	37	35	-2
Equatorial Guinea	13.8	85.0	1.2	15.4	83.4	1.2	32	31	-1
Guinea	12.6	86.2	1.2	12.7	86.4	0.9	33	32	-1
Finland	8.3	83.7	8.0	10.5	80.7	8.8	39	38	-1
Ghana	20.2	79.4	0.4	11.2	88.4	0.4	32	32	0
Mauritania	11.3	88.1	0.6	8.4	90.7	0.8	33	33	0
Norway	10.3	79.4	10.2	9.8	78.0	12.2	38	38	0
Cape Verde Is.	11.6	86.8	1.5	10.6	88.8	0.6	35	34	-1
Bolivia	7.2	88.5	4.3	12.0	85.8	2.2	37	34	-3
Total	10.8	83.9	5.3	12.7	83.8	4.3	36	35	-1

Source: *Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social*. Compilation: Colectivo Ioé.

Table 3.5

DISTRIBUTION OF THE MAIN NON-EUROPEAN UNION NATIONALITIES BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY

Percentage of the total of each nationality

	Nationality							
	Morocco	Ecuador	Colombia	Rumania	Peru	China	Dominican Republic	Argentina
Catalonia	27.7	13.8	14.7	13.1	32.9	26.5	27.1	23.4
Madrid	13.2	35.1	28.8	25.8	49.0	27.1	45.4	19.4
Andalusia	16.8	6.4	7.0	11.0	2.7	9.9	2.6	12.4
Comunidad Valenciana	7.7	9.4	9.2	19.6	2.8	12.0	2.3	8.8
Canary Islands	3.2	1.7	11.2	1.0	1.9	7.6	3.5	10.5
Murcia	12.3	14.7	1.5	0.6	0.3	1.6	0.6	1.1
Balearic Islands	3.7	2.6	2.7	1.1	1.8	2.9	2.1	8.1
Aragón	1.9	3.0	2.9	9.6	1.0	2.4	2.0	1.8
Castilla y León	1.3	2.4	4.9	2.8	1.3	2.3	3.7	2.0
Castilla-La Mancha	2.8	3.6	3.7	9.5	1.3	1.3	2.3	1.5
Basque Country	1.0	1.1	3.1	1.2	1.2	2.7	1.3	1.7
Galicia	0.6	0.3	3.0	0.4	1.1	1.0	1.9	5.0
Navarre	1.0	3.3	2.4	0.8	1.0	0.5	2.1	1.0
Extremadura	3.3	0.3	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.8	0.4	0.5
La Rioja	0.9	0.7	1.4	2.6	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.7
Asturias	0.2	1.0	1.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	1.5	1.2
Cantabria	0.2	0.5	1.6	0.5	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.8
Melilla	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ceuta	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: *Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social*. Compilation: Colectivo Ioé.

Nationality								
Cuba	Algeria	Bulgaria	The Philippines	Poland	Ukraine	Senegal	Pakistan	Brazil
17.0	16.1	7.8	34.9	9.4	22.3	25.0	56.3	22.7
20.9	4.8	22.6	44.0	48.9	15.2	4.5	3.5	21.4
5.4	10.2	5.5	6.2	12.3	16.6	21.2	12.0	8.3
8.2	28.4	16.5	1.6	6.6	16.4	8.1	9.9	8.9
24.7	1.7	2.1	5.3	3.0	1.4	10.3	0.9	5.7
1.3	7.4	1.4	0.2	0.8	5.3	3.0	0.4	1.2
4.6	2.6	4.8	4.9	1.5	1.4	4.7	0.5	5.2
2.6	10.1	3.3	0.1	4.2	4.3	8.2	1.6	2.9
2.6	3.0	23.6	0.2	3.8	2.3	2.3	1.4	4.0
1.1	2.2	5.3	0.2	3.1	7.2	0.8	1.7	1.1
2.8	3.4	0.7	1.4	1.1	1.1	2.4	1.8	5.4
3.9	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.7	4.1	0.3	5.3
1.1	5.7	4.5	0.1	0.9	1.7	2.2	1.2	2.2
0.3	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.3	2.1
0.7	2.4	0.7	0.0	0.1	0.8	0.3	7.9	0.4
2.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	3.5	1.0	1.1	0.1	2.2
0.8	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.2	1.6	1.3	0.2	1.1
0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 3.6

DISTRIBUTION OF THE MAIN NATIONALITIES FROM DEVELOPED COUNTRIES BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY

Percentage of the total of each nationality

	Nationality						
	United Kingdom	Germany	France	Italy	Portugal	Netherlands	Belgium
Catalonia	12.3	16.4	29.8	26.7	10.1	26.2	18.8
Canary Islands	21.3	22.7	6.6	16.7	4.5	12.6	18.4
Andalusia	22.6	10.7	10.2	10.9	6.4	16.3	16.5
Madrid	10.6	8.8	18.1	15.6	17.2	10.3	9.9
Comunidad Valenciana	14.7	12.8	13.3	11.6	4.1	19.6	21.9
Balearic Islands	11.4	22.8	6.5	8.7	2.0	8.9	7.5
Basque Country	1.8	1.4	3.9	1.5	8.9	1.0	1.1
Galicia	0.8	0.6	1.4	1.8	15.6	0.7	0.6
Castilla y León	0.6	0.5	2.0	1.2	10.2	0.7	1.0
Murcia	1.4	1.0	2.4	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4
Navarre	0.3	0.4	1.6	0.6	5.9	0.3	0.2
Aragón	0.6	0.6	1.7	1.1	2.3	0.9	0.8
Asturias	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.6	3.3	0.3	0.5
Castilla-La Mancha	0.4	0.2	0.9	0.8	1.3	0.3	0.6
Extremadura	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	3.1	0.1	0.1
Cantabria	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.4
La Rioja	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	3.1	0.1	0.1
Melilla	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Ceuta	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: *Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social*. Compilation: Colectivo Ioé.

Nationality

United States	Sweden	Ireland	Austria	Denmark	Switzerland	Finland	Japan	Norway
19.2	11.4	17.0	15.7	13.1	22.2	9.9	37.8	6.5
3.0	21.6	13.8	32.1	20.2	14.5	22.6	3.6	30.9
13.9	23.2	15.5	9.8	33.6	11.5	40.4	5.7	14.0
37.9	14.9	22.1	12.4	11.0	14.3	9.9	37.7	5.9
5.6	12.1	11.3	9.7	7.8	16.6	6.8	3.3	32.2
3.4	13.1	4.2	14.8	9.9	12.0	7.6	1.5	7.1
3.6	0.8	5.2	1.0	1.1	1.5	0.8	2.1	0.7
3.0	0.3	2.0	0.6	0.6	1.7	0.6	1.1	0.5
2.4	0.4	2.2	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.1	2.0	0.2
0.6	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.6	1.7	0.6	1.2	0.6
0.9	0.1	1.5	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.1	1.8	0.2
2.3	0.4	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.1	0.2	0.3
1.3	0.1	1.2	0.3	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.9	0.1
1.4	0.2	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.9	0.3
0.2	0.1	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.1
0.9	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0
0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1

Table 3.7

FOREIGN CONTRIBUTORS BY PROVINCE OF WORK AND SEX

Percentage distribution. First quarter, 2002

Province	Women	Men
Madrid	43.8	56.2
Seville	42.2	57.8
Malaga	41.6	58.4
La Coruña	41.0	59.0
Tenerife	40.9	59.1
Ávila	40.4	59.6
Cantabria	40.1	59.9
Asturias	39.0	61.0
Orense	39.0	61.0
Huelva	38.5	61.5
Córdoba	38.4	61.6
Las Palmas	38.1	61.9
Balearic Islands	36.8	63.2
Zamora	36.5	63.5
Valladolid	36.2	63.8
Granada	35.3	64.7
Salamanca	35.2	64.8
Spain	34.3	65.7
Vizcaya	34.3	65.7
Barcelona	34.2	65.8
Ceuta	34.2	65.8
Lugo	34.2	65.8
Alicante	33.9	66.1
Badajoz	33.4	66.6
Cádiz	32.7	67.3
Guadalajara	31.9	68.1
Burgos	31.9	68.1
Pontevedra	31.8	68.2
Segovia	31.8	68.2
León	31.4	68.6
Guipúzcoa	31.0	69.0
Soria	30.6	69.3

Table 3.7 (cont.)

Province	Women	Men
Zaragoza	30.2	69.8
Palencia	29.8	70.2
Valencia	29.6	70.4
Cuenca	29.1	70.9
Navarre	28.5	71.5
Melilla	28.5	71.5
Albacete	28.4	71.6
Castellón	27.3	72.7
Gerona	26.1	73.9
Álava	25.5	74.5
La Rioja	25.2	74.8
Toledo	25.2	74.8
Tarragona	24.9	75.1
Jaén	22.9	77.1
Ciudad Real	22.5	77.5
Huesca	21.6	78.4
Teruel	20.5	79.5
Lérida	20.0	80.0
Almería	20.0	80.0
Murcia	19.7	80.3
Cáceres	17.3	82.7

Source: *Tesorería General de la Seguridad Social*. Authors' compilation

Table 3.8

EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN WORKERS BY SECTOR IN OECD COUNTRIES

Percentage of total number of foreigners employed. Average 1999-2000

Country	Agriculture and fishing	Domestic service	Hotels and catering	Business
Portugal	2.7	6.8	9.6	10.0
Spain	7.8	18.0	14.9	12.6
Greece	3.4	19.6	8.6	10.9
Italy	5.4	10.9	8.5	11.0
France	3.0	7.1	6.9	11.9
Luxembourg	0.8	4.0	8.0	13.1
Austria	1.4	0.8	11.6	12.5
Belgium	1.7	0.8	6.9	15.3
Denmark	3.1	–	7.1	12.8
Finland	4.3	0.5	10.2	14.3
Germany	1.5	0.6	10.6	12.5
United Kingdom	0.3	1.6	9.9	11.6
Ireland	2.5	1.4	12.3	8.8
Netherlands	2.4	0.2	6.1	13.9
Norway	1.8	0.5	7.1	13.3
Sweden	1.8	–	8.5	12.7
Switzerland	1.4	1.6	5.5	16.5
Australia	2.1	3.2	6.2	16.2
Canada	2.4	–	–	24.1
United States	3.6	2.0	–	22.9
Czech Republic	1.9	0.9	4.3	27.4
Japan	0.3	–	–	8.0
Slovakia	7.6	–	–	13.8
Hungary	2.7	–	3.5	20.4

Source: SOPEMI 20.

Manufacturing industries-mining	Construction	Education	Health Social services	Government sector	Other services
17.3	25.2	5.8	10.3	1.7	10.5
10.9	9.4	5.1	8.1	0.9	12.3
18.4	27.2	2.0	4.2	0.8	5.0
30.3	9.4	3.2	6.7	2.5	12.0
19.6	17.3	3.1	8.7	2.6	19.7
10.3	15.6	2.5	9.3	11.2	25.2
27.5	12.0	2.7	11.3	1.4	19.0
23.6	8.0	3.3	12.4	9.2	18.9
19.5	2.4	5.4	26.8	3.8	19.2
16.8	3.6	10.0	19.0	0.6	20.8
33.7	9.0	2.7	12.3	2.1	15.0
13.8	5.1	8.3	20.2	4.2	25.1
18.8	7.6	7.3	15.2	1.7	24.4
24.4	4.3	5.9	12.4	4.1	26.3
18.2	4.8	7.7	25.4	2.9	18.3
21.4	1.9	9.5	23.1	2.1	19.1
23.1	9.8	4.6	17.1	3.3	17.2
18.8	7.9	6.1	12.0	3.1	24.4
19.6	5.0	–	24.6	3.8	20.4
18.6	6.1	–	2.2	20.8	23.7
24.3	8.8	6.3	10.4	3.4	12.3
59.8	2.2	–	–	–	29.6
22.7	3.5	12.9	17.0	4.9	17.6
24.5	6.1	10.8	13.5	3.9	14.6

Table 3.9

FOREIGN JOB-SEEKERS BY NATIONALITY AND TYPE OF BENEFIT. 2001

Nationality	Number			% without former employment	Recipients (%)			
	Total job-seekers	Recipients	Without former employment		Not received	Contributive	Subsidy	Agricultural subsidy
Africa	35,211	9,943	5,893	16.7	71.8	15.8	7.6	4.9
Latin America	22,974	3,708	7,277	31.7	83.9	9.9	6.0	0.3
EES	20,499	7,991	3,782	18.4	61.0	24.2	14.2	0.5
Asia	2,980	698	630	21.1	76.6	16.5	6.5	0.5
Rest of Europe	5,137	1,136	1,493	29.1	77.9	14.4	7.4	0.3
Morocco	24,759	7,471	4,165	16.8	69.8	15.8	8.0	6.4
Ecuador	6,314	537	2,124	33.6	91.5	5.1	3.3	0.2
Colombia	4,569	481	1,983	43.4	89.5	5.7	4.6	0.0
Portugal	4,051	1,199	858	21.2	70.4	16.1	12.0	1.6
United Kingdom	3,391	1,810	416	12.3	46.6	27.8	25.5	0.1
Germany	3,379	1,538	487	14.4	54.5	29.8	15.4	0.3
Italy	3,222	992	801	24.9	69.2	21.8	8.8	0.3
France	3,202	1,123	592	18.5	64.9	24.1	10.4	0.5
Algeria	2,762	552	498	18.0	80.0	12.0	6.7	1.3
Peru	2,573	565	498	19.4	78.0	15.0	6.9	0.1
Cuba	2,382	531	642	27.0	77.7	13.5	8.4	0.3
Dominican Rep.	1,715	412	387	22.6	76.0	14.2	9.3	0.5
Argentina	1,654	361	506	30.6	78.2	13.2	8.1	0.5
Rumania	1,302	223	433	33.3	82.9	10.8	5.6	0.8
Pakistan	1,205	179	212	17.6	85.2	12.5	1.8	1.0
Senegal	1,071	276	175	16.3	74.2	16.2	7.0	2.6
Nigeria	1,040	199	199	19.1	80.9	13.6	5.5	0.1
Gambia	976	364	103	10.6	62.7	27.3	9.1	0.9
Brazil	945	192	316	33.4	79.7	11.6	8.2	0.5
Netherlands	902	466	105	11.6	48.3	31.8	19.7	0.1
Belgium	867	301	154	17.8	65.3	23.1	11.3	0.4
Poland	840	262	161	19.2	68.8	23.9	7.0	0.2
Venezuela	821	174	257	31.3	78.8	12.8	8.0	0.4
Bulgaria	765	127	226	29.5	83.4	11.0	5.5	0.1

Table 3.9 (cont.)

Nationality	Number			% without former employment	Recipients (%)			
	Total job-seekers	Recipients	Without former employment		Not received	Contributive	Subsidy	Agricultural subsidy
Mauritania	692	141	116	16.8	79.6	15.0	4.1	1.3
Equatorial Guinea	659	88	182	27.6	86.7	6.4	6.7	0.3
Russia	649	140	208	32.0	78.4	12.2	9.2	0.2
Ukraine	605	85	237	39.2	86.0	6.9	6.9	0.2
Chile	515	131	107	20.8	74.6	16.7	8.7	0.0
Mali	506	149	44	8.7	70.6	25.1	3.0	1.4
Rest	9,087	2,586	2,010	22.1	–	–	–	–
Total	87,420	23,655	19,202	22.0	72.9	16.2	8.7	2.2

Annotated Bibliography

In this appendix we have provided information for those interested in further study of international migrations. First, we have given a basic bibliography, divided into two parts: the first part includes works that take a broad approach to the issue; the second part is restricted to works that analyse specific aspects. For each work, we give the author's name, book title, place of publication, publisher, number of pages and a brief summary of the contents.

This is followed by a list of journals specialising in foreign immigration, for which we give the title, publishing house, place of publication and first year of issue.

Works of a general nature

ARJONA, ÁNGELES. *Immigrantes entre nosotros: trabajo, cultura y educación intercultural.* Ángeles Arjona *et al.* Francisco Checa and Encarna Soriano (editors). Barcelona: Icaria, 1999. 311p.

SUMMARY. The twelve authors who have contributed to this work on immigrants cover a wide range of topics: from what it is that we call immigration, we ourselves as a country of emigrants, how new culture is created, to the role of education in integration. The book is divided into four main sections dealing with concepts and studies, labour issues relating to immigrants, cultural aspects of immigration, and inter-cultural education; the latter is treated in greater depth.

COLECTIVO IOÉ. *Inmigrantes, trabajadores, ciudadanos: una visión de las migraciones desde España.* Valencia: Patronat Sud-Nord de la Universitat de València, 1999. 258p.

SUMMARY. The main aim of the book is to analyse the situation of foreign immigrants within the Spanish State, systematising information that has been published randomly or that is generally inaccessible. From a theoretical standpoint, it claims that an analysis of immigration in a single country is, by definition, too narrowly focussed; and that therefore comprehension of current foreign immigration to Spain requires a global contextualisation of a historical nature. The first chapter gives a synthesis of the major characteristics of the transnational migratory processes of the modern world from the sixteenth century onwards. The second chapter centres on foreign immigrants resident in Spain. The third chapter looks at the economic and labour aspects of immigration, and the fourth deals with citizenship and the relationships between minorities and majorities. This book was sponsored by the *Patronat Sud-Nord de la Universitat de València*.

COMISIÓN ESPAÑOLA DE AYUDA AL REFUGIADO (CEAR). *Libro Blanco de la Inserción Laboral de Refugiados e Inmigrantes.* Madrid: Comisión Española de Ayuda al Refugiado (CEAR), Área Sociolaboral, Empleo y Formación, 2000. 119p.

SUMMARY. This *Libro Blanco* (White Book) deals with the labour integration of immigrants and refugees in Spain. In 1997, a network of employment agencies was set up for refugees, displaced persons and immigrants, with the population of the European program INTEGRA, and this book is a résumé and critique of the work carried out. The first part offers the conclusions to be drawn from their accumulated experience, and the second part, with the assistance from employers and experts from the private sector and the Administration.

DÍEZ NICOLÁS, JUAN. *La inmigración en España: una década de investigaciones.* Juan Díez Nicolás and María José Ramírez Lafita. Madrid: Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales, Instituto de Migraciones y Servicios Sociales (IMERSO), 2001. 343p.

SUMMARY. This work is the result of the eleventh study, of those begun in 1991, of the attitudes of Spanish society towards immigrants, how their presence is evaluated in Spain, and the possible consequences of the new situations of coexistence for Spaniards. The contents of the survey is largely a replica of the previous ten, making it useful for establishing comparisons and measuring possible changes of attitude during this period.

FEDERACIÓN ESPAÑOLA DE MUNICIPIOS Y PROVINCIAS. Departamento de Estudios y Programas. *Los municipios y la integración social de los inmigrantes: análisis y propuestas de actuación.* Madrid: FEMP, 1995. 149p.

SUMMARY. A work presented by the FEMP and compiled with the support of the *Dirección General de Migraciones* of the Ministry of Social Affairs, in which the ideas of a group of municipal experts, technicians and politicians are assembled. The purpose of the analysis in this work is how to integrate the collectives of foreign immigrants who have left less-developed countries outside the EU for economic reasons.

GOYTISOLO, JUAN. *El peaje de la vida: integración o rechazo de la emigración en España.* Juan Goytisolo, Sami Naïr. Madrid: Aguilar, 2000. 226p.

SUMMARY. An essay that offers a well-documented review of the characteristics and problems that affect migratory processes in the world today, and the living conditions of emigrants in developed countries. It pays particular attention to the case of Spain, with an analysis of the new Aliens Law (2000), and a description of the terrible events of *Níjar* and *El Ejido*.

IZQUIERDO ESCRIBANO, ANTONIO. *La inmigración inesperada: la población extranjera en España (1991-1995).* Madrid: Trotta, D.L. 1996. 287p.

SUMMARY. This work presents and evaluates separate sources of statistical information and defines their contents and limitations in order to facilitate their correct interpretation. Likewise, it analyses the evolution of the different components of the migratory flow, the integration of immigrants and the regularisation of the *sans papiers*, and it studies the first steps in immigration policy and its perception within society. The latter part of the work analyses the attitudes of Spaniards towards immigration from third world countries, with emphasis on attitudes towards the flow of immigrants from the Maghreb. The empirical information covers the years 1991-1995.

MALGESINI, GRACIELA. *Guía de conceptos sobre migraciones, racismo e interculturalidad.* Graciela Malgesini and Carlos Giménez. Madrid: La Cueva del Oso, 1997. 319p.

SUMMARY. This guide seeks to provide an orientation on the basis of language, as this is a key element in the relationship with those persons who are marked out as «others». Language can either serve to consolidate a broad, tolerant, integrative outlook or, on the contrary, to construct a narrow, segregationist one. This work contains 57 entries and it is aimed at people interested in political and social issues relating to aliens.

MARTÍNEZ VEIGA, UBALDO. *La integración social de los inmigrantes extranjeros en España.* Madrid: Trotta, 1997. 299p.

SUMMARY. This work sets out to study four immigrants groups in Spain: Gambians, Dominicans, Cape Verdeans and Moroccans. A comparative analysis is made of the

different groups, of their integration into the labour market, and of the structural elements of the migratory process. It starts with an ethnographic analysis of the situation at source, considering the impact and repercussions of emigration on the social structure of the groups. It also examines one of the major problems which is the integration of immigrants into the labour market. It ends with a comparative analysis of migratory policies, based on those of France and Germany as ideal types.

PAJARES, MIGUEL. *La inmigración en España: retos y propuestas.* Barcelona: Icaria, 1998. 351p.

SUMMARY. The main subject of the book is immigration, and it looks at a series of aspects related to the racism and xenophobia that immigrants suffer. It discusses equality and difference, concepts that synthesise the principal challenges facing Spain as a result of the arrival of immigrants from outside the EU.

RUIZ OLABUÉNAGA, JOSÉ IGNACIO. *Los inmigrantes irregulares en España: la vida por un sueño.* José Ignacio Ruiz Olabuénaga, Eduardo Javier Ruiz Vieytez, Trinidad Lourdes Vicente Torrado. Bilbao: Deusto, 1999. 343p.

SUMMARY. This report forms part of the research project sponsored by the International Jesuit Organisation Refugee Service-Europa, and its point of reference is the growing number of people who have no legal authorisation to be in Spain, the «illegals». The study focuses on ascertaining how those who are forced to lead a clandestine existence deal with the social, legal and political problems that affect their daily lives.

SOLÉ, CARLOTA. *El impacto de la inmigración en la economía y en la sociedad receptora.* Carlota Solé (coordinator). Barcelona: Anthropos, 2001. 286p.

SUMMARY. The book deals with non-EU immigration in Spain. It provides quantitative data on several areas of the country. The text centres on the labour situation of non-EU immigrants and problems of discrimination in relation to job access and working conditions. Another important aspect it covers is the impact of immigration on the host society, which is analysed from the viewpoint of the influence of material conditions and institutional factors in causing reactions of rejection towards the immigrant population. These questions are analysed by means of bibliographical data, statistics and surveys, with the addition of an ethnographic study of the *Ciutat Vella* district of Barcelona.

VALLES MARTÍNEZ, MIGUEL S. *Inmigración, racismo y opinión pública en España.* Miguel S. Valles Martínez, M^a Angeles Cea d'Ancona and Antonio Izquierdo Escribano. 1997. 258p.

SUMMARY. This sociological work is the result of one of the grants awarded in 1997 for projects employing the CIS databank. With so much accumulated empirical material available, the study proposes, as its main aim, the re-analysis and synthesis of secondary information on Spanish public opinion on immigration and migratory policy. Its stated objectives are: to contrast the demographic statistics on migratory dynamics with data from opinion polls; to examine the relationship existing between migratory policy measures and public opinion based on surveys; and to analyse the role played by the communications media in the formation of public opinion on immigration and racism.

Monographic topics

CACHÓN, LORENZO. *Prevenir el racismo en el trabajo en España.* Lorenzo Cachón, with the collaboration of Rocío Moldes; prologue by Antonio Gutiérrez. Madrid: Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales. Instituto de Migraciones y Servicios Sociales, 1999. 291p.

SUMMARY. This work has been published within the guidelines of the *Observatorio Permanente de la Inmigración*, whose aim is to serve a useful purpose in the fight against racism in the workplace. It includes reports on Spain drawn up by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, which published a *Compendium of good practice for the prevention of racism at work* in 1997. It is divided into two parts: the first part analyses the situation of immigrants in the labour market in Spain, national policies on immigration, different employer practices as regards the foreign workforce, and union policies on immigration. The second part examines the evolution of the struggle against discrimination in the workplace, from the Declaration of Florence in 1995 to the study of good practice in Spain.

CARRASCO CARPIO, CONCEPCIÓN. *Mercados de trabajo: los inmigrantes económicos.* Madrid: Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales, Secretaría General de Asuntos Sociales, Instituto de Migraciones y Servicios Sociales (IMSERSO), 1999. 209p.

SUMMARY. This book is the result of a doctoral thesis that the writer directed between 1996 and 1998. The work integrates sociological and economic perspectives, attempting to throw some light and understanding on the complex social nature of the labour markets of economic immigrants from emerging and developing countries, whose numbers in Spain are growing. The research scrutinises the dominant theories on the phenomenon of economic migrations that are then juxtaposed in the light of Spanish experience. The book is published under the auspices of the *Observatorio Permanente de la Inmigración* (OPI).

COLECTIVO IOÉ. *¡No quieren ser menos!: exploración sobre la discriminación de los inmigrantes en España.* Madrid: Comisión Ejecutiva Confederal de la UGT, 2001.

SUMMARY. This study, commissioned by UGT within the framework of a Transnational Project, sets out to explore the racism and economic exploitation to which immigrants are subject in Spain. In order to do so, it traces the presence of foreign workers in the labour markets, taking into account the diversity of job sectors, geographical areas and nationalities. It then goes on to examine the problem of immigrant and native workers in two specific sectors: construction, and hotel and catering. Lastly it has carried out an analysis based on qualitative opinion polls (discussion groups) to discover the opinions, attitudes and expectations of labour agents (employers and wage-earners), as well as immigrants themselves.

COLECTIVO IOÉ. *Mujer, migración y trabajo. Colectivo Ioé; with the collaboration of Laura Agustín.* Madrid: Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales, Instituto de Migraciones y Servicios Sociales (IMSERSO), 2001.

SUMMARY. Research commissioned by the IMSERSO and carried out by the Colectivo Ioé throughout 1999 and 2000, with the aim of studying the incorporation of non-EU foreign women into the Spanish labour market. The study starts out from a theoretical framework that analyses the labour market as a whole and goes on to give an overall view of foreign women workers in Spain. Although it focuses on the domestic sector, it also examines women's incorporation into the sectors of industrial cleaning, hotel and catering, and office work, without forgetting those who work in the sex industry.

CHECA, FRANCISCO. *Africanos en la otra orilla: trabajo, cultura e integración en la España mediterránea.* Francisco Checa (editor). Barcelona: Icaria, 1998. 319p.

SUMMARY. A compilation of the various contributions to the «*I Jornadas sobre invernaderos e inmigrantes: marginación y educación intercultural*» («I Encounters on greenhouses and immigrants: marginalisation and intercultural education»), organised by the *Laboratorio de Antropología Social y Cultural* of the University of Almeria. It includes articles on African immigrants that relate to subjects such as work, culture, health, social integration, and the specific case of Almeria.

GREGORIO GIL, CARMEN. *Migración femenina: su impacto en las relaciones de género.* Madrid: Narcea, 1998. 285p.

SUMMARY. This book brings together the study of international migrations and the study of systems creating gender inequalities. This approach to the study of migrations has been undertaken from a feminist anthropological perspective, and has led the writer to study the causative factors of emigration that affect men and women in different ways, the forms of social organisation deriving from emigration, and the impact of emigration on gender relations. This publication is a summary of the thesis

by the same writer entitled «*Sistemas de género y migración internacional: la emigración dominicana a la Comunidad de Madrid*», 1996.

GRUPO ELEUTERIO QUINTANILLA. *Extranjeros en la escuela: propuestas de acción intercultural*. Gijón: Centro de Profesores: Consejería de Educación y Cultura del Principado de Asturias, 2001. 86p.

SUMMARY. The *Grupo Eleuterio Quintanilla* presents some proposals for action based on educational attention to the foreign pupil. These proposals were studied by a group of professionals attending the PASE Program training course of the *Consejería de Educación del Principado de Asturias*. The published material summarises the research, recommendations and programs.

JULIANO, DOLORES. *Educación intercultural: escuelas y minorías étnicas*. Madrid: Eudema, 1993. 96p.

SUMMARY. This book contains reformulated and updated studies of multiculturalism carried out in Catalonia over the last few years. The first part consists of a review of prevailing pedagogical proposals and the difficulties that are experienced in adapting them to a multicultural reality. It concentrates on drawing up theoretical models that can endorse difference. The empirical research centres on emigration from Latin America.

LACOMBA VÁZQUEZ, JOAN. *El Islam inmigrado*. Madrid: Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deportes, 2001.

SUMMARY. The population under study is part of the latest wave of Muslim men and women to settle in the European space as a result of recent migratory processes. The text has been divided into three parts or thematic sections: the first section comprises the theoretical and methodological framework of the research as a whole. The second deals with analysis of the main results of the research in various spheres. The third sets out two particular case studies that have merited specific treatment: the case of the imams and of Senegalese 'murid' immigrants.

LUCAS, JAVIER DE. *El desafío de las fronteras: derechos humanos y xenofobia frente a una sociedad plural*. Madrid: Temas de Hoy, 1994. 261p.

SUMMARY. A work that analyses the situation of human rights and their inadequacy when characterised as a regulative idea. Javier de Lucas examines the reasons for this inadequacy: the challenge of borders, the institutionalisation of xenophobia and discrimination against minorities, the approximation of national constitutions to internationally recognised rights, and the role of the State as upholder of the law.

OSO, LAURA. *La migración hacia España de mujeres jefas de hogar*. Madrid: Instituto de la Mujer, 1998. 438p.

SUMMARY. The first part of the book covers the design of the research and presents the international scientific production on immigrant woman. It concludes by defining the area of study: the migration towards Spain of women who are heads of household. The tools employed have been discussion groups, secondary sources and in-depth interviews. The second part defines the participation of the host society in the dynamics of migration. In her conclusions, the writer formulates the strategies employed by different social actors and their effects on the social position and situation of foreign female workers.

PÉREZ-DÍAZ, VÍCTOR. *España ante la inmigración.* Víctor Pérez-Díaz, Berta Álvarez-Miranda, Carmen González-Enríquez. Barcelona: Fundación "la Caixa", 2001. 238p.

SUMMARY. This study sponsored by Fundación "la Caixa" sets out to reflect the debate generated in Spanish society by the heavy growth in immigration. First it outlines the philosophies and social practices of countries with greater experience of immigration. It continues with an analysis of the debate on immigration within the Spanish political class, with the intervention of social organisations, that has led to the introduction of two immigration laws. The central part of the book focuses on the debate within society, in which, having analysed the view of immigration «from afar», on the basis of various surveys that have been carried out, it compares this with a view «from close-up», achieved by means of group interviews organised in suburbs of the major Spanish cities with a high immigrant population. In the epilogue, the authors maintain that civic debate on immigration is difficult but viable.

RAMÍREZ FERNÁNDEZ, ÁNGELES. *Migraciones, género e Islam: mujeres marroquíes en España.* Madrid: Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional, 1998. 380p.

SUMMARY. This is a work written from the perspective of social anthropology and based on the doctoral thesis of the writer (1997). It studies the relationships between emigration and the system of gender relations, focussing, for this purpose, on the emigration of Moroccan women to Spain. The techniques employed in the research were both quantitative (the gathering and recording of statistical data was the result of team work by the TEIM, except for the construction of the database MUJERES) and qualitative (participative observation, interviews, case studies and life histories). The fieldwork for this research was based on participative observation carried out between 1990 and 1995 in Morocco (mainly in Tangiers, Rabat and Salé) and Spain.

RIBAS MATEOS, NATALIA. *Las presencias de la inmigración femenina: un recorrido por Filipinas, Gambia y Marruecos en Cataluña.* Barcelona: Icaria, 1999. 463p.

SUMMARY. Research into the trajectory of new female immigration in Spain, by means of the study of the Filipino, Gambian and Moroccan immigrant collectives in Catalonia. The methodology employed for gathering the data for this research was both quantitative (surveys, statistics) and qualitative (in-depth interviews and

participative observation). The fieldwork was carried out in Catalonia (between October and December, 1991) and in the countries of origin (the Philippines in 1992, Morocco in 1993 and Gambia in 1994). It was published on the basis of the writer's doctoral thesis.

RUIZ LÓPEZ, BLANCA. *Las políticas de inmigración: la legitimación de la exclusión.* Blanca Ruiz López and Eduardo J. Ruiz Vieitez. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto, 2001. 74p.

SUMMARY. This work asks us to give some moments' thought to the fundamental implications of what immigration and aliens mean to the State and to Europe. The central thesis of the analysis is that acceptance of human rights is the key element of social and political coexistence in the contemporary world. It proposes a final model that links the phenomenon of immigration from «Southern» countries with respect for human rights. The work is divided into three parts: the first part examines the question from a politico-philosophical approach to the concept of foreign; the key to the analysis in the second part is juridical; and the third part includes a critique of the social policies that have been adopted in our society as a result of the presence of foreign immigrants.

SIGUAN, MIGUEL. *La escuela y los inmigrantes.* Miguel Siguan; with the collaboration of Celia Ruiz *et al.* Barcelona: Paidós, 1998. 157p.

SUMMARY. This book takes a look at multicultural education from observation of what is actually happening in schools. It sets out the results of the research which was carried out in several schools in Madrid and Catalonia where there are large numbers of immigrant children of different origins. On the basis of these data, it discusses the problems that came to light and possible lines of action. The research was carried out under the auspices of the *Instituto Ortega y Gasset*.

VARIOUS AUTHORS. *La inmigración extranjera en España: los retos educativos.* Eliseo Aja *et al.* Barcelona: Fundación "la Caixa", 1999. 213p.

SUMMARY. This study, sponsored by Fundación la Caixa, gives a global vision of immigration in this country, together with an examination of the education issue. It considers education to be decisive when it comes to facilitating or hindering the integration of second generation immigrants. Each chapter, written by experts, is preceded by a brief synthesis of the contents. The first chapter offers in-depth analysis of the numerical importance of the phenomenon; the second one deals with the legal regularisation of immigrants; the third analyses the challenge of interculturality; the fourth covers the specific problems of adolescence in educational terms; in the fifth, the author examines language-learning; and the sixth and final chapter describes the perception that Spaniards have of the foreigner.

Specialised journals

MIGRACIONES. Instituto Universitario de Estudios sobre Migraciones. Madrid: Universidad Pontificia de Comillas (1996).

This journal, which appears thanks to the support and initiative of the *Universidad de Comillas*, is striving to become a point of encounter for the different institutions and researchers who address the problems of emigrants and the societies that receive them. It is an interdisciplinary journal divided up into five main sections (studies, legal information, experiences, bibliography, and notices and meetings). Biannual.

MUGAK. Centro de Estudios y Documentación sobre el racismo y la xenofobia, SOS Arrazakeria. Donostia (1997).

The *Centro de Estudios y Documentación sobre el Racismo y la Xenofobia* deals with three areas: promoting reasoned thought, supporting activities in the field of non-institutional solidarity, and issues relating to the European Union. Four monthly.

OFRIM SUPLEMENTOS. Oficina Regional para la Inmigración de la Comunidad de Madrid. Madrid: Ofrim (1997).

This is an initiative of the *Oficina Regional para la Inmigración de la Comunidad de Madrid*, with information on the present state of immigration in Madrid. However, it does not consider this Autonomous Community in isolation but located within its natural frames of reference: Spain and the European Union. Biannual.

QUADERNS DE LA MEDITERRÀNIA = CUADERNOS DEL MEDITERRÁNEO. Institut Català de la Mediterrània d'Estudis i Cooperació. Barcelona: Icaria (2000).

Cuadernos del Mediterráneo is the result of a readiness to have an effect on Spanish society and provide some conceptual keys to its Mediterranean reality and potential. In order to do so, it promotes intercultural themes that travel transversally across Mediterranean plurality. It is published by the *Institut Català de la Mediterrània d'Estudis i Cooperació*.

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