

Immigrants in Spain: sociolinguistic issues

M. TERESA HERNÁNDEZ-GARCÍA and FÉLIX VILLALBA-MARTÍNEZ

Abstract

A general vision of immigration in Spain will be presented in the following pages, with an emphasis on the sociolinguistic aspects of the teaching/learning of Spanish as an L2. The changes that Spain has undergone over the last quarter century have been so intense that they have had an impact on the traditional migratory tendency of the country, causing it to pass from the producer of migrants to the receiver of immigrants. Figures support this statement: the fact, for instance, that a million and a half Spanish immigrants were still living abroad in 1995, while the number of foreigners residing in Spain at present has reached more than three million. In spite of the fact that Spain is still far behind neighboring countries in terms of the numbers of immigrants living there, immigration has contributed to the demographic rise and economic development of the nation. At the same time, however, it has also caused a series of social demands that have not always been met adequately; for example, the schooling of child and teenage immigrants, access to the labor market for immigrant workers, access to the health system, housing, etc. Also, for a high percentage of the immigrant population, the learning of the Spanish language becomes one of their primary necessities upon arrival. This need, in the case of children and teenagers, is being met by the educational institutions, though with differing results. A lack of an official Spanish as an L2 curriculum that combines general communicative as well as academic competence causes the Spanish-language teaching programs to become less efficient.

1. General panorama of immigration in Spain: linguistic origins and demographic questions

In spite of the perception that Spanish citizens may have regarding the number of immigrants residing in this country, in actuality they hardly

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1 reach 7% of the total population.¹ This percentage is still below the fig-
2 ures of other EU countries such as France, Germany, Belgium, and Neth-
3 erlands (above 10%), although we must recognize that it has increased
4 significantly over the last seven years. Just in the year 2002, the foreign
5 population reached 700,000 people, which is 35.1% more than in the pre-
6 vious year.² Certainly, immigration constitutes a principal source of the
7 demographic rise in this country.

8 Upon close analysis of the immigrant population in Spain, the follow-
9 ing features can be observed:

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11

12 1.1. *Strong concentration patterns*

13

14 The immigrant populations are not distributed equally throughout the
15 whole territory but tend to be concentrated in different autonomous re-
16 gions and cities. Madrid is the region with the highest number of for-
17 eigners (22.05% of the total), followed by Catalonia (20.38%), Valencia
18 (15.53%), and Andalusia (10.7%). Regions with smaller foreign popula-
19 tions are Asturias, Extremadura, and Galicia.

20 Foreigners from the EU countries tend to settle mostly in the regions of
21 Valencia and Andalusia, while immigrants from Africa and Asia prefer
22 Catalonia and immigrants from Latin American and from the non-EU
23 countries are concentrated in Madrid.

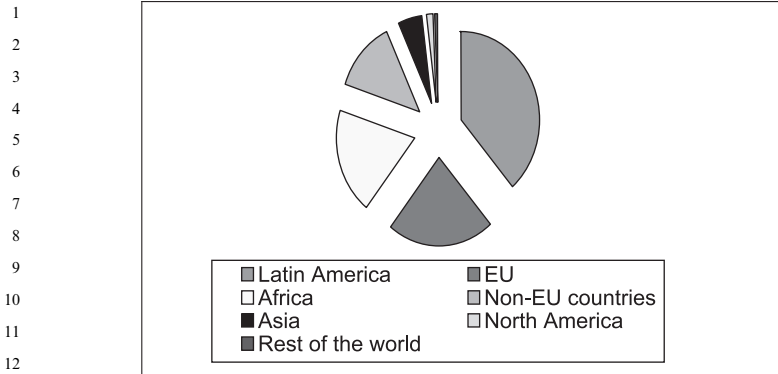
24 At the same time, these settlement tendencies can also be seen through-
25 out the towns and villages close to the big metropolis. This fact causes a
26 sense of “invasion” among the inhabitants of these areas. This sensation
27 is opposite, though, to the feeling in other places, such as the Mediterra-
28 nean Coast, where the foreigners are mostly retired Europeans and their
29 presence is perceived with a certain pride.

30 Here, two simple observations can be made that will help to better un-
31 derstand this phenomenon:

32

33 – Not all immigrants are equal. The foreigners that are not associated
34 with the stereotype of immigration for economic reasons tend to be
35 socially valued. Nevertheless, within the group of *economic immi-*
36 *grants*, those who come from Eastern Europe are valued more than
37 those from the rest of the countries.

38 – Not all immigrants are regarded as so “foreign” as one might think.
39 As a matter of fact, around 21.98% of those who live in Spain come
40 from the EU countries (587,334 people). By nationality, the British
41 make up the largest group, followed by the Germans, French, Ital-
42 ians, and Portuguese.



13
14 Figure 1. Resident foreigners in Spain by place of origin

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16
17 1.2. Diversity of origin

18
19 One of the characteristics of this immigrant social group that must be
20 pointed out here is its diversity of origin (see Figure 1). For example,
21 38.61% of immigrants come from Latin America, 21.98% come from the
22 European Union, 19.56% from Africa, 13.05% from non-EU countries,
23 4.83% from Asia, 1.55% from North America, and 0.44% from the rest
24 of the world.

25 Ecuadorians make up the largest community of foreigners (14.6% of
26 resident immigrants), followed by Moroccans (14.17%), Colombians,
27 and the British.

28 In the year 2002, the immigrant groups that grew the most were the
29 Romanians with 104%, the Argentineans with 55.16%, the Bulgarians
30 with 77.57%, and the Chinese with 36%.

31 This diversity of origin subsequently leads to a diversity of languages,
32 cultures, and religions. As less than half of the immigrants have Spanish
33 as their mother tongue, learning the language is of prime importance to
34 the majority of the immigrant population.

35 The great heterogeneity of mother tongues spoken in Spain is worth
36 pointing out. There are languages from North Africa, as well as standard
37 Arabic, Koran “fusha,” and a popular dialect (Dariya in the cities and
38 other languages such as Tamazigt, depending on the region), languages
39 from sub-Saharan Africa (such as Wolof, Mandingo, Fulani, Yoruba,
40 Mende, Ibo etc.), Slavic languages (such as Polish, Ukrainian, Russian,
41 Bulgarian), Romance languages such as Romanian, and Oriental lan-
42 guages such as Chinese Mandarin, Hindu, and Urdo.

1 1.3. *Labor concentration patterns*

2

3 In regard to foreign workers, those with social security as of 31 May
4 2005 reached a number of 1,364,003. This figure makes up 7.66% of
5 the total affiliated members and shows a clear tendency to rise. By eco-
6 nomic sectors, the service sector contributes a major part as far as work
7 permits, followed by agriculture, construction, and, in a small percentage,
8 industry.

9 In the construction sector, the foreign workers come mostly from
10 North Africa and non-EU countries (Ukrainians, Romanians), and in ag-
11 riculture (Catalonia, Murcia, Valencia, Almería) they tend to come from
12 Maghreb and sub-Saharan.

13 In case of the service sector, there is a clear polarization. On the one
14 hand, there are occupations of high status (financial sector, public admin-
15 istration, teaching, etc.) where the Europeans and the Japanese prevail
16 and, on the other hand, there are low qualification jobs, such as domestic
17 service, traveling sales, and hotel jobs that are mostly performed by Latin
18 Americans, Africans, and Asians.

19

20

21 1.4. *Young and trained population*

22

23 According to the available data, the majority of immigrants currently
24 living in Spain are men (55.2%), they are young (between 25 and 44
25 years old), alone or single (mostly immigrants from Maghreb and sub-
26 Saharan Africa) — Carbonell (1995) demonstrates that the old and the
27 sick do not migrate — and the strongest and best-prepared of their
28 communities.

29 Female immigration is also increasing, in some cases overtaking male
30 immigration, especially among Peruvians and all Latin Americans.³

31 In the case of married immigrants, typically the respective families stay
32 in the countries of origin, although the number of foreign students at
33 Spanish schools indicates that some immigrants are bringing their fami-
34 lies over.

35 In terms of the educational profile of the immigrant populations, their
36 level of studies is usually superior to that of the Spanish population.⁴
37 Around 29% of the immigrants have a high level of studies (college, uni-
38 versity), compared to 22% of Spaniards. As far as primary and secondary
39 education, they also demonstrate higher levels. Nevertheless, this does not
40 mean that once in Spain they find work according to their qualifications.
41 To the contrary, as it has been shown previously, they work in domestic
42 service, agriculture, and construction.

1 The immigration patterns in Spain have also changed over time, espe-
2 cially with regards to the future plans of the immigrants. In the 1980s for
3 instance, many groups of immigrants (most of them from Eastern Eu-
4 rope, Iraq) perceived Spain as an intermediate point in their journey, the
5 final destination of which was the United States. Nowadays, this percep-
6 tion of Spain as a *bridge* has disappeared and about 50% of the immi-
7 grants tend to settle here for good (there are different indicators of this
8 phenomenon such as: increase of family reunions, mixed marriages, chil-
9 dren of immigrants born in Spain, those who gain Spanish nationality,
10 and the percentage of foreign students throughout the school system).

11

12

13 **2. Schooling for immigrants**

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15 In summary, the immigrant population is young and in their working
16 prime, with an ever greater presence of children and teenagers due to the
17 reuniting of families.

18 Different educational institutions assist immigrants of school age with
19 general and specific measures that include teachers, the creation of special
20 classes, school materials, and economic assistance.

21 In our opinion, the problems that arise here are not caused by a lack of
22 means, but rather by a lack of defined objectives. This situation, however,
23 is common in countries with similar migratory issues.

24 In a large part, everything is related to the terms *immigration* or *immi-*
25 *grant* and the social stereotypes assigned to them: marginalization, pov-
26 erty, backwardness. This way, the immigrants are usually defined in neg-
27 ative terms, by their deficiencies: the immigrant does not know, does not
28 have, and cannot. As a consequence, the task of the educational centers
29 would be to compensate for such deficiencies in order to facilitate the so-
30 cial integration of the students.

31 This perception of the students makes it difficult to recognize their ca-
32 pabilities and possibilities, and, consequently, difficult to make adjust-
33 ments to the school curricula.⁵

34

35

36 **2.1. The data**

37

38 In the school year 1999/2000, the percentage of immigrant students en-
39 rolled at different levels of obligatory education (up to 16 years) hardly
40 made up 1.4% of the total number. Since then, the figure has increased
41 every year, reaching 500,000 students in the current school year (2004/
42 05), or 7.15% of all students.

1 In terms of the origin of the students, the same situation occurs as with
2 the greater immigrant population, though with some changes. First of all,
3 half of the students come from South and Central America (50.5%), fol-
4 lowed by Europeans (25%), Africans (18.9%), and Asians (4.4%). As a
5 matter of fact, the number of students coming from South America has
6 increased significantly in the last five years (from 20,512 in the 1999/
7 2000 school year to 185,861 in 2003/04). At the same time, there has
8 also been a significant increase in students from the East (especially Ro-
9 mania) and China.⁶

10 In regard to the geographical distribution of immigrant students, once
11 again the same concentration patterns can be observed as shown before in
12 the case of the adults. Madrid, Catalonia, Valencia, and Andalusia are, in
13 this order, the regions with the highest concentration of foreign students.
14 Nevertheless, if we take into account the percentage of these students
15 in comparison with Spanish students, the figures change significantly.
16 Madrid is still the region with the largest number of foreign students
17 (10.2%), but it is followed by the Balearic Islands (10.1%), La Rioja
18 (8.1%), Navarra (7.9%), and Murcia (7.6%), where the percentage of in-
19 crease is superior to the national average, indicating the extension and
20 importance of this phenomenon.

21 In addition, and in the same way as with the immigrant population as a
22 whole, the presence of immigrant children and teenagers in the educa-
23 tional system hardly makes up 5.7% of the total number of students. Nev-
24 ertheless, according to the CCOO data (“Final report on the schooling of
25 the children of immigrants in Spain”), the enrollment of foreign students
26 in educational centers is constantly rising.

27 Having said this, the real issue in the schooling of immigrants is their
28 educational failure, or, in other words, the lack of continuity of studies
29 at the post-obligatory levels. In Spain, however, the debate over schooling
30 of immigrants has been concentrated on its equal, or unequal as the case
31 may be, distribution among the different educational centers. Public cen-
32 ters provide schooling for 80% of child and teenage immigrants, espe-
33 cially those coming from Africa and South America. In comparison, pri-
34 vate centers subsidized through public funding barely provide schooling
35 for 19% of immigrant children. Critics of this situation emphasize the ap-
36 plication of different criteria as far as the management of resources and,
37 most of all, the deteriorating influence of unequal distribution on the pub-
38 lic school system — as concentrations of immigrant students in the public
39 schools grows, so too does abandonment of public schools by native stu-
40 dents. In many areas of the big cities, as well as on their outskirts, a new
41 type of school called *guetos* has developed, where the majority of the stu-
42 dents are immigrants.

1 2.2. *Education Act*

2

3 It is a well-known fact that legislation is necessary for the development of
4 educational training. According to our reading of it, the legislative frame-
5 work that exists in Spain related to immigrant students, conceived in 1996
6 and developed in 1999,⁷ characterizes immigrants by their deficiencies
7 and their respective circumstances. It is not surprising then, that in the
8 initial text immigrant students and the students with special educational
9 needs, who were included in the educational compensatory programs,
10 were easily confused.

11 Along the same lines, the legislation defines the teachers for the re-
12 source classes as *compensatory* teachers, whose task is, depending on the
13 type of students, to help with basic instrumental learning as well as to
14 teach the L2. This group of teachers would stay in the educational center
15 as full-time staff or work as itinerant teachers, depending on the number
16 of students with special needs.

17 In practice, this situation implies that students of different types are put
18 in the same compensatory class: foreign students with no knowledge of
19 Spanish together with other students, Spanish or not, who are two courses
20 below their classmates, or those who belong to an ethnic minority or to a
21 low status social group, as happens with the Latin American and Gypsy
22 communities.

23 The same legislation establishes that all primary school students should
24 be put in the corresponding ordinary groups, though in the case of special
25 activities related to the acquisition of the *vehicle language*, or Spanish, a
26 class could be provided apart from the resource activities to provide edu-
27 cational assistance for a small group of students (up to eight) and for up
28 to a maximum of eight hours a week. This help, however, should never
29 coincide with the participation of these students in other classes such as
30 physical education, arts and crafts, music, and technology.

31 At the obligatory secondary education level, on certain occasions it
32 would be permissible to establish specific groups designated as *educa-*
33 *tional compensatory programs* for a maximum of 15 students who are
34 more than two courses behind in all subjects.

35 Centers with a high number of foreign students that develop a *perma-*
36 *nent educational compensatory program* could be provided with help in
37 the form of more human resources (compensatory teachers: one teacher
38 per 25 students with special educational needs) and economic assistance,
39 necessary to develop such plans, as well as lowering by 20% the number
40 of students per class as established by the administration.

41 At centers where the number of immigrants does not permit this type of
42 activity, the team of “Educational Orientation and Psychopedagogy,” in

1 the case of primary schools, and the “Department of Orientation,”⁸ in
2 that of secondary schools, would be entrusted with this task and could
3 appoint a compensatory itinerant teacher to be shared among various
4 centers.

5 The legislation also discusses the obligation to prepare an *Annual Plan*
6 *for the Educational Compensatory Program* designed by the compensatory
7 program teachers together with the teams of Educational Orientation and
8 Psychopedagogy and the Department of Orientation, in which they would
9 put together, in addition to other programs, assistance activities oriented
10 toward the acquisition of communicative competence in the *vehicle lan-*
11 *guage* (Spanish). They would also prepare a final report that would eval-
12 uate the plan and assess whether it has been carried out or not.

13 The class assignment of the recently arrived students, those with no
14 knowledge of Spanish, is decided, in the majority of the cases, by their
15 age, although in some centers the practice is to put these students one or
16 two grades below where they would normally fall.

17 Different types of teachers are responsible for these programs: *maestros*
18 (kindergarten, primary school teachers), and teachers with M.A. degrees
19 in philology or psychology but with no specific training in the area of
20 teaching Spanish as a second or foreign language.⁹ Another inconsistency
21 is that there is no standard curriculum that should be followed or any def-
22 inition of the teachers’ tasks since there is no official curriculum of Span-
23 ish for the school context.

24 Using this legislation as a framework, regional governments with com-
25 petence in the area of education, all of them except Ceuta and Melilla,
26 have drafted their own legislation for the education of immigrant chil-
27 dren. In this way, together with the compensatory classes, many regions
28 have been able to provide the recently arrived children with special
29 courses of varying lengths (a quarter, a term, and even the whole course)
30 aimed at teaching them what the authorities call the *vehicle language*.
31 These classes are referred to in different ways depending on the auton-
32 omous region: *liaison classes* (Madrid), *classes for linguistic adaptation*
33 (ATAL, Andalusia), *classes for linguistic immersion*, *bridge classes*, etc.
34 Regardless of the name, these classes are all designed for a limited num-
35 ber of students between the ages of 12 and 15. The length of the classes
36 varies in each autonomous region; in some regions, the students dedicate
37 the entire school day to them, in others they share some activities with the
38 rest of the children, such as arts, language, or physical education. Stu-
39 dents have the possibility of switching over to a resource class, where
40 they would receive a different type of assistance (compensatory). This
41 “promotion” can only be decided by the teachers since there are no
42 exams or tests to assess the student’s level.

1 Murcia's course model is worthy of mention; in 2003/04, "refuge
2 classes" were created at three different levels for students of differing edu-
3 cational and linguistic competence.

4 Besides this model, some regions have seen the creation of a service of
5 *itinerants* who support a variety of educational centers where, due to the
6 small number of foreign students, there is no infrastructure for other
7 types of assistance (compensatory classes). These services of itinerant
8 teachers go by different names in each region: SAI (Itinerant Assistance
9 Service for the Immigrant Students) in Madrid and EALI (Teams for
10 the Linguistic Assistance for the Immigrant Students and Refugees) in
11 the Castile-La Mancha region. The staff that makes up these teams
12 teaches the Spanish language to recently arrived students over a limited
13 period of time (two to three months) and one of their duties is to inform
14 the student's tutors of the activities that they will be covering in their re-
15 source classes. Though they are also required to do some student advis-
16 ing, none of these teachers has undergone any special training in the
17 methodology of teaching Spanish as an L2.

18 In addition to these programs, in some autonomous regions other ser-
19 vices have been provided for immigrants: the Translation and Interpretation
20 Service in Madrid, the CADI (Center for Animation and Intercultural
21 Documentation) in Murcia, or CAREI (Aragon Resource Center
22 for the Intercultural Education) in Aragon.

23

24

25 2.3. *Adult education*

26

27 Compared to the systematic activities oriented toward the educational as-
28 sistance of children and teenagers, in the case of adult students there is a
29 significant breakdown in coordination. Lack of official directives concern-
30 ing the educational training of this group has caused a proliferation of
31 different initiatives as much within the labor environment as within the
32 teaching of Spanish and literacy.

33 The teaching of Spanish is provided by various institutions. Dif-
34 ferent regional governments organize courses of Spanish language and
35 literacy for the immigrants in adult education centers (EPA or CEA),
36 which are dependent on the Councils of Education or the social ser-
37 vices. Town governments also organize these types of courses through
38 the basic training programs provided at civic centers and cultural
39 centers.

40 Others institutions that provide training for immigrants are the trade
41 unions, centers for occupational training that belong to the Ministry of
42 Labor and Social Programs, nongovernmental organizations (Red Cross,

1 Red Refuge, ASTI, Caritas), associations of neighbors, and centers affili-
2 ated with religious and cultural entities.

3 Most of these courses oriented toward adult students provide only an
4 introductory level of Spanish language. In some cases and on a smaller
5 scale, vocational training courses for specific purposes are offered (Span-
6 ish cuisine, driver's education, etc.).

7

8

9 **3. Language and social integration**

10

11 As previously mentioned, the immigration phenomenon is an issue that
12 awakens a wave of preoccupations in Spanish society, manifested in the
13 variety of institutional measures that are being introduced to facilitate
14 the social, labor, and educational integration of immigrant groups.

15 We will concentrate specifically on those measures that are adopted in
16 the area of education, paying special attention to their application in the
17 field of teaching/learning of an L2.

18 First of all, and as mentioned before, all educational institutions have
19 developed specific plans for the schooling of child and teenage immi-
20 grants. Almost all of them have a dual purpose: on the one hand, the
21 need to learn the language and, on the other, the adoption of strategies
22 for intercultural integration.

23 In terms of the former need, there can hardly be defined levels of lan-
24 guage learning since there is no legislative framework in place to create a
25 systematic approach for the content of Spanish as L2. The only region
26 that has developed official directives in the field of teaching Spanish as
27 L2 is the Canary Islands, in which three levels of language competence
28 have been defined. Navarra and Murcia have also published specific in-
29 formation for teachers on both types of programs, drawing on the results
30 of advanced studies that have been carried out in this area. This situation,
31 however, only refers to the acquisition of general competence in the lan-
32 guage, but if we take into account the learning of the language on an aca-
33 demic level, the situation gets much worse.

34 It is difficult to admit that educational failure is not only caused by a
35 limited competence in the L2, but also by the fact that the same compe-
36 tence, though well developed, is only of a general character when it
37 comes to everyday life situations. The distinction proposed by Cummins
38 (1984) between general communicative competence and that of an aca-
39 demic nature is being ignored, resulting in an overvaluing of the impor-
40 tance of linguistic immersion during the language-learning process and
41 a neglecting of the communicative requirements necessary in a school
42 context.¹⁰

1 Among all the autonomous regions, only Murcia draws on the initial
2 studies of teaching the Spanish language that were used to create the leg-
3 islation and in which a clear distinction is made between the types of
4 competence and the development of a specific curriculum for academic
5 objectives is proposed.¹¹

6 This dimension of Spanish language teaching still needs to be devel-
7 oped. It is possible that when this happens, the tendency of school failure
8 among immigrant students, whose presence at the nonobligatory levels is
9 notably low (2.4% in high school and 2.5% in technical courses),¹² will
10 change. Of immigrant students between the ages of 16 and 18, only 32%
11 attend school, compared with 83% of Spanish students in the same age
12 group. This, together with the fact that about 30% of the immigrant stu-
13 dents do not achieve the basic level of the ESO (Secondary Obligatory
14 Education), makes them a social group that starts their adult life already
15 at a disadvantage.

16 Therefore, we think that it is necessary to change the educational policy
17 that governs the teaching of immigrant students. As in the case of Spanish
18 youth, it is necessary to talk about education as a project for the future in
19 which society invests in the training of its citizens. According to Chamot
20 (2000: 189),

21
22 High levels of literacy are essential for meeting the nation's needs for productive
23 citizens and workers in the new century, yet many immigrant youth are unable to
24 complete high school because they lack the academic language and literacy skills
25 needed for successful school achievement.

26
27 In order to progress in this new direction, it is necessary, however, to
28 abandon restrictive visions of the immigrant students based on the sup-
29 posed cultural differences. This is where the other branch of immigrant
30 education — the need for cultural integration — comes into play, as dem-
31 onstrated in the programs, services, acts, publications, etc., related to the
32 training of immigrants.

33 The native culture, culture shock,¹³ and the existence of intercultural
34 proposals appear continuously as decisive factors when working with
35 children and teenagers. On some occasions and depending on the country
36 of origin, the treatment of cultures can be discriminatory, most of all
37 when applied in a selective way. This is most likely to happen in the case
38 of students from Africa and from Islamic cultures than with students
39 from other European countries.

40 Here, we would like to clarify two things. Firstly, we think that in this
41 day and age it is important to discuss cultural components and, secondly
42 and subsequently, address the topic of culture shock. One of the greatest

1 observations on immigration and the school system has been made by the
2 Spaniard Miguel Siguán (2000: 20; translation ours):

3

4 Thirty years ago the principal object of criticism concerning the educational sys-
5 tem was its incapacity to compensate the social differences among the students . . .
6 today, it is accused of being incapable of assuming cultural differences. There is
7 no need of great reflections in order to realize that it is not the substitution but
8 the aggravation of the same problem.

9

10 This does not mean that the recognition of language and culture in the
11 school environment does not play an important role in the learning pro-
12 cess of the L2 and, as a consequence, in the social integration of the stu-
13 dents (Cummins 1985). In some parts of Spain, there are ELCO programs
14 that follow the directives of the European Community, whose objective
15 is the teaching of the language and the native culture of the immigrant
16 students.

17 At present, Spain has agreements with Portugal (Portuguese Language
18 and Culture Program) and Morocco (Program on Arab Language and
19 Moroccan Culture): the first of these is being developed in the mining re-
20 gion of León, and the second, in Madrid, Barcelona, Las Palmas, Algeci-
21 ras, etc. Both Morocco and Portugal provide teachers and guidelines for
22 the teaching of their respective languages.¹⁴

23 Nevertheless, and as usual, some adjustments need to be made. In some
24 cases, the students have to learn three languages: Spanish, the language
25 of the autonomous region in which they reside, and the foreign language
26 included in the school curriculum. In other cases, as many as four lan-
27 guages are required when the language of the ELCO program does not
28 coincide with the mother tongue.

29 In summary, according to the figures presented here, it is impossible to
30 ignore the fact that more than half of the resident immigrants in Spain
31 come from countries whose LM (mother tongue) is not Spanish, and, as
32 a consequence, learning of this language becomes one of their primary ne-
33 cessities. In our opinion, it is necessary to talk about Spanish as an L2 in
34 order to show the importance of the context for learning and use of this
35 language. The context depends on the age group and the activities per-
36 formed by the students. For children and teenagers, the context would
37 be the school where they spend most of the day; for adults, on the other
38 hand, the context would be the work (paid or not paid) in which they are
39 obliged to participate. One of the most important steps in the develop-
40 ment of Spanish as an L2 has been the, so-called, Santander Manifest on
41 the teaching of second languages to immigrants.¹⁵ Also, the Cervantes
42 Virtual Center is promoting the teaching of Spanish for this community.

1 In conclusion, we think that language teaching in the immigrant con-
2 text constitutes a strong instrument for social transformation. The aim is
3 to provide the immigrant population with language as a tool to allow
4 them to take an active part in their respective environments and to help
5 them overcome the difficulties inherent in their situations.

6
7 *E. A. "Agustina de Aragón" Móstoles, Madrid*
8
9

10 Notes

- 11
- 12 1. According to the National Statistics Office, the Spanish population was, as of 1 Janu-
13 ary 2004, numbered at 43.2 million.
- 14 2. In 1995 in the EU countries, there were 11.2 million non-EU citizens living with a legal
15 status (3 million from Africa, 650,000 from Algeria, 2 million from Asia, more than 2.5
16 million from Turkey, and one million from Eastern Europe) who made up 3.15% of the
17 total European population ("The new Europeans," *El País*, 22 November 1995).
- 18 3. In spite of the fact that the number of female immigrants is smaller than that of the
19 male immigrants, it must be pointed out here that, in the case of women from non-
20 EU countries, their activities suppose a big change for their social status as well as for
21 their communities of origin (Colectivo IOE 1998).
- 22 4. Prepared according to the latest data from the poll carried out among the active
23 population.
- 24 5. It is not very usual to talk about the immigrant students as bilingual. Therefore, the
25 same school curriculum is applied that was designed for the native children in different
26 social circumstances.
- 27 6. The Ecuadorian students make up 22.7% and the Colombians, 9.18%, representing the
28 biggest community from South America, 15.15%.
- 29 7. The *Real Decreto* of 28 February 1996 and the *Orden Ministerial* (Ministerial Regula-
30 tion) of 22 July 1999.
- 31 8. Teams and departments of student orientation programs are made up of the psycholo-
32 gists and pedagogues responsible for designing complementary measures in order to fa-
33 cilitate the learning process of the students. These teams are not formed by experts in
34 the teaching of the Spanish language.
- 35 9. Both the teachers of the compensatory programs and of the *liaison classes* have a basic
36 orientation of a few hours and a permanent training, but, as can be observed, it is not
37 enough for their work.
- 38 10. In the proposal of Cummins (1984), BICS, "Basic Interpersonal Communicative
39 Skills," and CALP, "Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency."
- 40 11. The Department of Education in Navarre published the text *Español como segunda len-
41 gua (E/L2) con alumnos inmigrantes. Propuesta de currículo para la escolarización ob-
42 ligatoria*. On the other hand, the Department of Murcia published the works of Vil-
43 lalba and Hernández (2001): *Diseño Curricular para la Enseñanza del Español como
44 L2 en Contextos Escolares* ('Curriculum Design for the Teaching of Spanish as L2 in
45 the School Contexts') and (2004) *Propuesta de normativa sobre la enseñanza del español
46 como L2 en E. Primaria y Secundaria*. ('Proposal of legislation on the teaching of Span-
47 ish as L2 in the primary and secondary schools').
- 48 12. Professional Orientation Program.

- 1 13. Children and teenagers are still learning the pragmatic dimension of their mother
2 tongue and getting familiar with the cultural values of their families.
3 14. In the case of the Program on Moroccan Language and Culture, two types can be dis-
4 tinguished. The first one, A, is intended for centers with a small number of Moroccan
5 students. Here, the classes are given outside the regular school hours and the Moroccan
6 professor goes from one center to another. The second type, B, is oriented toward cen-
7 ters with a big concentration of Moroccan students. Here, the teacher only goes to one
8 center and the classes are given during the regular school hours.
9 15. <http://cvc.cervantes.es/obref/inmigracion/documentacion/manifiesto.htm>, <http://cvc.cervantes.es/debates/debates.asp?vdeb=27>.

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