NOTES AND REFERENCES

PREFACE


(9) L. Febvre, *op. cit.*, p.43.

(10) But only if the geographer interested in socio-spatial patterns is fully "aware of the ideas and concepts of other disciplines, particularly Sociology and Urban Ecology". See D. Herbert, *Urban Geography A Social Perspective*, David & Charles, Newton Abbot, 1972, p.18.


(21) L. Febvre, *op. cit.*, p.236.

(22) A.H. Hobbs, *Differentials in Internal Migration*, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1942 (a).


(25) Brief references to external migration will be made where relevant.

Ref. pp.1-3
Ref. pp. 4-5


(31) See p. 41.


(35) The function of the model being not only to explain past migrations but also to predict future ones. See M. Stacey, Methods of Social Research, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1969, p. 28.


(37) T.R. Anderson, "Intermetropolitan migration: a comparison of the hypoth-


(39) Ibid.


(41) Spain ceased to be a developing country:


Notwithstanding, Spain is still classified as a developing country by some authorities. This thesis for example was listed in Institute of Development Studies, Development Studies Research Register U.K., University of Sussex, Brighton, Sept., 1971, in a register meant to cover "all UK-based research projects in the social sciences concerned with problems of developing countries".

Be that as it may, few would dispute the fact that half of Spain appeared to miss the nineteenth century when other West European nations were undergoing Agricultural Revolutions. Even to-day many of the traditional élite are trying to maintain their status, seeking in Hugh Thomas' words, "to turn their national pride into a political ideology and idealising the preservation in Spain of certain aspects of pre-industrial European society...". See H. Thomas, The Spanish Civil War, Eyre and Spottiswoode, London, 1961, p. 210.

PART ONE

THE SOCIOLOGY AND GEOGRAPHY OF MIGRATION


(3) A.H. Hobbs, 1942 (a), op. cit., p. 110.


It is often difficult to distinguish clearly between temporary and permanent migrants. Miracle and Berry consider that "conceptually, it is more fruitful to regard them as points on a continuum, representing different lengths of an economically productive individual's absence from home." See M.P. Miracle and S.S. Berry, "Migrant labour and economic development", Oxford Economic Papers, 22, Mar. 1970, p. 89. See also Sauvy's "economic migration" of the single and separated who intend to return to their families at the first opportunity, and the "demographic migration" of entire families who never intend to return. See A. Sauvy, A General Theory of Population, Weidenfeld & Nicholson, London, 1969, p. 450 (First published as Théorie Générale de la Population, Presses Universitaires de France, Paris, 1966).

(5) My italics. J.J. Mangalan, "Some guidelines towards a general theory

(6) A.H. Hobbs, 1942 (a), op. cit., p.9.


(11) R.Philip Jones, "Dualism and internal migration in Spain", paper read at the Fourth Annual Conference of the Theron Social Studies Association, University of Southampton, 15-18 April, 1971.


(14) The equilibrium and disequilibrium migration models developed by classical and Keynesian economists respectively. See H. Lind, "Internal Migration in Britain", in J.A. Jackson, (ed.), op. cit., p.77.

(15) J.A. Jackson, (ed.), op. cit., p.3.


(22) C.J. Jansen, 1969, op. cit., p.66.

(23) This is my interpretation of George's "moves caused by necessity or obligation" and "moves caused by needs". See P. George, "Types of Migration of the Population According to the Professional and Social Composition of Migrants", in C.J. Jansen, (ed.), 1970, op. cit., pp.37-47 (First published as "Quelques types de migrations de populations suivant la composition professionnelle et Sociale des migrants", paper


(27) A. Sauvy, op. cit., p.449.

(28) D. Herbert, op. cit., p.271.


(34) J. Isaac, op. cit., p.45.


(37) A normative social influence has been defined as "an influence to conform with the positive expectations of another". It is commonly found in association with an informational social influence which may be defined as "an influence to accept information obtained from another as evidence about reality". See M. Deutsch and H.B. Gerard, "A Study of Social Influences upon Individual Judgement", in H. Proshansky and B. Seidenberg, (ed.), Basic Studies in Social Psychology. Holt, Reinehart & Winston, London, 1969, p.402.


(40) P.H. Rossi, op. cit., p.9.


(44) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., p.617.


(49) F. Alberoni, op. cit., p. 305.

(50) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., p.617.

(51) J.S. Lindberg, The Background of Swedish Emigration to the United States: An Economic and Sociological Study in the Dynamics of Migration, University of Minneapolis Press, Minneapolis, 1930.

(52) R.C. Taylor, on. cit., p.131.


(55) See, for example, O. Lewis, La Vida: A Puerto Rican Family in the Culture of Poverty - San Juan and New York, Secker & Warburg, London, 1967.

By such sympathetic questioning Oscar Lewis was able to detect that "the precipitating factor for leaving Puerto Rico was most often a personal social-psychological crisis." Ibid., p.xxxv.


(58) Hoover notes that the "migration response of the unemployed often diminishes rather than increases as their resources dwindle... and the greater a family's need the less may it be able to surmount the threshold of migration." See E.M. Hoover, The Location of Economic Activity, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1948, pp.107-103.


(60) H.C. Hamilton, op. cit., p.304.


(64) J. Beaujeu-Garnier, 1966, op. cit., p.3.
(68) A.H. Hobbs, 1942 (a), op. cit., p.2.
(69) Ibid., p.8.
(71) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., p.617.
(75) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., p.617.
(76) "Displacement" occurs where occupational mobility is introduced into the countryside rather fortuitously through the location of a new industrial enterprise. See R.C. Taylor, op. cit., p.118.
(78) C.J. Galpin, Analysis of Migration of Population to and from Farms, United States Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington D.C., 1927.
(83) D.J. Bogue, 1961, op. cit.
(84) Ibid.
(85) The comment regarding age is personal opinion and not to be attributed to Bogue. Young adults in the 20-34 age group are always more prone to migrate according to him. See D.J. Bogue, 1961 op. cit.
(86) Ibid.
(87) See, for example, the immigration of West Indians and Pakistanis into the United Kingdom. C. Hill, Immigration and Integration. A Study of the Settlement of Coloured Minorities in Britain, Pergamon, Oxford, 1970, pp.3-4 and 36-38.
(88) D.J. Bogue, 1961, op. cit.
(89) Ibid.
(90) A.H. Hobbs, 1942 (a), p.45.
(91) J.S. Nalson, The Mobility of Farm Families, Manchester University Press,


In a later paper Taeuber came to quite a different conclusion - namely that there was no clear-cut evidence to suggest that migration selected either the most or the least able. See C. Taeuber, "Economic and social implications of internal migration in the United States", Journal of Farm Economics, Dec., 1959, p.1149.


(100) E.W. Hofstee, op. cit., p.8.


(102) Ibid., p.111.


(106) A.B. Hill, Internal Migration and its Effects upon the Death Rates with Special Reference to the County of Essex, Medical Research Council, 1925.


(112) A.B. Hill, op. cit.


(115) D.J. Bogue, 1961, op. cit.


(119) These key ages were: after leaving school, and in the early twenties if the girl was still unmarried. This was follow by a ten-to-fifteen year period with practically no migration, after which female out-migration began to pick-up again in the mid-thirties. See J.W. House, "Rural north-east England: 1951-61", Papers on Migration and Mobility, No.1, University of Newcastle-on-Tyne, 1965, p.11; T. Hegerstrand, 1963, *op. cit.* p.64; and H.E. Bracey, *Neighbours*, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1964.

(120) P.H. Rossi, *op. cit.* pp.178-179, makes the point that while it is generally true that the greater the number of dependents the less likely a family is to move, paradoxically families need space and are often forced to move to find it.


(124) A.A. Gesser, "Selective factors in migration from a New York rural community", Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin, No.736, Ithaca, 1940, p.25. Gesser, in a study of Belleville, New York, found that out-migrants moving to towns were of above average intelligence but those moving to rural areas were little different from non-migrants.

(125) P.A. Sorokin and C.C. Zimmerman, *Principles of Rural-Urban Sociology*, Holt, New York, 1929, p.582. Toynbee makes the point that in developed countries like the United States only the most enterprising farmers are left, while in developing countries with their traditional methods of agriculture the most enterprising have left or are leaving the land. See A. Toynbee, *Cities on the Move*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1970, pp.197-198.


(131) O. Klineberg, *Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration*, Columbia


(133) A.A. Gessner, op. cit., p.25.


(135) T.A. Davis, op. cit., p.7.

(136) R.H. Hobbs, 1942 (a), op. cit., p.63.

(137) R.C. Taylor, op. cit., p.113.

(138) Two American studies suggest that migration in these specific instances became less selective over a period of time. See B.H. Liebke and J.F. Hart, "Migration from a southern Appalachian community", Land Economics, Feb., 1950, p.50; and J.A. Martin, "Off-farm migration: some characteristics and effects upon agriculture in Weakley County, Tennessee", University of Tennessee Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin, No. 290, Knoxville, Aug., 1959, p.21.


(141) This thesis will concentrate on rural-to-urban migration although not ignoring other types which are becoming more important in Spain.

(142) The three types are "resultant", "dislocated" and "aspiring" migrants. A fourth type - "epiphenomenal" is ignored because migrants of this type move for "very diverse personal reasons" and it is therefore difficult to make any generalizations about them as a class according to R. C. Taylor, op. cit., p.122.

(143) Ibid., p.131.

(144) Assimilation is "the absorption of newcomers into a society so that they are not seen to be different." See M. Banton, Racial Minorities, Fontana-Collins, London, 1972, p.156. Eisenstadt and Zubrzycki prefer the terms "absorption" and "accommodation" respectively instead of the more universally used "assimilation". See S.N. Eisenstadt, The Absorption of Immigrants, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1954; and J. Zubrzycki, Polish Immigrants in Britain, Martinus Nijhoff, The Hague, 1956, pp.165-175.


(146) L.G. Burchinall and W.W. Bauder, op. cit., p.221.


(150) D.J. Bogue, 1959 (a), op. cit., p.489.


(153) P.M. Hauser and L.P. Schmore, (ed.), The Study of Urbanization, Wiley,
Thomas and Vojvoda have been able to show that the influence of urbanization has penetrated into the most remote rural communities of the Slovenian Alps. See C. Thomas and M. Vojvoda, "Alpine communities in transition", Geography, Vol. 58, No. 259, July, 1973, pp. 217-226.

(154) Acculturation is "the adoption of the customs and values of the population in the place of destination". United Nations, Multilingual Demographic Dictionary, New York, 1959, item 813, p. 43.

For the difference between assimilation and acculturation see M. Banton, on cit., p. 156.

(155) J.T. Clarke, 1955, on cit., p. 129.


(161) A. Sauvy, on cit., p. 452.


(164) C.J. Jansen, 1959, pp. 67-68.


(168) G. Breese, 1956, on cit., p. 74.


(171) Most research into assimilation of migrants has been concerned with migrant groups which are easily identifiable by ethnic origin or some other racial or cultural characteristics - hence the concentration on examples drawn from international migration in this section of the thesis. There is obviously a danger in using examples chosen from the realm of international migration - a subject "replete with emotional overtones and propaganda". See K. Davis, "The Sociology of Demographic Behaviour", in R.K. Merton, L. Brown and L.S. Cottrall, (ed.), Sociology Today: Problems and Prospects, Basic Books Inc., New York, 1959, p. 314.

(172) In Switzerland, for example, the foreign labour force almost doubled
between 1960 and 1964 to 24% of the total national labour force. See S. Child, on. cit., p.441.


(177) The standards of the host and invading societies. See C. Hill, on. cit., pp.92 and 137.


(179) Giggs was able to correlate the distribution of cases of schizophrenia in Nottingham with parts of the central city associated with transient population. See J.A. Giggs, Schizophrenia in Nottingham C.B., 1953-9, University of Nottingham, 1971, (mimeo, cited in D. Herbert, op. cit., p.196.)


It may be that the "high measure of social cohesion and traditional values"(D. Herbert, op. cit., p.119) that Oscar Lewis found in the central vecindades of Mexico City and the "integrated" life that Mabogunje associated with the slum areas of Ibadan, are related to the great influx of rural in-migrants, the perpetuating of rural attitudes including the "shared poverty system"(D.J. Dwyer, op. cit., p.359) which is only marginally above that which they were accustomed to in their native villages.

It may be that the conflicting evidence may be related to different types of slums. See, for example, the contrast between the Casa Grande...

(187) W.R. Simon, *The southern white migrant in the metropolis*, paper read at Social Science Research Institute, University of Chicago, May, 1961.
(189) Ibid., p.236.
(193) Ibid.
(194) The return migrant is not always welcome. See the reference to indianos in M. Kenny, 1961, op. cit., p.44.
(196) G. Poff, op. cit., p.272.
(198) W. Firey, "Sentiment and Symbolism as Ecological Variables", in


(201) B.T. Robson, op. cit., p. 11.


(203) R.L. Morrill, op. cit., p. 32.


"Subsistence urbanization", in the opinion of Breese, is "so close to an agricultural subsistence level of living that the difference may be just one of locale." See G. Breese, 1966, op. cit., p. 99.


(207) Sauvy uses geographical dispersion, education and mixed marriages as his measures of total assimilation. See A. Sauvy, op. cit., p. 463.


(210) Ibid.

(211) E.W. Hofstee, op. cit., p. 22.

(212) Ibid.

In the eyes of the migrant income - and probably income alone - is the index for measuring his apparently higher socio-economic status. According to Heberle, despite an increase in income the rural-to-urban migrant "can only compete with native workers by accepting a lower standard of living." See R. Heberle, op. cit., p. 4.


"In anthropological usage the term culture implies, essentially, a design for living which is passed down from generation to generation". See O. Lewis, 1962, op. cit., p. xxiv.

The sub-culture of poverty is not a negative state of economic deprivation. "It is also something positive in the sense that it has a structure, a rationale, and defence mechanisms without which the poor could hardly carry on. In short, it is a way of life, remarkably stable and persistent, passed down from generation to generation along family lines." See O. Lewis, 1962, op. cit., p. xxiv.


(215) Ibid., p. xliii.

(216) Ibid., p. xliii.

(217) Ibid.

(218) Ibid.

(219) Ibid., p. xlv.

(220) Ibid.

(221) Ibid.


(225) T.R. Böhning, The Migration of Workers in the United Kingdom and the European Community, published for the Institute of Race Relations by
The author was once asked to intervene personally as an interpreter in the sad case of a Spanish immigrant who was being forcibly repatriated. Having already "failed" once, this immigrant felt unable to face the shame of returning to his native village a second time, attempted to commit suicide and then had a nervous breakdown.

Part of their short-term objective is saving and sometimes sending home as much as 50% of what they earn. See R. Hancock, "The role of the bracero in the economic and cultural dynamics of Mexico", Hispanic American Society, Stanford, California, 1959, p.37.

Hernandez Alvarez, in a 1960 Census survey in Puerto Rico, found that the proportion of professionals, managers and clerical workers among return migrants was almost half as much again higher than for the entire active population of Puerto Rico. See J. Hernandez Alvarez, Return Migration to Puerto Rico, Institute of International Studies, Population Monograph Series, No.1, University of California, Berkeley, 1967, p.48.

Sauvy relates assimilation in the second generation to mixed education. The effect of education on the immigrant child can lead to resentment of his parents' attachment to traditional customs which he feels are no longer relevant. See A. Sauvy, op. cit., p.463. An appreciation of ethnic origin may, however, occur in the third generation. Hansen's law of migrant adjustment states "That what the immigrant's son wishes to forget, the grandson wishes to remember". Quoted in M. Banton, op. cit., p.157.

Ref. pp. 29-31


(241) The other two are mortality and fertility.


(243) E.G. Ravenstein, 1885, op. cit., p.198.

(244) The author's interpretation.

(245) E.G. Ravenstein, 1895, op. cit., p.199.

(246) Ibid.

(247) Ibid., p.198.

(248) Ibid., p.199.

(249) Ibid.

(250) Ibid.

(251) This fourth "geographical" law was in fact Ravenstein's sixth law. See E.G. Ravenstein, 1889, op. cit., p.238.

Laws:
6. Dominance of the economic motive (Ibid., p.236).

deal with migration differentials and motivations and are basically non-geographical.


(253) A.B. Kill, op. cit.


(259) Similar findings for Sweden during the 1946-1950 period were made by T. Nijerstrand, 1963, op. cit., p.74.


(262) Olsson found that economic factors, which were significant in long-distance migrations, became less important in short-distance movements. See G. Olsson, Distance and Human Interaction. A Bibliography and Review, Regional Science Research Institution, Bibliography Series No.2, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1965 (a).


Carey and Mapes, in a sociological study of eight new housing estates, found that while the concept of distance was highly subjective, "the principal of least effort" could be said to apply to visiting relationships. They discovered "an inverse relationship between sociometric


(264) E. C. Young, *op. cit.*


Quick, efficient, commuter rail (including underground) services is also an important factor. Statistics exist which show that any reduction in travelling time has a marked effect on migration out of the main centres of population. Daily Mail, 13th July, 1973.


It would be wrong, however, to under-estimate the importance of the spread of primary education and of literacy which enabled people to take advantage of a cheap press so that men learn where there is a demand for labour and are directed to it”. Quoted from G.B. Longstaff, “Rural depopulation”, Journal Royal Statistical Society, Vol.56, 1893, p.413.

See H.E. Bracey, 1964, op. cit., pp.16-27; and H.E. Bracey, Industry and the Countryside, Faber, London, 1963. Bracey believes that people are more mobile in early adult life before they become settled in a trade or profession. This suggests that job prospects as well as job availability in the exporting and receiving...
areas are important. See H.E. Bracey, 1970, *op. cit.*, p.23.


(238) The model was later modified through the introduction of a new variable - competing migrants at destination. See S.A. Stouffer, 1960, *op. cit.*; K.L. Bright and D.S. Thomas, *op. cit.*, p.783.

(239) While Bright and Thomas modify Stouffer's model to make allowance for the directional factor, Price approaches the problem of distance and direction in internal migration from a different angle. See *ibid.*, pp.773-783; and D.O. Price, *op. cit.*, pp.49-53.

(240) Stouffer's hypothesis like that of straightforward gravity models is based on Newtonian physics (see K. Chisholm, 1971, *op. cit.*, p.42). In my opinion there is not only a gravitational-distance relationship between heavenly bodies but also a directional element.


Moreover, as Harris and Clausen have pointed out, the type of migration affects the distances involved. See A.I. Harris and R. Clausen, *op. cit.*, p.17.


University of Texas, Austin, 1968; and J. W. House, op. cit.


(315) J. Isaac, op. cit., p.45.
(316) Ibid.; and L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.44.
(319) C. Goodrich, et. al., op. cit., p.395.
(321) Counterstream currents will include elements other than return migrants. There will be some highly paid jobs which will attract white-collar classes even in poor areas.
(322) L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.44.
(324) T.H. Hollingsworth, on cit., p.146.
(328) D.J. Bogue, 1961, on cit.
(329) L.P. Neun and J.H. Jeffery, on cit., p.29.
(332) N.N. Foote, et. al., Housing Choices and Constraints, McGraw-Hill,
Ref. pp.37-38


(334) E.S. Lee, 1969, op. cit., p.237.

(333) L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.46.


(331) It would be wrong to isolate migration rates from migration volumes. Compare the inter-relationship between volume and velocity in the discharge of a stream.


(325) F.R. Oliver, "Inter-regional migration and unemployment 1951-61", Journal Royal Statistical Society, Series A, Vol.127, 1964, pp.43-75. Although Oliver found that high relative regional unemployment is associated with high net emigration... the relationship is not particularly close nor does it suggest that internal migration alone would quickly equalize regional unemployment rates. Ibid., p.42. See also A. Jack, "A short-run model of inter-regional migration", Manchester School of Economic and Social Studies, 38, March, 1970, pp.26-27.


(320) E.S. Lee, 1969, op. cit., p.290.

Department of Agriculture, Washington D.C., June, 1956, Table I, p.16.


This geographical mobility differential is in part related to differences in size of relevant administrative areas between the United States and Europe. See L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.46.


(355) Ibid., p.291.


(357) E.S. Lee, 1969, op. cit., p.292.


Kosiński measures mobility for this period (April 1960-April 1961) as 105 per thousand inhabitants, while Jansen suggests 9.8% of the population. See L. Kosiński, op. cit., p.110; and C.J. Jansen, (ed.), 1970, op. cit., p.5.

According to Britain 1971 an Official Handbook, H.M.S.O., London, 1971, p.16, the percentage of residents in Great Britain in 1966 having changed their address in the preceding year was 10.7.


Ref. pp.39-41

(360) R. Heberle, op. cit., p.3.

(361) B. Herbert, 1972, op. cit., p.224.


(365) R. Heberle, op. cit., p.3.


In contrast, it has been reported that 95% of migrant Iraqi peasants leave the rural areas accompanied by their families. See United Nations, Administrative Problems of Rapid Urban Growth in the Arab States, New York, 1964, ST/TAO/11/21.

(368) Sjaastad has suggested that migration is to be regarded as a form of investment activity involving resources, requiring money and non-money (psychological) costs to be incurred and producing returns. Psychological costs are difficult to measure but should be regarded as lost consumer or producer surplus on the part of the migrant. L.A. Sjaastad, "The costs and returns of human migration", Journal of Political Economy, Vol.70, Oct., 1962, Supplement, p.85 (Reprinted in H.W. Richardson, (ed.), Regional Economics: A Reader, Macmillan, London and Basingstoke, 1970, pp.115-133).


(370) L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.25.

(371) Erikson makes the point that emigration did not always select the most ambitious people, or those most responsive to economic incentives. Many of the British who went to American farms in this period of social unrest in Britain were social conservatives who clung to a partly idealized view of the past which was their agrarian myth. See C. Erikson, Invisible Immigrants: The Adaptation of English and Scottish Immigrants in 19th Century America, Weidenfeld & Nicolson, London, 1972, p.2.

(372) Moving house is not only a money cost. Moving away from an area regarded as home also involves psychological costs. See L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.50.


(376) Changes within a local labour market's commuting patterns are an even cheaper means of geographical mobility. See L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.21.

(377) J.R. Lansing, et. al., The Geographical Mobility of Labour: A First Report, Survey Research Centre, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1963. See also United States Department of Commerce, Area
Ref. pp41-42


(378) H.R. Kahn, op. cit., p.84; and J.W. House and D.M. Knight, "Pit Closure and the community," Papers on Migration in Northern England, No.5, Department of Geography, University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 1967.

(379) Morrill believes that "distance decay" (see p.32 and f.266) in migrations is not related to cost but to the fact that knowledge of available opportunities declines with distance from the source of such opportunities. See R.L. Morrill, The Spatial Organization of Society, Duxbury Press, Belmont, Calif., 1970, p.145.

(380) See, for example, the effect of the erection of the Berlin wall and the removal of immigration restrictions within the European Economic Community.


(384) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., p.599.


Erys Jones in a survey of the attitude of Grammar School children to leaving Tregaron found that "education can be an escape as well as a means of attaining status." See E. Jones, 1962, op. cit., p.104.

Hannan while confirming these findings found a bias in favour of educating country girls in Ireland. See D.F. Hannan, "Migration motives and migration differentials among Irish rural youth," Sociologia Ruralis, Vol.9, 1969, pp.193-220.

(390) F.R. Rossi, op. cit., p.101; and J.B. Cullingworth, "English housing
PART TWO

INTERNAL MIGRATION PATTERNS IN SPAIN BEFORE 1960

(1) D.V. Glass in E.W. Hofstee, on cit., p.v; and L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, on cit., p.10.

In the 1961 Census, "anyone whose address on census date (23 April 1961) was different from their usual address on 23 April 1960" would be classified as a migrant. Direct Census questions are, however, likely to be increasingly used following the recommendation of the United Nations. See United Nations, Principles and Recommendations for the 1970 Population Censuses, Stat. Pap., Ser. H, No.44, New York, 1969.


Official statistics, although not always complete or accurate enough, are readily available for international migration. Exact comparability is impossible, however, because of different methods of counting immigrants and foreign residents from country to country. See A.M. Rose, 1969, op. cit., p.16.

For the use of this method in the United Kingdom see R. Osborne, 1955-6, op. cit., p.55.


For further disadvantages of this method see R.L. Welch, op. cit., p.43.


Ref. pp.45-46
Ref. pp.64-48

(19) R.K. Kelsoall, op. cit., Table 4, p.45.
(20) Ibid., p.41.

(22) Census 1961... op. cit., Part II, Tables 4 and 5.
(24) A. Girard, et. al., op. cit., p.204.
(25) M. Stacey, op. cit., p.75.
For the advantages and disadvantages of sample-surveys as opposed to "retrospective censuses" see R.L. Welch, op. cit., pp.1-2.

A.H. Hobbs, 1942 (a), op. cit., p.46, does not approve of any questionnaires.


(30) H.P. Newton and J.R. Jeffery, op. cit.
(31) J.A. Rowntree, op. cit.
(32) The National Register was set up in 1939 and continued until 1952.


Ref. pp.48-49

See ibid., and p.29 (PART THREE).

Presidencia del Gobierno, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Anuario Estadístico de España, Madrid, (annually); ibid., Boletín Mensual de Estadística, Madrid, (monthly).


See pp.63-69.

In the sense that although "actual" statistics are often very inaccurate they are no more so than net figures. In- and out-migration patterns produced by either method are almost identical. See pp.69-70 and Figs.27 and 28.


Davis has estimated the growth of between thirty-three and sixty-one European cities in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries to average less than 0.6% annually. See K. Davis, "The Urbanization of the Human Population", in G. Breese, (ed.), 1968, op. cit., p.9 (First published in the Scientific American, No.213, Sept., 1965, pp.40-53).


In Stockholm death-rates were invariably higher than birth-rates quite regularly until the 1960s. See J.L. Johnson, Urban Geography. An Introductory Analysis, 2nd ed. Pergamon, Oxford, 1972, p.16.


Deane and Cole were not convinced that internal migration was more important than natural increase. In support of this minority view Wrigley found little rural/urban differences in fertility and mortality rates in his researches into the demographic history of certain West European coalfields. See P. Deane and W.A. Cole, op. cit.; and E.A. Wrigley, 1962, op. cit., pp.168-169.
Before the nineteenth century, of course, there would have been no increases in urban population without in-migration. See, for example, J. Wernicke, Das Verhältniss Zwischen Geborenen und Gestorbenen in Historischer Entwicklung, pp.57 and 90, quoted in A.F. Weber, op. cit., p.294; and A.F. Weber, op. cit., p.236.

In the first thirty-five years of the 20th century 08.7\% of Budapest's increase in population was still due to in-migration. See E.D. Beynon, "Budapest: An Ecological Study", in G.A. Theodorson, (ed.), 1961, op. cit., p.361.

To avoid confusion, where provincial capitals have the same names as their respective provinces, simple geographical place names like Madrid will refer to provincial capitals throughout this thesis. Other administrative units will be fully described whenever confusion is likely to arise - for example, Province of Madrid, Metropolitan area of Madrid. Unfortunately there is often a good deal of ambiguity in original Spanish sources.

The 1858-1892 figures are quoted by I. Ballester Ros, "El Crecimiento Demográfico Natural de Madrid", in Instituto de Estudios de Administración Local, Madrid, 1964. Evolución Demográfica, Desarrollo Urbanístico Económica y Servicios, Madrid, 1964, p.155, from Geografía Geográfica y Estadística de España de 1888 and Estadística del Movimiento Natural de la Población, Dirección General del Instituto Geográfico y Estadístico, Madrid, n.d. These statistics do not agree with those of the Ayuntamiento de Madrid, which from 1855 normally record positive natural increases. Neither do more recent statistics tally:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Natural Increase (per thousand pop.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>7.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>7.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>10.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

60 A.F. Weber, op. cit., Table CXIV, p.152.


62 The definition of "urban" population used throughout this thesis is administrative areas with more than 10,000 inhabitants (usually in 1960). This definition was suggested in 1954 by the Conference of European Statisticians, and was later incorporated into United Nations recommendations for 1970 censuses in Europe. See L. Kosinski, 1970, op. cit., p.100; and H. Capel, "La definición de lo urbano," Estudios Geográficos, Vol.36, Nos.150-159, Feb.-May, 1975, pp.223-229.

It must be stressed that this is a statistical definition of convenience. Pahl is right to emphasize that "in the sociological context, the terms rural and urban are more remarkable for their ability to confuse than for their power to illuminate." See R.E. Pahl, "The rural/urban continuum", Sociologia Ruralis, Vol.6, 1966, p.299. See also United Nations, Demographic Yearbook 1952, New York, 1955, quoted in H. Carter, op. cit., p.17; and R.J. Green, Country Planning: The Future of the Rural Regions, Manchester University Press, Manchester, 1971, p.2.


69 There are many exceptions to these generalizations due to differing local conditions. Ferrer Regales refers to two of the eighteen municipios of El Campo Romano in Teruel province which grew in population between 1900 and 1930 due to extensions of the cultivated area. See L. Ferrer Regales, "El Campo Romano," Estudios Geográficos, Vol.18, No.66, Feb., 1957, p.91.

70 P. Birot, Étude Comparée de la Vie Rural Pyrénéenne dans les Pays de Pallars (Espagne) et de Couserans (France), unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Paris, 1937. See the Spanish version translated by V. López-Gómez, Estudio Comparado de la Vida Rural Pirenaica en las Regiones de Pallars (España) y de Couserans (Francia), n.p., n.d., which is summarized in...
According to this summary an average loss of 31.3% occurred in this zone between 1365 and 1300 compared with only 4.5% between 1300 and 1350. See Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 7, No. 25, Nov., 1946, pp. 637-720.


(72) W. Ogle, op. cit., p. 223.


(75) J. Saville, op. cit., p. 15.


(77) From 1553.


(80) Seasonal unemployment and underemployment in agriculture and great regional variations in agricultural labour-rates are more relevant.


(82) Seasonal unemployment and underemployment in agriculture and great regional variations in agricultural labour-rates are more relevant.

(83) Seasonal unemployment and underemployment in agriculture and great regional variations in agricultural labour-rates are more relevant.

(84) In England and Wales, for example, a peak of 1.9 million full-time farm
workers was not reached until 1861 by which time industrialisation was well advanced. See E. D. Clout, op. cit., p.17.

(85) See p.212.


(87) See W. Leete, op. cit., p.104.


(91) There were only 4,300 tractors in Spain in 1940 and about 10,000 in 1950. The increase from 1959 was rapid:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of tractors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>40,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>47,033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>71,077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>114,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>147,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>191,335</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


(93) E.J.T. Collins, op. cit., p.66.

(94) J. Saville, op. cit., p.31.


(95) J. Anilló Vázquez, op. cit., p.83.

It seems hardly likely that the female agricultural population as a percentage of the total agricultural population evolved as follows:

- 1960: 12.3%
- 1964: 20.2%
- 1966: 20.7%
- 1968: 19.4%

Yet this is the picture which emerges if statistics are extracted from a number of sources:

- Censo de la Población y de las Viviendas de España en 1960, quoted in J. Anilló, op. cit., p.83.

(96) G. Heras, op. cit., pp.92-93; and Anexo al II Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, op. cit., p.3.

(97) The village of Támara de Campos in Palencia province, for example, saw a fall in the non-agricultural labour force of 33.3% between 1935 and 1960 (despite the opening of a tile factory in 1941 in a neighbouring village), compared with a fall of 31.4% in both the agricultural labour force and the total population. See V. Pérez Díaz, 1969, op. cit., Tables A.37 and A.43, pp.269 and 235.

(98) See, for example, the case studies in H. Sigüés, Del Campo al Suburbio: Un Estudio sobre la Inmigración Interior en España, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, 1959, pp.53-204.


(100) "It is significant", notes East, "that Arab rule was never permanently established beyond the limit of the Mediterranean climate, or as Edrisi puts it, the climate of the olive." See W.G. East, An Historical Geography of Europe, 4th ed., Methuen, London, 1950, p.202.


(102) J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p.103.


(104) H. Livermore, op. cit., p.324.


(106) H. Livermore, op. cit., p.304.

(107) G. Jackson, op. cit., p.4.


Against this argument is Kuczynski's statement that the highest rates
of population growth in Europe were in frontier regions. See R.R. Kuczynski, "Population," Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, Vol. 12, 1934, p. 244.

(109) G. Jackson, op. cit., pp. 32 and 34.

Then there was the granting of fueros (or charters) containing special rights and privileges which were mainly reserved for "marcher" towns. The fuero, according to Atkinson, was an incentive to attract Christian settlers southwards. See J.A. Crow, Spain: The Root and the Flower, Harper & Row, New York, 1963, p. 33; and W.C. Atkinson, History of Spain and Portugal, Penguin, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, 1963, pp. 32-33.

(110) According to Jackson, the rough treatment received by Jews and Hozarabes at the hands of the Almoravids (circa. 1091) led them to migrate northwards. See G. Jackson, op. cit., p. 67. Hozarabes (literally "almost arabs") were "christians" who were re-incorporated.

(111) J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p. 175.

(112) P. Vilar, 1967, op. cit., p. 11.


(114) Those Muslims who were not recent immigrants were given the choice of baptism or exile after the rebellion of 1501. See G. Hills, Spain, Ernest Benn, Tonbridge, Kent, 1970, p. 58.


(116) J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p. 243. Note that the drift of population southwards was aided by the natural communications which ran north-south. Ibid., pp. 13-20.

(117) G. Jackson, op. cit., p. 57.

(118) Ibid.


(120) J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p. 181.

(121) There was also some in-migration towards expanding areas of cultivation. See J. García Fernández, "Horche (Guadalajara): estudio de estructura agraria," Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 14, No. 51, May, 1953, p. 205.

(122) J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p. 293.


(127) J. Klein, op. cit., pp. 33-34 and 322.


(129) See, for example, a report on conditions in the village of Taracena in Guadalajara province in ibid., p. 2.

(130) A. Domínguez Ortíz, La Sociedad Española en el Siglo XVII, Consejo
There were many fantastic estimates - one of 300,000 in 1533, for example. See V. Simmons and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.132. Domínguez Ortiz estimates a population of between 150,000 and 150,000 for Madrid in 1617. See A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., p.133.


Domínguez Ortiz estimates a population of between 130,000 and 150,000 for Madrid in 1617. See A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1953, op. cit., p.133.

J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p.132.


A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., p.121, refers to 156 despoblados. One hundred and sixty-seven, however, are listed in Apendice I, pp.325-337.

The chronicles of Carvajal, quoted in J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p.293. See also A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., p.54.


A despoblado was defined as a locality which had lost a minimum of one third to one half of its population since the Census of 1591-1594. See A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., p.325.


A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., p.150.


A.M. García Terrel, Salduero: Estudio de un Municipio de los Pinares Boreales del Alto Duero, Departamento de Geografía Aplicada del Instituto de Geografía, Zaragoza, 1953, p.31.


The Castilian pattern had already been anticipated in Catalonia which, in the century and a half culminating in the Census of 1497, lost 35-40% of its total population mainly due to plague. See J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p.130; and J. Nadal and E. Giralt, «Ensayo metodológico para el estudio de la población catalana de 1553 a 1717», Estudios de Historia Moderna, Vol.3, 1953, p.117.

Slicher Van Bath believes that there was a connection in Europe between the outbreak of epidemics and prolonged periods of malnutrition resulting from the failure of agricultural production to keep pace with the increase of population. See B.H. Slicher Van Bath, op. cit., p.89; and R.J. Habakkuk, Population Growth and Economic Development since 1750, Leicester University Press, Leicester, 1971, p.34.

Vecino is defined as head of household. He is a person who has a hearth in the municipio and pays tax. When making the conversion from vecinos to total estimated population each household is allocated between 3.5 and 4.0 members according to Ruiz Almansa, and between 3 and 6 or 7 members according to Pérez Puchal. See J. Ruiz Almansa, La Población de Galicia (1500-1745) según los Documentos Estadísticos y Descriptivos de cada Epoca, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, Vol.1, 1943, p.220; and P. Pérez Puchal, «Fuentes y métodos de la

Note that Vicens Vives estimates that only 300,000 of the total Muslim population of Spain of one million emigrated between 1432-1520. See J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p. 292.

Lote that Dominguez Ortiz gives a figure of 300,000, less of 275,000, while Hills estimates that 150,000 out of about half a million Moriscos were expelled. Lynch estimates that only about 10,000 Moriscos remained in Spain after the 1609-1614 operations. See A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., pp. 83-35; H. Lapeyre, Géographie de l'Espagne Morisque, Paris, 1959, pp. 203-204; G. Hills, 1970, op. cit., p. 58; and J. Lynch, 1969, op. cit., p. 48.

Dominguez Ortiz gives a figure of 300,000, Lapeyre of 275,000, while Hills estimates that 150,000 out of about half a million Moriscos were expelled. Lynch estimates that only about 10,000 Moriscos remained in Spain after the 1609-1614 operations. See A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., pp. 83-95; H. Lapeyre, Géographie de l'Espagne Morisque, Paris, 1959, pp. 203-204; G. Hills, 1970, op. cit., p. 58; and J. Lynch, 1969, op. cit., p. 48.

Note that Vicens Vives estimates that only 300,000 of the total Muslim population of Spain of one million emigrated between 1432-1520. See J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p. 292.

There were mainly Mudéjares (from the Arabic mudajjan or left behind) or Muslims left under Christian rule from the time of the Reconquista of 1492. See also p. 110 for Hozafana.

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These were mainly Mudéjares (from the Arabic mudajjan or "left behind") or Muslims left under Christian rule from the time of the Reconquista of 1492. See also p. 110 for Hozafana.

There were relatively few Moriscos in Andalucía. The majority of them left after the fall of the Kingdom of Granada in 1492. Most of the remainder had been dispersed throughout Castile after the failure of the abortive rebellion of Alpujarras (1566-1571). See J. Lynch, 1969, op. cit., p. 45; and J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p. 335.

Alpujarra, for example, a predominantly Moorish area until their expulsion after a rebellion in 1572 saw its population fall from 1,293 vecinos (1,242 of whom were Moriscos) to 545 vecinos after resettlement. See G. Núñez Muñeq, "La población y las formas de aprovechamiento de la Alpujarra Oriental," Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 29, No. 115, May, 1963, p. 258.

Lapeyre gives rates of natural increase in the Kingdom of Valencia (1565-1609) as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morisco</td>
<td>69.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>44.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


According to E. Loreu-Rey, Els Inmigrants Franceses a Barcelona, Barce-
Ref. pp61-63


Nadal and Giralt have been able to show that French ultra-Pyrenean immigration into Barcelona began to decline from 1630, while Arranz Herrero and Grau Fernández in a study of three craft guilds in Barcelona found that there were no apprentices of French origin contracted during the 1761-1770 period. See J. Nadal and E. Giralt, La Population Catalane de 1553 à 1717, Paris, 1960; and M. Arrenz Herrero and A. Grau Fernández, "Problemas de inmigración y asimilación en la Barcelona del siglo XVIII", Geografía. Vol.4, No.1, Jan.-Jun., 1970, p.74.


A. Domínguez Ortiz, 1963, op. cit., p.95.


Tibid.


(174) The victory over abnormal mortality in the eighteenth century may have first been achieved in the peripheral regions because of better nutrition. See J. Nadal, "Demografía y economía en los orígenes de la Cataluña moderna, En ejemplo local: Palamós", Estudios de Historia Moderna, Vol.6, 1959, p.326 ff.


(141) Ibid.

(142) J. Klein, op. cit., p.344; and R. Leonhard, A.rnapolitik und A.rnaireform
The pattern of compound (historical) depopulation was rather different from that of "current" depopulation (as recorded in the 1797 Census). Houston cites an estimate of 22,318 isolated churches in Old Castile about 1800 "where presumably hamlets or villages once stood." See J.I.I. Houston, 1964, op. cit., pp. 242-243.


Arranz Herrero and Grau Fernández found that while 74.2% of new apprentices contracted by three Barcelona craft guilds during the 1761-1770 period were not natives of the city, Barcelona's area of attraction was reduced in the eighteenth century. See M. Arranz Herrero and R. Grau Fernández, op. cit., pp.74-75.


Only about 25% of the total Spanish population in the eighteenth century could be classified as active. See J. Vicens Vives, op. cit., p.436.

11. Ibid. Twelve per cent of the population of Cádiz (the most cosmopolitan city in Spain) were foreign born in 1797.


Ref. p.65


(212) Grigg makes the valid point that "it is often forgotten that the developed countries all experienced remarkable changes in their farming before the first stages of industrialization began. Gradual but sometimes revolutionary changes took place in Western Europe from the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries which, at first, allowed agriculture to provide labour for the "growth industries"of the period without any fall in total output, much of the capital investment also coming from the agricultural sector. According to Grigg, this flow was reversed by the end of the nineteenth century. Agriculture, which had sparked off the industrial revolution, became increasingly dependent upon the industrial sector for machinery, for cheap fertilizers, for the processing of its goods and for their marketing and distribution. See E. Grigg, "The rural revolution," The Geographical Magazine, Vol.45, No.10, July, 1973 (b), pp.734-735.


4 While the point at which a reduction in the absolute number of rural workers in the West usually occurred in the nineteenth century, in the opinion of Daw Har, it is possible that that point would never be reached in South East Asia. Rapid urbanization in the region has been paralleled by an even greater expansion of rural population. Quoted by F. Wilshe and R. Richter, op. cit., p.44.

(214) These three phases coincide more or less with Giner's three periods of industrialization in Spain:
(a) From 1943 (becoming more apparent after 1954);
(b) After the First World War;
(c) After 1959.

(215) See f.30.


In substantiation of this theory the industrial population of Spain according to the 1837 Census was still only 243,867. See A. Earvaud, op. cit., p.124.

While the Castilian heartland met the demands of an increased population in the nineteenth century by an extension of the cultivated zone (rotaciones nuevas), the rest of Western Europe solved the problem generally through industrialization or an intensification of agriculture. For the unique French case, however, see L. Billingro, "Technological resistance", No.6 in the series France from Waterloo to World War II, *The Geographical Magazine*, Vol.43, No.6, Mar., 1970, pp.349-553. For Western Europe see R. Carr, op. cit., p.197.

It is likely that Vicens Vives based his 1830 hypothesis regarding migration on increasing industrialization and railway economics. According to this source, the cost per kilometre travelled fell from 40.93 ptas. in 1364 to 2.93 ptas. in 1334. See J. Vicens Vives, 1969, op. cit., p.637.

Evidence from the United Kingdom indicates that the development of rail transport aided and accelerated migration in the nineteenth century but did not cause it. J. Saville, op. cit., p.9.

The average annual increase of population in Spain during the nineteenth
The average national figure for 1377 was 3.5%.


(233) This was partly due to the peculiar institutions of the Spaniards. According to Davis and Oasis, sanitation, education, utilities and amusements, were fostered in the city but not elsewhere... everything, including economic advantage, political patronage, and cultural support... was to be found there. Cityward migration stimuli thus existed for labouring and landowning classes alike. See D. Davis and A. Oasis, "Urbanization in Latin America", in P.K. Eatt and A.J. Reiss, (ed.), op. cit.

(244) D.J. Dwyer, 1963, op. cit., p.359.

(245) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.54.

(246) According to Estalella and Gubom, thirty-seven of the provincial capitals in 1900 had "an urban structure based nearly exclusively on the
service sector (nineteen of which had more than 50% of their active populations employed in services), and these were regionally grouped rather than along axes of communication. See E. Eustelina and E. Gubom, «Estructura funcional de las ciudades espafioas en 1900», Estudios Geográficos, Vol.3, No.110, Feb., 1970, pp.22-23 and 27.

(247) J. Moreader, La Ciutat d'Unlindo, Barcelona, 1953.


(255) F. Iwins, Museo de Llorente, Municipal Alumbrado Estudio de Sociedad Urbana, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Monografías Sociológicas No.1, Barcelona, 1960, p.35.

(256) J.I. Houston, 1964, on. cit., p.313; and V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, on. cit., p.41.

(257) R. Carr, on. cit., p.416.

(258) Madrid (likened by Pérez Galdós to an "antihill" with its population confined within the restricting limits of walls erected in 1529) had a density of population in 1557 of 254 per hectare - greater than that of contemporary Paris or London. See V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, on. cit., p.35.

(259) J.I. Houston, 1964, on. cit., p.313.


(261) Jovellanos, writing in 1787, referred to "la estrechez en que vive la población de Madrid" and proposed "su ensanche". Quoted from Ministerio de la Vivienda, Comisaría General para la Ordenación Urbana de Madrid y Alrededores, Plan General de Ordenación Urbana del Área Metropolitana de Madrid, Vol.1, Análisis de Estructura Urbana, Madrid, 1962, p.35. See also C.I. de Castro, Historia Descriptiva del Anteproyecto de Ensanche de Madrid, Imprenta de José G. de la Peña, Madrid, 1860.

(262) Other cities had similar schemes. The ensanche in Bilbao, for example, was begun in 1876. See Cárnicas Españolas, El 2.2. Plan de Provisión Social, Asistencia Social y Beneficencia de la Piel de una Empresa, Vol.1, Euramérica, Madrid, 1965, p.33 (This information is supplied by L. Arregui, in the chapter entitled "Doce Monografías de Una Zona: Bilbao").


(265) In some instances this pattern was repeated at intervals. For example, the public works in Barcelona (1921-1929) associated with the Exposición Universal of Montjuic (1922) and the construction of the Metro; the expan-
Ref. pp. 58-69


(263) Ruiz Almansa has shown that the "pull" of Spanish urban centres was only capable of absorbing about 40% of the rural outflow during the 1900-1930 period. See J. Ruiz Almansa, 1946, op. cit., pp. 17-18.


(265) 85.6 growth-rate in population was achieved between 1336 and 1587. See A. Jutglar, "Perspectiva Histórica de la Fenomenología Inmigratoria en Cataluña", in A. Jutglar, et. al., La Inmigración en Cataluña, Edic. de Lliterals, Barcelona, 1960, p. 9.

(266) Ibid.

Pallars in the Catalan Pyrenees, for example, lost over 30% of its population between 1869 and 1900. See V. López Gómez, op. cit., p. 706.


See also details for the whole city extracted from the padrón municipal of 1890, quoted in A. Cabo Alonso, 1961, op. cit., p. 365.

(271) Oviedo (Asturias) was the most important individual province - supplying 3.7% of the total population of the street in 1890, and 4.5% of the total population of the city in 1930. See M. de Terán, 1961, op. cit., p. 400; and A. Cabo Alonso, 1961, op. cit., p. 365.

Of the 55,000 workers censored in Madrid in 1843, 24,000 were domestic servants and 15,000 public servants. See V. Simancas and J. Eizalde, op. cit., p. 43.

Asturias has a tradition of supplying Madrid with men for dirty or unsociable jobs - for example as serenos (night-watchmen). In North Castile, there was a tradition for unmarried females to migrate to Madrid at an early age to seek employment as domestic servants. See V. Sáez, "La Asimilación de los Emigrados en la Sociedad Catalana", El Punto de Vic-
On a more personal note, the author's wife's grandparents were all sent to Madrid at an early age. From the point of view of assimilation into city life, it is interesting to know that one marriage was contracted between long-distance and the other between short-distance lifetime migrants. The origins of her grandparents were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maternal Grandparents</th>
<th>Paternal Grandparents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Judela (La Vera)</td>
<td>Puente Viesgo (Cantabria)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Alonso (Madrid)</td>
<td>Tomelloso (Ciudad Real)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although near enough to serve as a dormitory settlement for the capital.


Although near enough to serve as a dormitory settlement for the capital.


The rural population of Arribes de Duero, for example, increased by 13.3% between 1860 and 1897. The fall after that date was mainly attributable to the arrival of phylloxera. See J. Crespo Redondo, op. cit., pp.123 and 133; and E. Munoz, "Notas sobre la geografia del bajo Tajuña", Estudios Geográficos, Vol.5, No.26, Feb., 1947, p.38 ff.


According to J.J. Morato in El Heraldo de Madrid, 1903, salaries in Spain rose by only 13.1% between 1827 and 1902 compared with a rise in the cost of living during the same period of 21.6%. Cited in A. Marvaud, op. cit., pp.125-126.

Apart from the Carlist Wars there were no less than forty-three pronunciamientos (insurrections) between 1814 and 1923. See R. Oliveira, Politics, Economics and Men of Modern Spain 1808-1946, London, 1946, p.40.

R. Carr, op. cit., p.413.

Unrestricted emigration overseas was allowed only after 1873. See S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.54; and L. Gonzales-Rothvoss, "Influencia de la migración en el crecimiento de la población española en los últimos cien años 1850-1950", Revista Internacional de Sociología, No.11, Jan.-Mar., 1953, pp.61-84 (Also published by Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, 1953).


The tradition of migrating to the Americas had not disappeared. The revolutionary changes of the eighteenth century including the suppression of the Mesta and the disentailment of estates had strengthened this tradition. There was, for example, an uninterrupted migration stream from Salduero (Soria) from 1820 onwards. See A. García Terrel, op. cit., pp.31.

J. Ruiz Almansa, 1945, op. cit., p.17.


Much of the overseas migration from both Galicia and Murcia was temporary and seasonal in nature. See O. Queille, "La densidad de población en la provincia de Murcia", Estudios Geográficos, Vol.13, No.47, May, 1952, p.368.


Less important regional movements of population were from Upper to Lower Andalucía (until the middle of the nineteenth century), and from the Basque provinces to Bilbao. See A. Higuera Arnao, 1961, op. cit., p.143.
Ref. pp.70-72


(286) A. Melén Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1951, op. cit., p.200. It should be noted, however, that negative "push" factors in the 1901-1910 period were less than in earlier or later decades. See J. Nadal, 1956, op. cit., p.200.


(283) Ministerio del Trabajo, La Dinámica del Trabajo 1955, Madrid, 1966. According to Presidencia del Gobierno, Comisión del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Factores Económicos y Sociales del Desarrollo, Memoria de la monografía, Madrid, 1964, p.151, the fall in the agricultural population expressed as a percentage of the total active population was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Percentage Fall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901-1910</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-1920</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-1930</td>
<td>7.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(287) Con the lack of demand for manufactured goods in the internal market (after the "boom" period of rapid industrialization which was stimulated by the First World War) led to a switch to the construction of dwellings in Barcelona. See J. Fontana, Cambio Económico y Actividades Políticas en la España del Siglo XIX, Ariel, Barcelona, 1973, p.192.

(283) A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.9, gives net in-migration figures for all of Spain as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Net in-migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901-1910</td>
<td>370,921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-1920</td>
<td>322,105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the 1911-1920 period, the province of Madrid saw an increase of only 1.2% (the same as the national average) in the number of persons born outside the province where census reported, compared with an increase of 3.1% for the province of Barcelona. See J. Nadal, 1966, op. cit., p.130.


According to A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Tables A.9 and A.10, the city of Madrid increased its share of net national in-migration from 21.7% (1901-1910) to 22.5% (1911-1920), compared with Barcelona which had 13.6% (1901-1910) and 17.6% (1911-1920).

Madrid, 1964..., op. cit., p.532. The most important contingents of life-time migrants to the city in 1920 were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional regions</th>
<th>Rest of Spain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Castile</td>
<td>Andalucía 10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Castile</td>
<td>Galicia 5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremadura</td>
<td>León 5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asturias 3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rest 21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total 53.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also H. García Cortés, Madrid y su Porvenir, V. Rico, Madrid, 1931, pp.57-63.

R. Tamarés, 1962, op. cit., p.132, notes that depopulation affected the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Provinces</th>
<th>Percentage Nat. Territory</th>
<th>Coeff. Pop. Loss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1911-1920</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24.70</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-1930</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.58</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.8.

A regular bus service was established, for example, between Rasquera and the provincial capital of Soria (40 kilometres away) in 1923. See L. Urbez, Jaurrieta. Un pueblo interesante para la geografía de los paisajes humanizados, Estudios Geográficos, Vol.9, No.32, 1949, pp.777-829.
The decline of mining was related to the world economic crisis. The mining villages of the Sierra Morena like Santa Elena, in Cádiz and Guadix, reached their maximum population in 1730 then declined. See A. Higuera Anual, 1961, on. cit., p.145; and F. Quiros Llanos, “Pueblos mineros” in Guadix, Estudios Geográficos, Vol.17, No.63, May, 1965, pp.212 and 216.

Mining provinces like Córdoba and León showed larger net migration losses for the 1921-1930 period. See A. García Barbaacho, 1967, on. cit., Table A.3.

Mining provinces like Oviedo and León showed large net migration losses for the 1921-1930 period. See A. García Barbaacho, 1967, on. cit., Table A.3.

Of particular interest was the migration from the provinces of Zaragoza and Aragón to the city of Zaragoza and Aragón, see J. I. Martínez Olmedo, on. cit., p.145; and P. Cuéllar Linares, “Pueblos mineros” in Guadix, Estudios Geográficos, Vol.17, No.63, May, 1965, pp.212 and 216.

Mining provinces like Oviedo and León showed large net migration losses for the 1921-1930 period. See A. García Barbaacho, 1967, on. cit., Table A.3.

According to de Ballester Ros, on. cit., p.156, notwithstanding, 21% of the non-Catalon population of the city in 1950 still came from León and Aragón. See J. I. Martínez Olmedo, on. cit., p.15. The exhibition of 1922 was an important factor in the changing pattern of in-migration, in the opinion of Candel. According to Martínez Olmedo, however, there was relatively little in-migration into the city between 1925 and 1929. See ibid., p.65. Another reason for the changing pattern of in-migration was that Spain was no longer "a series of water-tight compartments" rather than a nation. See J. Ortega y Gasset, “España sin vórtices”, Revista de Occidente, 1921, translated by H. Adams, Invertebrate Spain, New York, 1937, p.41.

According to Presidencia del Gobierno, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Reseña Estadística de la Provincia de Madrid, Madrid, 1959, the population of the city increased as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Natural Increase</th>
<th>Illiteration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901-1910</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-1920</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-1930</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I. Ballester Ros, on. cit., p.156, gives somewhat different percentages.

The higher natural increases in the 1921-1930 period were partly related to a higher birth-rate associated with a young population, and partly to the disappearance of a savage influenza epidemic (1917-1920). Madrid in 1920 had a negative natural increase of -0.19 per thousand inhabitants. See Bernabe Estadística, 1920, on. cit., p.25.

The epidemics which affected Madrid in 1900, 1901, 1902 and 1917-1920 (see I. Ballester Ros, on. cit., p.158; and Ayuntamiento de Madrid, In Vivienda Insalubre, Madrid, 1914, pp.21-23) may have been related to high population densities in the central districts of the city (see J. de Torán, “Desarrollo espacial de Madrid a partir de 1363”, Estudios Geográficos, Vol.22, No.65, 1961, p.69; and Mesonero Romanos, El Antiguo Madrid, Madrid, 1861, p.176) and insanitary housing conditions in the periphery (see O. Loise, 1962, on. cit., p.xvi). In the case of London, Kellett thinks that between 1840 and 1900 over 120,000 people were displaced by the building of new railway stations, streets and docks. See J. A. Kellett, 1969, on. cit., pp.327-328. The displaced population refused to move far from their centres of work, over-population producing "dark pockets of deepening squalor and degradation", See F. Sheppard, on. cit., p.14. An inevitable rise in the London mortality-rate followed, which is paralleled in Madrid.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Mortality-rate per thousand pop.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1340-1349</td>
<td>London: 25.2; Madrid: 35.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1350-1359</td>
<td>London: 23.6; Madrid: 37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1360-1369</td>
<td>London: 24.3; Madrid: 35.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1853-1862 period; ± 1866-1872 period.

Ref. pp.74-75


(337) The 1940 Census figures are unfortunately unreliable. See Factores Humanos y Sociales... 1964, op. cit., p.153.

An increase of 0.38 in the agricultural population expressed as a percentage of the total active population occurred between 1931 and 1940. See Factores Humanos y Sociales del Desarrollo, Resumen de la Monografía, op. cit., p.61.


(339) The 1940 figures are unfortunately unreliable. See Factores Humanos y Sociales... 1964, op. cit., p.153.

(340) The percentage of the total Spanish population living in provincial capitals increased by 2.02 between 1931-1940 compared with 2.42 between 1922-1930. See A. Hernández Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1945, op. cit., p.93.

(341) J. Gavira, op. cit., p.411.

For rural depopulation during this period see A. Hernández Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1941, op. cit., pp.402-403.


Migrants from the south in the 1920s and 1930s had mainly been from the drought-affected provinces of Almería and Murcia. See ibid., pp.33-40; and G. Brenan, op. cit., p.124.

(343) The first house was constructed in 1925 by an Asturiano, the second was a tavern built by a native of nearby Valléscas, the third a house built by an in-migrant from Martos in 1927. See C. de Castro, op. cit., p.505.


(345) The 1940s were very hard years for most peasants in the Spanish countryside. See R. Rubio, op. cit., pp.79 and 97.

Conditions were particularly bad in Andalucía 1941-1942 - el año del Hambre. See F. Candel, 1965, op. cit., p.117; P. Vilar, 1967, op. cit., p.123; and R.P. Bradshaw, op. cit., p.69.


In the immediate post-war period the reconstruction of towns and even public buildings which had suffered war damage was a minor "pull" for rural-to-urban migrants. See E. García Manrique, 1961, op. cit., pp.71-72 and 172-173; and K. de Terán, "Siguenza. Estudio de geografía urbana," Estudios Geográficos, Vol.1, No.25, Nov., 1946, p.640.

Expressed as a percentage of the total active population. See Factores Humanos y Sociales del Desarrollo, Resumen de la Monografía, op. cit., p.151.
Lugo, Almeria y Guadalajara provinces.

The apparent contradiction between a large decline in the agricultural population and relatively little rural depopulation, is related to the abnormal retention of surplus agricultural labour in the countryside during the 1930s.

The net in-migration figures were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Net in-migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1921-1930</td>
<td>1,019,026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-1940</td>
<td>846,147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941-1950</td>
<td>1,255,353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Ibid., Table A.10, gives net in-migration to provincial capitals as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Net in-migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1921-1930</td>
<td>803,242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-1940</td>
<td>750,254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941-1950</td>
<td>927,135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Southern Spain improved communications with the outside world - especially the installation of regular bus services - usually affected villages after 1940. See A. Luna Fernández, op. cit., p.57; R. Rubio, op. cit., pp.52-53; and J. Nadal, 1966, op. cit., p.435.


A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.10.

On the evidence of increasing net migration balances, short-distance in-migration to provincial capitals would appear to be of regional importance between 1931 and 1940, in Galicia and Western Andalucia (including Badajoz). According to Hernet, however, Southern Spain lost 504,000 of its population to the rest of Spain and abroad during the 1941-1955 period, only 31,000 migrating within the region from provincial areas to capital cities. See G. Hernet, op. cit., p.35.

Almería and Guadalajara. See A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.10.


J.L. Urcarte del Río, "Ciudades que crecen y campos que se despueblan", Anales de Economía. (2nd series), No.4, Jan.-Jun., 1963, p.792.

This process became more apparent in the 1951-1960 period especially in the case of Madrid.


Barcelona incorporated part of Santa Coloma de Gramenet in 1943 but was only 99.9 sq.kms. in total area in 1960. Madrid, in contrast, annexed Carabanchel Alto, Carabanchel Bajo and Chamartín de la Rosa in 1943; Aravaca, Barajas, Guillas, Guallajes and Hortaleza in 1943; Puencarral, El Pardo, Vallecitos and Vicedo in 1950; Villaverde in 1954. The effect of these annexations was to increase its total area from 66.75 sq. kms. in 1943 to 607.09 sq. kms. in 1960. See M. de Dolsa y Capdevila, op. cit., p.24; J.J. Martínez Hare Odena, op. cit., p.17; Madrid, 1961, op. cit., pp.69-70; and Memoria Oficial de la Industria de Madrid, Memoria Anuario Industrial 1967, Madrid, 1968, p.13.

For details of "Gran Bilbao" see H. Ferrer Rojas, "Urbanization in Spain, with particular reference to Greater Bilbao", paper read at the Fourth Annual Conference of the Iberian Social Studies Association, University of Southampton, 15-18 April, 1971. According to the source, the annexation of nearby municipios mainly occurred in the last third of the 19th century.

J. Lleóis, "El movimiento demográfico en Cataluña durante los últimos cien años", Memorias de la Reial Academia de Ciencias y Artes de Barcelona, Vol. 72, No. 12, 1961; and J. Martínez Hare Odena, op. cit., pp.11-12.
The economic slump of 1931-1933 was followed by the Civil War (1936-1939) and a further period of economic restrictions. See A. Jutglar, *op. cit.* 1960, *op. cit.* p.13; and the Consejo de Economía Nacional, quoted in J. Ros Jimeno, "La Población y el Desarrollo Económico en España," *Conversaciones sobre El Movimiento Social,* *op. cit.* p.37. (1966 (a))


The city of Barcelona received only 72,000 immigrants (1935-1939) and 42,000 (1940-1941) compared with 141,000 new arrivals (1930-1934) and 115,000 (1945-1949). See J.M. Martínez Ochando, "La Población y el Desarrollo Económico en España," *in Conversaciones sobre El Movimiento Social,* *op. cit.* p.337. (1966 (a))

In Barcelona, for example, a crisis in the building industry helped to brake in-migrant flows after 1955. See M. de Bolós y Capdevila, *op. cit.* p.213. (1970, vol. 2, no. 12, p.97, 1966 (a)).


The nine or ten provincial capitals with increased net in-migration compared with the previous decade were Alicante, Barcelona, Bilbao, La Coruña, Madrid, Palencia, San Sebastián, Vitoria, Zaragoza and probably Valencia (see p.93).

Twenty-six capitals showed a net migration loss for the decade according to Plan C.C., op. cit., Vol.1, Madrid, 1965, p.212.

According to A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table 2.15, p.37, the percentage of net in-migration to provincial capitals declined after 1931-1940. The details are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Net In-migration to Prov. Capitals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901-1910</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-1920</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-1930</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-1940</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941-1950</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951-1960</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expressed as a percentage of total net in-migration.

Of thirty-two main in-migrant centres with over 5,000 net immigrants in the 1936-1950 period, only eleven municipios were provincial capitals. See Factores Humanos y Sociales, 1964, op. cit., Table 4.5, p.134.

The percentage of the population still living in their municipios of birth in 1950 was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Static Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Galicia</td>
<td>86.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Castile-Extremadura</td>
<td>82.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andalucía</td>
<td>76.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Castile-León</td>
<td>72.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levante</td>
<td>62.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantabrian-Basque lands</td>
<td>69.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aragón</td>
<td>69.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataluña</td>
<td>52.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Excluding Madrid; excluding Barcelona.


The percentage of the population still living in their municipios of birth in 1950 was as follows:

(382) Houston's statistics (see f.300) refer to internal mobility. They ignore external mobility. The population of Galicia has been very mobile in this context. His statistics not only ignore the vast numbers from this region who have emigrated overseas but also those who have returned from overseas to their native municipios.
(393) E. García Manrique, 1951, op. cit., p.66.

(394) "Madrid, 1926...", op. cit., p.50; and C. Trías Bertrán, "El Fenómeno Migratorio en Barcelona y Madrid", in *Conversaciones sobre Inmigración Interior*, op. cit., p.50.


(396) J.L. Martínez Haro Odena, *op. cit.*, Table 13, p.64; and C. Trías Bertrán, 1966, *op. cit.*, p.50.

Thirty per cent of the in-migrants to Barcelona in the 1955-1960 period were from Andalucía.


(407) Plan C.C.E., *op. cit.*, Vol.1, pp.213-221, lists 135 urban centres (excluding provincial capitals) with net in-migration gains for the decade, to which, according to Garcia Barbancho, 1967, *op. cit.*, Table A.10, must be added 34 provincial capitals.


(410) The peak year for transoceanic emigration was 1912 with 134,000 leaving the country. See R. Carr, *op. cit.*, p.413; C. Martí Buxill, *op. cit.*, p.203, gives a maximum net migration loss of 125,702 for 1912.

Spain had more emigrants per head of population than any other European country during the 1900-1914 period. See R. de Roda y Júnio, *op. cit.*, p.3.

Despite the decline in migration as a result of the First World War, Spain still accounted for 22% of transoceanic emigrants in the 1916-1920 period. See W.F. Milloxo and R. Foremcy, *op. cit.*, Vol.1, Table 2.


(412) Ibid., p.160.


(414) E. Guimaraes Italares, "El Retorno de Migrantes y su Problematización", in *Conversaciones sobre Inmigración Interior*, *op. cit.*, p.37; and Organización para el Desarrollo Económico Europeo, Spain Economic Survey, C.E.D.
PART THREE

INTERNAL MIGRATION PATTERNS IN SPAIN POST 1960


Liberalization of the regime did not, however, lead to agrarian reform. See S. Ciner, 1972, op. cit., p.66.


(2) See p.48 and f.33 (PART TWO).

All permanent changes of residence involving a change of municipio should be recorded as arrivals (altas) or departures (bajas) in the Municipal Civil Register (Padrón). In practice, many migrants (despite the fines to which they are liable) fail to report their departure because they do not plan to leave permanently. A common example is where a married man leaves first in search of work and delays official notification of his departure until he has found a relatively secure job and returns to his village to collect his family and belongings. In theory, men are more likely to register their arrivals and departures in view of employment difficulties. See, for example, the announcement which appears daily in all newspapers concerning the Servicio de Colocación as set up by the Ley de Colocación of the 1st of February, 1943. In practice, it is not unknown for employers to take fiscal advantage of these


The three stages can be dated approximately as follows:

(a) Local stage (1375-1310),
(b) Regional stage (1310-1927),
(c) National stage (1927-1959).

(406) R.F. Bradshaw, from a privately circulated article in the University of Keble, circa 1399, p.14, which formed the basis of his article in Iberian Studies, 1972, op. cit.


(409) Ibid., pp.1-5.

(410) A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.7.

Zeilinsky suggests that each stage of the "mobility transition" begins in an area conceived as a "hearth" before spreading outwards. See Z. Zeilinsky, "The hypothesis of the mobility transition", Geographical Review, Vol.61, 1971, pp.219-249.

(411) The provinces of Murcia, Badajoz, Huelva and Sevilla.


(414) See pp.97-93.
clandestine migrants who are engaged as casual labourers. See G. Fofi, op. cit., p.272.

Official Spanish Census records make a distinction between población de derecho (theoretical or official population) and población de hecho (actual population). Such a distinction was useful in the past because of the common occurrence of seasonal or temporary migrations. See the Ley de Régimen Local y su Reglamento, articles 41 and 51, quoted in Presidencia del Gobierno, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Censo de la Población de España 1970. Poblaciones de Derecho y de Hecho en los Municipios, Madrid, 1971, p.v.

Annual population registers (from which it is possible to calculate annual rates of migration) are now kept in a number of West European countries including Sweden, Norway, Denmark, West Germany, Netherlands, Belgium, Italy and Spain. See A.J. Fielding, “Internal Migration in Western Europe”, in L.A. Cosuliski and R. Kansell Prothero, (ed.), op. cit., Table 16.1, p.237.

(3) R.P. Bradshaw, op. cit., p.70.

(4) See pp.46-47.

(5) These include both internal and external net out-migrants. There is only a 0.95% difference between national net in-migration figures. Calculations in each instance were made at a provincial scale (see pp.34-35) the workings are shown in full below:

(a) net out-migration

\[
\frac{1,557,632 - 1,468,594}{1,557,632} \times 100 = 5.63
\]

(b) net in-migration

\[
\frac{1,100,772 - 1,091,303}{1,100,772} \times 100 = 0.85
\]

(*) It is assumed that García Barbancho's statistics are more accurate. See f.6.

(6) A. García Barbancho, Las Migraiones Interiores Españolas en 1951-1965, Estudios del Instituto de Desarrollo Económico, Madrid, 1970, Tables A.7 and A.9, pp.72-73; and Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., Table 1.4.3.1, pp.100-101.

(7) These are both gross in- and out-migration figures which curiously exactly balance each other in every Spanish instance. The workings are shown in full:

\[
\frac{1,740,256 - 1,750,135}{1,740,256} \times 100 = 0.53
\]

(*) It is assumed that the INE's statistics are more accurate) See Anuario Estadístico de España (various years), op. cit., and Banco Español de Crédito, Anuario del Banco Español 1971, Madrid, 1971, p.403.


(11) It is assumed here for purposes of comparison that the I.N.E. statistics which are certainly under-estimated (see f. 54 PART TEE, and f. 53) are total migration figures.

The migration efficiencies were calculated as follows:

(a) out-migration
\[
\frac{1,345,988}{1,915,692} \times 100 = 70.37\%
\]

(b) in-migration
\[
\frac{1,103,808}{1,915,692} \times 100 = 57.55\%
\]

(* Internal migrants at the partido judicial scale. See p.34.)

The statistics were extracted from A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Tables A.7 and A.8, pp.72-73; and Migration y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.41.


(13) The migration efficiency for out-migration has first to be reduced from 96.57% to 73.55% to allow for external migration.

(14) The rectification of Civil Register population statistics is carried out by the municipal authorities themselves every year ending in five. The lack of homogeneity in the completion of this exercise seriously affects the quality of the results. See Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., p.17.

(15) Although the net balance figures are based on more reliable official Census records the migration efficiency index is quite wrong. See pp.86-87.

(16) The migration efficiency indices were calculated as follows:

(a) out-migration
\[
\frac{2,500,908}{5,719,712} \times 100 = 43.60\%
\]

(b) in-migration
\[
\frac{2,186,132}{5,719,712} \times 100 = 38.77\%
\]

The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.53; Anuario del Mercado Español 1971, op. cit., p.49; Anuario Estadístico de España (various years), op. cit.; and Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., Table 5.1.1.II, p.22.

(17) The mean figure is:
\[
69.00 \times 53.77 \times 96.57 \times 73.55 = 74.42\%
\]

(18) R.P. Bradshaw, op. cit., p.70; and f.21 PART T7.9.


(19) The calculations in Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., Table 5.1.1.II, p.22), are assumed to have been made at a provincial scale based on evidence given on p.93.

(20) It is not suggested anywhere in this section of PART T7.9 that our corrected statistics are in fact correct, but only to prove that Spanish official and semi-official internal migration statistics are often obviously wrong.

It is usually impossible to arrive at the correct figures since there is
no yardstick by which to measure errors of major proportion which spoil both net balance and directly-recorded statistics. The latter are especially liable to error since they are issued without reference to the sobering influence of other statistical restraints.

(21) The mathematical workings are shown here in full as follows:

(a) **No. of provinces** = 50 ≠ 3.77
   **No. of regions** = 14
   **No. of partidos judiciales** = 487 ≠ 9.74
   Therefore
   \[ \frac{3.77 \times 100}{9.74} = 38.69\% \]
   The areal scale error at partido judicial level is therefore 38.69%.

(b) Similarly
   Net out-migrants (provincial scale) - net out-migrants (regional scale) = 1,537,632 - 1,417,123 = 120,509
   while
   Net out-migrants (partido judicial scale) - net out-migrants (provincial scale) = 303,116
   Therefore
   \[ \frac{120,509}{303,116} \times 100 = 40.12\% \]
   The net migration scale error at partido judicial level is therefore 40.12%.

(c) The similarity of the statistics suggests that there is a correlation between the areal scale error of 38.69% and the net migration scale error of 40.12%.
   It is thus possible to use this correlation to estimate the net migration error at a municipal scale by using the areal scale error as follows:

(d) **No. of partidos judiciales** = 487 ≠ 9.74
   **No. of provinces** = 50
   **No. of municiias** = 2,202 ≠ 13.09
   **No. of partidos judiciales** = 487 \( \times \) 1960 figures
   Therefore
   \[ \frac{9.74 \times 100}{13.09} = 51.56\% \]
   The areal scale error at municipal level is therefore 51.56%.

(e) Net out-migrants calculated at partido judicial level must therefore be about 51.56% of those at a municipal level.
   The number of net out-migrants calculated at a municipal level therefore is:
   \[ \frac{1,537,632}{51.56\%} \times 100 = 2,932,521.2 \]
   The estimated number of net out-migrants at municipal level is therefore 3,500,291.

(f) The calculations for net in-migrants show identical errors of scale.
   Since there were 1,403,833 net in-migrants at partido judicial level, the number calculated at municipal level would be about:
   \[ \frac{1,403,833}{51.56\%} \times 100 = 2,732,521.2 \]
The estimated number of net in-migrants at municipal level is therefore 2,732,521.

A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., p.15, estimates the real number of net out-migrants as oscillating around the two million figure. The under-estimation of net out-migration at each level using García Barbancho’s statistics (see Table VI of this thesis, p.85) would be:

(a) provincial level

\[ 1,557,832 - 1,415,125 = 124,759 \]

Therefore

\[ \frac{124,759}{1,557,832} \times 100 = 8.11\% \]

(b) partido judicial level

\[ 1,645,993 - 1,291,332 = 303,116 \]

therefore

\[ \frac{303,116}{1,645,993} \times 100 = 18.69\% \]

(c) municipal level

\[ 2,000,000 - 1,845,993 = 154,002 \]

therefore

\[ \frac{154,002}{2,000,000} \times 100 = 7.70\% \]

(* García Barbancho’s estimated statistics)

(d) It is suggested that the decreasing percentage error between partido judicial and municipal levels is unlikely in view of the increasing areal scale errors noted in f.21. Our figure of 42.44% is therefore more acceptable than García Barbancho’s 7.70% under-estimation of net out-migration (see f.29) and was arrived at as follows:

\[ 3,530,291 - 1,845,993 = 1,734,293 \]

therefore

\[ \frac{1,734,293}{3,530,291} \times 100 = 49.44\% \]

(* see f.21 (e).)


Madrid is chosen, firstly, because of the experience gained by the municipal authorities in recording migrant arrivals and departures since 1955; and secondly because it seems safe to assume that the Civil Register rectification of population statistics carried out in Madrid, the capital, is above average accuracy (see f.14) and therefore relevant here.


(25) Ibid.


(27) The corrected figure of 307,024 gross in-migrants arriving in the capital is still less than the 327,841 net in-migrants estimated by A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.5, p.69, and probably still too low (see p.87).
It should be emphasized that in cities like Madrid where there is a net inward flow of young couples who subsequently have children, natural increase will be inflated and the net migration residual subsequently deflated. See R. L. Welch, 1971, op. cit., pp. 56-57.

(22) It seems logical at this point to suggest that since the city of Madrid absorbed 9.05% of the total national recorded in-migrants during the 1961-1965 period, then the city represents a fair sample of the under-estimation of national gross in-migration.

Although the figures are conveniently comparable, we have seen on the one hand that the percentage of 56.43 is too low for the city of Madrid (see f. 27) while there is evidence on the other hand that it is too high for the nation as a whole. If total, national, recorded in-migration statistics for 1963 and 1966 are compared a somewhat lower under-estimation of 37.50% is suggested. See A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p. 33, see Fundación POTISSA, Informe Sociológico sobre la situación Social de España 1970, Dtt. Eurafrica, Madrid, 1970, p. 276; and J. Casorla Pérez, Factores de la estructura socioeconómica de Andalucía Oriental, Publicaciones de la Caja de Ahorros de Granada, Granada, 1965, p. 242.

Moreover, the figure of 37.50% approximates with an estimated 40% uncontrolled migration into the cities of Barcelona and Madrid in 1956 and 1957. See J. Pérez de Tudela Bueso and T. Pérez Sánchez, op. cit., p. 599; and f. 34 PART VII.

A. Rengifo, La Emigración Española a Alemania. Secretaría General Técnica del Ministerio de Trabajo, Madrid, 1965, (published also in Información Comercial Española, No. 392, 1966), estimated clandestine (e.g., non-assisted) emigration of Spaniards to West Germany between 1950 and 1957 as 43.0% of the total. It would seem not unreasonable to see a correlation between uncontrolled internal and external migration statistics. See also f. 46.

Since writing this chapter more information has come to hand in a private communication from Carmen Arribas, Jefe del Servicio de Coordinación Internacional of the Instituto Nacional de Estadística, dated 9th March, 1974. According to Las Migraciones Interiores en España, Decenio 1961-1970, a monograph unpublished at the time of communication, 4,473,026 persons of ten years of age and over changed their municipalities of residence between the Censuses of 1960 and 1970. It is possible by indirect means to calculate the total population changing their municipalities during this period. According to the 1970 Census, there were 6,430,330 persons under the age of ten. Since the mobility rate given in Las Migraciones Interiores en España, Decenio 1961-1970 for the 10-14 age group was 15.57% (slightly below the national average of 16.28%), it can be assumed that the maximum number of migrants under the age of ten would be 15.57% of the total in this age group:

\[
15.57 \times 6,430,330 = 1,001,202.3
\]

therefore the total number of people who changed their municipalities of residence during the decade was:

\[
4,473,026 + 1,001,202.3 = 5,474,228.3
\]

It follows, therefore, that the under-registration of internal migration by the I.N.E. for the decade was:

\[
5,474,228.3 - 3,719,729 = 1,754,499.3
\]

or, expressed as a percentage:

\[
\frac{1,754,499.3}{5,474,228.3} \times 100 = 32.05\%
\]

This percentage of 32.05 under-estimation of internal migration during the 1961-1970 period approximates to the figure of 37.50% given above. It was noted in f. 20 that it is impossible to arrive at correct figures because there is no yardstick by which to measure errors. It should not
therefore be assumed, that our corrected figure of 5474,223 gross internal migrants for the 1961-1970 period is correct, nor is the under-estimation of 32.05%. These are minimum figures, and by no means constant. It can be shown, for example, that Estudio sobre la Población Española under-estimates net out-migration for 1961-1970 by 55.1% and net in-migration by 50.07%. Similarly, García Barbancho’s estimates for 1961-1965 at a partido judicial scale would under-estimate net out-migration for 1961-1970 by 34.52% and net in-migration by 50.05%.

While it has been shown that percentages vary areally, it can also be demonstrated that under-estimations vary according to migrants age-groups:
The under-estimation of internal migration in the 15-24 age-group (by the I.N.E. for 1961-1970) was 19.74%, but for the over 25 age-group 32.05%.
The calculations were as follows:
51.50% of total internal movement of population 1961-1970 took place
in the 1961-1965 period e.g. \( \frac{1,925,602}{3,119,725} \times 100 = 51.50\% \)

During the 1961-1965 period there were 400,135 internal migrants in
the 15-24 age-group.
Therefore, in 1961-1970 the approximate figure would have been:
\( \frac{400,135 \times 100}{51.50} = 776,961.2 \)

Since Las Migraciones Interiores en España, Decenio 1961-1970 gives
963,013 having moved in this age-group, the under-estimation was:
\( \frac{963,013 \times 100}{191,051.8} = 12.74\% \)

Similarly, during the 1961-1965 period there were 954,723 internal
migrants in the over 25 age-group.
Therefore, in 1961-1970 the approximate figure would have been:
\( \frac{954,723 \times 100}{51.50} = 1,853,840.7 \)

Since Las Migraciones Interiores en España, Decenio 1961-1970 gives
3,033,233 having move in this age-group, the under-estimation was:
\( \frac{3,033,233 \times 100}{1,172,222.3} = 32.05\% \)

The serious under-estimation of internal migration for the over 25 age-group made by the I.N.E. is probably due to the fact that much family migration takes place in stages - the father migrating temporarily first, looking for work and a place for his family to live in and not declaring his change of residence until the family joins him permanently.


(30) It would seem fairer to take the national estimated under-estimation of internal migration of 37.50% (see f.29). The difference of 13.98% (e.g. 56.48% - 37.50%) then compares favourably with that of 35.52% between national net and gross internal migration figures based on a mean migration efficiency index of 74.42% (see f.17).

(31) See p.34, f.11 and f.16.
(32) R.P. Bradshaw, op. cit., p.70.
(33) For example, 74.42% (see f.17).
(34) R.P. Bradshaw, op. cit., p.70.
(35) The corrected net in-migration figure is:
\( \frac{1,403,283}{51.50} \times 100 = 2,732,521.3 \)
while the corrected gross in-migration figure is:
\( \frac{1,925,602}{56.48} \times 100 = 3,392,646.6 \)

(* see p.30)
The corrected migration efficiency becomes:

\[
\frac{2,732,521.3}{3,391,653.5} \times 100 = 80.52\% 
\]

Somewhat lower migration efficiency indices of 57.06 and 53.43% can be produced through substituting lower scale error estimates of 40.00 and 37.50% respectively for 56.43% used above. A still lower migration efficiency index of 45.72% can be produced through substituting the scale error estimate of 32.05% calculated above (see f.22).

It is not our intention here to prove which migration efficiency index is correct. The point which is made in the text is that every migration efficiency index which can be allocated to Madrid is most certainly incorrect, regardless of whatever national migration efficiency index is used (see pp.86-87).

(36) A. García Barbancho, 1970, op.cit., Table A.4, p.68.
(37) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.41.
(38) The migration efficiency was calculated as follows:

\[
\frac{361,473}{201,934} \times 100 = 173.20\% 
\]

(39) The corrected migration efficiency was calculated as follows:

(a) The scale error through using the partido judicial rather than the municipio was:

\[
\frac{9}{9} = 9
\]

No. of partidos judiciales
No. of provinces
and

\[
\frac{20.33}{20.33} = 100
\]

No. of partidos judiciales
No. of municipios
The error of scale therefore was:

\[
\frac{9}{20.33} \times 100 = 44.27\%
\]

(b) The corrected net in-migrants were:

\[
\frac{361,473}{44.27} = 816,532.64
\]

(c) While the corrected gross in-migrants were:

\[
\frac{201,934}{56.43} = 357,531.86
\]

(d) So that the corrected migration efficiency was:

\[
\frac{816,532.64}{357,531.86} \times 100 = 223.38\%
\]

Somewhat lower although still incorrect migration efficiency indices of 151.74, 151.63 and 129.60% can be produced through substituting lower scale error estimates of 40.00, 37.50 and 32.05% respectively for 56.43% used above (see f.22 and f.35).

Let the percentage errors bandied about in this section of our thesis appear somewhat excessive, let us hasten to note that for European migrations the error in official statistics may possibly reach up to 100%; and for internal migration the error may be even greater. See G. Hade and J. J. Linz, Estudio Socioeconómico de Andalucía, Vol.2, Factor esHumanos, Elites Locales y Cambio Social en la Andalucía Rural, Estudios del Instituto de Desarrollo Económico, Madrid, 1971, p.54.

(40) Actual population (población de hecho) statistics are compared (see f.2).
(41) A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.2, p.69, gives a natural increase of 227,208; Anuario Estadístico de España (various years), op. cit., gives a natural increase of 227,577.
(42) The discrepancy between net and gross in-migration figures was:

\[
361,473 - 201,934 = 159,545
\]

The under-estimation of gross in-migration was therefore at least:

\[
\frac{159,545}{201,934} \times 100 = 78.90\%
\]
The discrepancy between corrected net and gross in-migration figures was:

\[ 316,532.64 - 357,532.06 = 453,999.70 \]

(8.1) The statistics were extracted from 8.39.

The under-estimation of corrected gross in-migration was therefore about:

\[ 453,999.70 \times 0.10 = 123,332.29 \]

Without correction for errors of scale.

Sevilla and Pontevedra are here doubtfully included as in-migrant provinces on the evidence of net balance statistics. See A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.2, pp.65-66; and Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., pp.102 and 105. According to the I.M.E. they are net out-migrant provinces. See Migración Y Estructura Regional, op. cit., pp.41-42.

The figure of 140.88\% is misleading because in the case of certain provinces such as Pontevedra and Santa Cruz de Tenerife the gross in-migration statistics are obviously deflated by excessive clandestine external migration. These two provinces were also, incidentally, first and third respectively for official, assisted emigration overseas during the 1945-1957 period. See R. Hernida, J. Blasco and L. Guereca, In Emigración Española y el Desarrollo Económico, Instituto Español de Emigración, Madrid, 1959; and J. García Fernández, "In emigración española a América en los últimos años (1946-1957) " Estudios Geográficos, Vol.21, No.70, Feb., 1960, p.30. (1960 (b))

Temporary clandestine emigration from Spain is easily achieved through the acquiring of tourist exit visas of six months duration. See J.M. Gómez Tabanera, et. al., op. cit., p.149; and R. Descoitores, The Foreign Worker: Adaptation to Industrial Work and Urban Life, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1966, pp.19-20. It is often difficult, however, to gain entry into other countries through using regular tourist services. The author has personally witnessed the denial of entry into the United Kingdom of two Gallego "tourists:"

Clandestine emigration was on the increase in some West European countries prior to the oil crisis of 1973. See A.K. Rose, 1960, op. cit., p.70. According to W. Lowther, "Icy death ends long trek to promised land", Daily Mail, 9th April, 1973, the immigration racket "flourished simply because France and other Common Market partners, allowed it to exist because it happened to suit their own ends. There was also an increase willingness for some host countries to "regularize" the position of clandestine migrants after entry. See W.R. Döbling, 1972, op. cit., pp.30-31 and 35; and J. Salt, "Job-Finding in a united Europe", Geographical Magazine, Vol.45, No.11, Aug., 1973, p.770.

Clandestine emigration from Portugal has been estimated as 100,000 annually out of a total outflow of 170,000 emigrants. Many young men chose this illegal course of action to avoid military service and the daunting prospect of being sent to fight terrorists in the African provinces. See Barclays Bank Ltd., Economic Intelligence Department, Portugal, 22nd Dec., 1971; and an article in Migration Today, No.4, Mar., 1965, pp.17 and 35.

According to Peach, West Indians were under-enumerated in the 1961 Census of England and Wales by at least 20\%. This was because of their desire to conceal overcrowding in their living conditions (and no doubt to hide some clandestine immigrants). See G.C.K. Peach, "Underenumeration of West Indians in the 1961 Census", Sociological Review, Vol.14, No.1, Mar., 1965, pp.73-80.

The oil crisis of 1973 caused West European governments to change their attitude towards immigration, by accepting slower economic growth as a cost of reduced immigration. See G. Power, "At last Europe faces up to the social and economic consequences of immigrant labour", The Times, 11th June, 1974, p.14; and S. Patterson, "Migration International", in
According to Delegación Provincial del Trabajo (y Consideraciones al Fenómeno Inmigratorio), La Emigración en Orense, Orense, Nov., 1954, clandestine migration overseas from the province was 20% more than official figures during the 1930-1963 period.

García Fernández has conservatively estimated clandestine emigration to Europe as between 35-57% of official figures for the 1960-1963 period, and has suggested that the real figure may even be 123% in excess of official estimates. See J. García Fernández, La Emigración Exterior de España, Ariel, Barcelona, 1965, p.16.

(47) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.5.3, p.76; and Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 8.31, p.580.

(48) In the case of gross internal migration statistics issued by the Instituto Nacional de Estadística, net in- or out-migration is defined as the difference between gross in- and out-migration.

(49) Thirty-three provinces are classified as net out-migrant ones and fifteen as net in-migrant ones by both García Barbancho and the I.N.E. Pontevedra and Sevilla are variously classified (see f.45).

(50) Without this separation the pattern of out-migration would be influenced by the interference of three provinces which although showing net immigration also have very high rates of out-migration. Barcelona was the 1st out-migrant province during the 1961-1965 period with 173,247 gross out-migrants, Valencia 4th with 80,263 and Vizcaya 7th with 74,093. See Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.42.

(51) Pontevedra and Sevilla are included as both net in- and out-migration provinces (see f.45 and f.49).


(53) See f.45.

(54) Indirect evidence is supplied in Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 8.35, p.582. According to this source only 12% of 1,567 married women questioned had lived permanently (more than six months) in more than two places since marriage.

Zelinsky, distinguishing migration from «circulation», defines the latter as «a great variety of movements, usually short-term repetitive or cyclical in character, but all having in common the lack of any declared intention of a permanent or long standing change of residence».


The author of this thesis believes that Egerstrand's theory that the longer the time interval the greater the possibility that the same individual will appear more than once in register migration events, must be qualified in Spanish conditions where there is much circulation of labour and under-registration of migration. See T. Egerstrand, «On the Definition of Migration», in E. Jones, (ed.), 1975, op. cit., p.206 (Reprinted from Scandinavian Population Studies, 1, 1969, pp.63-72).


(58) The scale-linkage problem results from provincial statistics being calculated at partido judicial level by García Barbencho and being collected at municipal level by the I.N.E.


(61) Alfonso García Barbancho was a member of the Comisión de Planificación y Servicios Urbanos del II Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social 1964-1973.


(63) Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., Table 5.1.1, p.26.

(64) Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., Table 1.5.2.1, p.128.

(65) This does not exclude many net out-migrants from having emigrated abroad a number of times during the ten year period, although an increasing number eventually end up within a national in-migrant zone.

(66) Fifteen of the seventeen net in-migrant provinces in 1961-1970 were similarly classified by García Barbancho and the I.I.E. (see f.45 and f.49). Valladolid and Orense, like Sevilla and Pontevedra which they replace are in statistically suspect Spain. See p.37.

(67) Based on a fall in the percentage share of total national net in-migration. See Table IX, column C, p.35.

(68) The nine provinces (with net in-migration during only one of the last two decades) excluded from Table X were:

- Castellón + 25.2 (+ 73.44); Las Palmas - 12.1 (+ 21.45);
- Orense - 193.4 (+ 123.11); Oviedo + 15.0 (- 31.55);
- Navarra - 127.2 (+ 45.09); Tarragona - 29.6 (+ 120.75);
- Valencia + 137.3 (+ 120.43); Valladolid - 136.4 (+ 9.03);
- Zaragoza + 19.3 (+ 53.74).

It has been suggested in f.29 that at least 5,474,223 people changed their municipios of residence between the Censuses of 1960 and 1970.
The statistics show the migration rate per thousand population. The first number in each case is for the 1951-1960 period, the one in brackets for 1961-1970.

(70) Provinces with a net out-migration rate of over two hundred per thousand population.

(71) P. Tammes, 1962, on. cit., p. 119; Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.5.3., pp. 76-77; Estudio sobre la Población Española, Table 1.5.2.1., p. 120; and J. de la Cruz Alonso, “Los movimientos migratorios en España. Saldos migratorios (31-XII-1950/31-XII-1960),” Gacetas, No. 32, 1962, pp. 3-5 and 9-10.

Doval, however, gives only nine net in-migrant provinces for the 1950-1956 period, excluding Alava and Santa Cruz de Tenerife but including Cádiz. See R. Doval, “Los movimientos migratorios en España,” in Documentación Social, No. 4, 1958, on. cit., pp. 15-18.

(72) Factores Humanos y Sociales..., 1964, on. cit., p. 154.


(74) A. Melón Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1962, on. cit., p. 347.

(75) It is perhaps conceivable that this could have occurred since Huesca was the only provincial capital to lose population during the 1961-1970 period. See A. Melón Ruiz de Gordejuela, “El intercensal 1961-70,” Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 32, No. 123, Nov., 1971, p. 607.

(76) A. García Barbancho, 1957, on. cit., Table A.1; and Estudio sobre la Población Española, on. cit., Table 5.1.1.11., p. 229.

The migration rate per thousand population was 137.3 in 1951-1960 and 120.43 in 1961-1970. See A. García Barbancho, 1967, on. cit., Table A.2; and Estudio sobre la Población Española, on. cit., Tables 5.1.1.11. and 5.1.1.11., pp. 227 and 229.


(77) A. García Barbancho, 1967, on. cit., Tables 1.3 and A.1, and pp. 26-27.

(78) Ibid., Table A.3.

(79) Anuario Estadístico de España (various years), on. cit.

(80) See p. 99 and f. 52.


(82) Estudio sobre la Población Española, on. cit., Table 5.1.1.11., p. 220.

(83) A. García Barbancho, 1967, on. cit., Table A.1.

(84) A. Melón Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1971, on. cit., pp. 605 and 606.

(85) Estudio sobre la Población Española, on. cit., Table 5.1.1.11., p. 229.

This table contains "estimated" and "observed" (e.g., corrected after the 1970 Census figures appeared) net balance statistics. It is significant that Pontevedra and Sevilla, the problem provinces of 1951-1960 (see f. 45), and Orense and Valladolid, the problem provinces of 1951-1970 (see f. 81), should be variously and inconsistently tabulated as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Net migration (1961-1970)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;estimated&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orense</td>
<td>-32,331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pontevedra</td>
<td>+ 6,365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sevilla</td>
<td>+23,123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valladolid</td>
<td>- 734</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ref. pp.97-98

(36) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., pp.41-42, gives fifteen of these for the 1961-1965 period, excluding the late developer Valladolid (see p.31); A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.2, pp.65-66, gives the same fifteen for the 1961-1965 period, again excluding Valladolid but including the provinces of Pontevedra and Sevilla. See also R. Courtot, "Quelques enseignements du dernier recensement de la population Espagnole," Société Languedocienne de Géographie (3rd series), Vol.5, No.3, Jul.-Sept., 1971, p.345; and Las Migraciones Exteriores en España. Decenio 1961-1970. Madrid, 1974, Table 1.13, p.36. (This work was published by the Ministerio de Planificación del Desarrollo, Instituto Nacional de Estadística.)

It must be borne in mind here that we are dealing with provinces not provincial capitals. There is no doubt, for example, that the city of Sevilla is an in-migrant centre, its net in-migrant balance for 1961-1965 being 65,024. See A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.5, p.70.


(38) According to J.K. Houston, peripheral Spain had 52.42% of the national population in 1900 and 51.92% in 1950. See J.K. Houston, 1963, op. cit., p.343; and Problemas de Concentración Urbana, op. cit., p.300.

(39) The twenty-two peripheral or maritime provinces (including the three extra-peninsular ones) had, according to my calculations, 52.39% of the población de hecho in 1960 and 56.25% in 1970.

(40) The term was invented by de Miguel and Salcedo for Barcelona, the Basque country and Madrid. See A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.44.


(42) After 1960 according to A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 13, p.46.

(43) See the interesting conclusions in Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., pp.91-94, concerning the growth of population in peripheral provinces which are subdivided into a coastal zone (consisting of partidos judiciales with direct access to the sea) and an interior zone.

(44) At the same time the economic centre of gravity of the country was moving eastwards. See R. Tamames, 1960, op. cit., p.124 ff.

(45) G. Myrdal, 1957, op. cit.

(46) Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., p.548, forecasts that spread effects in the next few years will result in net in-migration into further provinces including Cantabria, Burgos, Segovia, Logroño, Toledo, Guadalajara, Lérida and Murcia.

(47) Ibid., pp.545-546, adopts a basically similar five-fold classification.

(48) J. Haylon, "Tourism Spain’s most important industry," Geography, Vol.52, No.534, Jan., 1967, pp.25 and 35. (1967 (a)):

George Hills makes the point that major increases in tourism did not begin before the economic miracle began. See G. Hills, 1957, op. cit., p.425.

(49) G. Myrdal, op. cit.

(50) See pp.30-31.

(51) The three traditional in-migrant zones of the provinces of Barcelona, Madrid and the Basque country, contained 22.5% of the national population in 1960, 25.8% in 1965 and (according to the estimates of the Comisión del III Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social) 20.7% in 1971. See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., p.90, and Table 5.36, p.155.
According to Censo de la Población de España Año 1970, Poblaciones de Derecho y de Hecho de los Municipios, on. cit., p.115, these provinces had 23.22% of the población de hecho in 1970.

We have indirect evidence from the decline of the agricultural labour force, which, as a percentage of the total active population, fell by about 12% between 1951 and 1970 compared with 9.16% between 1951 and 1960 (see p.77).

Agricultural workers are reluctant to give their true occupation, registered internal migrants preferring to include themselves in the category trabajadores de la industria y noes no agrarios thinking it will enable them to obtain a job in the industrial sector more easily (private communication from Peinando Santiago Escartín, Ingeniero Jefe de Sección de Estadística, Secretaría General Técnica, Ministerio de Agricultura, 5th April, 1971). In 1969, for example, only 9.71% of all registered internal migrants declared themselves agricultores, ganaderos y pescaderos. See Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, on. cit., Table 5.5, p.403. Somewhat conflicting figures are given in Ministerio de Trabajo, Instituto Español de Emigración, La Emigración en 1970, Madrid, 1971, the percentages of assisted emigrants to Europe and overseas coming from the agricultural sector in 1970 being 29.3 and 13.0 respectively; while J. García Fernández, 1965, on. cit., pp.90-99, gives the percentages of migrants to Europe and overseas during the 1946-1965 period coming from the primary sector as 61.82 and 35.72 respectively; 35.0% of Spanish males working in Western Germany questioned by Sánchez López were agricultores, ganaderos y pescaderos - see F. Sánchez López, Emigración Española a Europa, Confederación Española de Hijas de Ahorros, Madrid, 1969, Table 69, p.233; 31.0% of the Spanish workers questioned in Western Germany by Kade admitted to having an agricultural occupation as their last job before leaving Spain - see C. Kade and J. Linz, on. cit., Table 72, p.129. If we take the average of these seven percentages - which is 30.71 - it is probably safe to say that a minimum 30% of all migrants (internal and external) come from the agricultural sector. There is supporting evidence in that 31.42% of all registered internal migrants between 1961 and 1968 came from non-urban municipios (e.g. under 10,000 population). See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, on. cit., Table 8.25, p.578. Moreover, these figures approximate with an average fall of 24.06% in the total number employed in the primary sector between 1961-1970, which in turn can be crudely correlated with an increase of 33.30% in net out-migration during the same period (see p.92).

According to F. Sánchez López, 1969, on. cit., Table 6, p.37, an estimated 65.95% of the emigrants from Spain to Europe between 1960-1967 returned to live in Spain before the end of the period; 71% returning after three years - ibid., p.243; C. Kade and J. J. Linz, on. cit., Table 42, p.95, mention that only 5% of Spanish workers questioned in Western Germany remain more than five years.


This evidence has not been used for a number of reasons:
(a) The statistics are obviously selective.
(b) Net balances are often very small (e.g., Navarra 2 and Huesca 83 in 1960) and therefore more liable to error.
(c) There is a suspicion of bias and even of an attempt to direct internal migration streams. See, for example, the calculation of the deficiency of homes in the main in-migrant areas: Ministerio de Trabajo, Dirección General de Empleo, I Jornada Nacional sobre Movimientos Migratorios, Madrid, 1961, Annex 31, pp.339-342, quoted in J.L. Rivera y Sánchez-Garzarro, op. cit.


S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.55.

There are many reasons why desarrollismo and internationalism are interconnected:
(b) Spain entered into C.E.E.C. (now C.E.C.E.L.) in 1959.
(c) Spain became a member of the International Labour Organization in 1956, and as a result collective bargaining and collective contracts became legal in Spain in 1958 - a key date according to N.F. Bruce, op. cit., pp.73-74. See also J.M. Maravall, El Desarrollo Económico y la Clase Obrera, Ariel, Barcelona, 1970, p.59.
(e) 45.7% more international tourists were received in Spain in 1960 than in 1959. See J. Haylon, 1967, op. cit., p.26. Tourism has been likened to "manna falling from heaven, impelled by the favourable winds of stabilization." Quoted by ibid., p.33, from...
Ref. pp.98-100


(c) 1959 saw a movement away from emigration overseas to continental Europe. See A. Sauvy, l'Inversión de las corrientes migratorias tradicionales, El Plan, Vol.2, No.1, 1962, pp.51-50, cited in A. Martínez Casasola, La Mi... (ASE, Madrid, 1959, p.50. Massive migration to continental Europe began shortly afterwards, partly as a result of stabilization and major national unemployment, partly because of government assisted emigration schemes which began in 1959. See F. Sánchez Lépez, 1969, op. cit., p.23; and M. Fraga Iribarne, et. al., op. cit., pp.105-107. A number of agreements had been signed with West European countries with booming economies and severe labour shortages. Despite massive emigration from many South European countries the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, still had more than 600,000 job vacancies in 1964. See O.E.C.D., Joint International Seminar on Adaptation of Rural and Foreign Workers to Industry, Wiesbaden 10th-13th Dec., 1965, Supplement to the Final Report, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1965, p.169.

(103) J. Raylon, 1967, op. cit., pp.26 and 33-34. (1967 (a) ) In 1970, tourism supplied 60% of Spain's foreign exchange earnings. See Barclays Bank Ltd., Economic Intelligence Department, Spain, 10th Sept., 1971.

(110) Especially the new tourist areas and the polos de desarrollo.


(116) The terms "cora"; "dasirom"; and "esporomo" mean "zone", "dense zone" (e.g., densely populated zone) and "not very dense zone" (e.g., moderately or sparsely populated zone). See R. Perpiñán y Grau, De Estructura Económica y Economía Humana, Rialp, Madrid, 1952, pp.392-401.

(117) The model to zone extent fits for the redistribution of population which has taken place between coastal and interior partidos judiciales of the maritime provinces between 1901 and 1965. See Informe Socialístico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.37, p.156.
(113) M. Sazón Soler, 1959, op. cit., p.23.
(119) The term is inverted by A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.81, in imitation of Perpind y Grau (see §.116).
(120) These are partidos judiciales. See A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.I.
(121) The partido judicial containing the provincial capital. See A. García Barbancho, Table A.I, p.43.
(122) A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 13, p.46, give only Zaragoza and Valladolid; although A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.I, pp.59-64, omits only La Coruña (partido judicial) as a net in-migrant centre during the 1951-1965 period.
(126) Partidos judiciales in every case. See A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.I, pp.59-64.
(127) Salamanca lies on a main branch power-line from Aldeadávila, Saucelle and Villarrino power-stations along the international Duero to Madrid.
(129) See p.97.
(133) The problem is not as great, however, as in India where the district with an average size of 1,000 sq. kilometres and an average population of 1.5 million is used as the smallest administrative for which Census data relating to migration is available. See L.A. Kostiá, 1975, op. cit., Table A.II; and G.S. Gopal and A. Krishan, "Patterns of Internal Migration in India," in L.A. Kostiá and R. Mansell Prothero, (ed.), 1975, op. cit., p.135. For the delineation of Spanish municipios J.M. Casas Torres, Atlas e Índices Términos Municipales, 2 Vols. Confederación Española de Cajas de Ahorro, Madrid, 1969, proves invaluable.
Ref. pp.101-102


(135) A. Redford, op. cit., p.150.


(138) La term cortijo is widely used throughout the region for all types of rural dwelling. In this context, it refers to isolated dwelling which are used for temporary, seasonal accommodation. See S. Moreno Sánchez, op. cit., pp.297 and 300.

(139) The aldeas gained population between 1950 and 1965, but have since lost considerably due to the falling off of in-migration consequent on the abandonment of the isolated cortijos. See S. Moreno Sánchez, op. cit., pp.301 and 315.


(141) El pueblo is a conception of community based upon locality, membership being usually acquired by birth. Geographically speaking, the pueblo covers any community of from a few hundred to thirty thousand inhabitants. Ibid., pp.30 and 7.

(142) Colonos are people who establish themselves in an uncultivated territory within their own country in order to populate and cultivate it basically by the means of irrigation. See Real Academia Española, Diccionario Manual e Ilustrado de la Lengua Española, Espasa-Calpe, Madrid, 1950, p.390.


(146) Only 2.37% of the surface of the provincial capital of Granada was urbanized in 1950. See J. Boscu Maurel, 1962, op. cit., p.233.


Rural-to-urban migrants are usually forced to live in the periphery because they cannot afford to pay the elevated prices for rented accommodation in central areas. See P.J. Gómez Rodríguez, op. cit., p.622; and C. Trías Bertrán, "La Concentración Urbana y la Distribución de la Aglomeración Madridífera", in Madrid 1964..., op. cit., p.73. There is some evidence, however, of multi-occupation of some central flats particularly of attics and higher floors. See M. Kenny, 1961, op. cit., pp.127 and 159; and E. García Manrique, 1961, op. cit., p.113.

The Calle de Toledo in Madrid, provides us with an useful urban transect...
through two of the three sociological zones of the city. The section from the Plaza Mayor to the Puerta de Toledo (in the Centro sociological zone) lost 22% of its population between 1955 and 1970. The section from the Puerta de Toledo to the Glorieta de las Pirámides (in the Ensanche sociological zone) in contrast gained 63% in population during the same period. The latter was a major zone of urban redevelopment in a relatively poor part of the Ensanche between the railway stations of Imperial and las Penasuelas, the municipal fish market and the municipal abattoir. See A. Redondo, "Cambio y permanencias de la calle de Toledo desde 1955 a 1970", Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 36, Nos. 140-141, Av.-Nov., 1975, pp. 1012 and 1019-1020.

The importance of the inner city in the Mediterranean world as a "prestige residential location" which is deliberately selected by the wealthy must be emphasized. See T. E. Elkins, op. cit., p. 47. Jornaleros and obreros represented only 3.5% of the active population of the calle de Toledo, for example, in 1970. See A. Redondo, op. cit., pp. 1019-1020.

Decentralization began in Barcelona before the end of the nineteenth century, and by 1910 it was not the provincial capital but twenty-six autonomous municipios (now incorporated in the metropolitan area of Barcelona) which were growing most rapidly. See F. Ivern, op. cit., pp. 44-53.

Of the three radial population zone of the city of Madrid - Centro, Ensanche and Periferia - the first named lost 1.3% of its population annually between 1951-1955, 1.4% annually between 1956-1960 and 2.3% annually between 1961-1965. See Informe Social y Económico sobre la Situación Social de Madrid, op. cit., pp. 43; and f. 147. The annual loss of population of the Centro between 1960-1970 was 2.7%. See Críticas Diocesanas de Madrid-Alcalá, Fundación BOESSA, Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., 1972, p. 49.

For the growth of Bilbao see M. de Terán, "El Trabajo y la Estructura Demográfica del Gran Bilbao", in Aportación Española al XX Congreso Geográfico Internacional, op. cit., pp. 79-33.

F. de Terán, "Evolución del planeamiento de núcleos urbanos nuevos", Ciudad y Territorio, T1, 1969, p. 19; and E. Mangada and C. Ferráa, "Los Huevos Barrios", in Cuadernos para el Pueblo, No. 19 Extraordinario dedicated to Urbanismo y Sociedad en España, April, 1970, pp. 23-26. See also f. 26, PART II.


It is necessary to use heads of families otherwise the population born in Madrid is an inflated 46%, there being a greater number of young children (born in Madrid) in an in-migrant community. See I. Alonso Hinojal, Algunos Aspectos Sociológicos de un Barrio Madrileño de Población. Ministerio de la Vivienda, Madrid, 1969, p. 17.

The policy of poblados dirigidos (new, controlled villages) as an answer to chabolismo (literally "shanty-townism") was begun by the ORDENACIÓN URBANA DE MADRID in 1954. Among the poblados dirigidos were Caso Roto, Pimarrain, Etriviñas, Almendralejos, Zozio, Uresitas, la Elipa, Corillas, Corro San Blas, la Ventilla, Monasterio and Grupo Hermanos García Noblejas which were developed in peripheral zones of the city where chabolas were dominant. See J. Rafael Kenzo, "Madrid: los últimos veinticinco años", Información General Española, No. 402, Feb., 1967, pp. 34-36.

"a hut or shack generally constructed in the country", See J. G. Facuilla, op. cit., p. 492.

I. Alonso Hinojal, op. cit., p. 15.

V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p. 201.
According to Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, on. cit., p.40, while the Branches and Periphery showed annual growth rates between 1960 and 1970 of 1.7\% and 1.3\% respectively, the "super-periphery" of the metropolitan area (the 3rd ring of the capital) grew in the same period by 21.3\% annually.


The municipio of Madrid grew by 39.2\% and the metropolitan area by 25.7\% (cf. Barcelona 12\%, its metropolitan area 11\%) according to R. Courtot, 1971, op. cit., p.546.

(155) H.D. Clout, op. cit., p.44.

The name given to the reservoirs of Entrepeñas-Buenafía-Bolarque, about 50 kilometres to the east of Madrid. See also M. Gaviria, 1971, op. cit., pp.155-156.

People were moving out of the centre of Barcelona to commuter settlements, the city experiencing a net migration loss in 1969 (although it continued to grow as a result of natural increase). See Ya, 4th Aug., 1970.


It has been difficult and inappropriate to separate these movements; hence the necessary digressions in this section of our thesis.


For contradictory factors operating in the rural countryside see R.K. Osborne, "Inter-county migration in south-eastern Great Britain, Geography, Vol.40, No.187, Jan., 1955, pp.47-49.


The nucleus is defined as the first five-kilometre ring from the centre, the periphery as the next five to ten (or in some instances ten to twenty) kilometre ring. See J. Diez Nicolás, 1966, op. cit., p.221.

(164) J. Diez Nicolás, "La Urbanización y el Urbanismo en la Década de los 70", in M. Fraça Iribarne, et al., op. cit., p.194; J. Diez Nicolás, "Concentración y Centralización como Procesos Ecólogicos", in Los Grandes Ciudados Españolas, trabajo inédito, to be published soon by Águila, Madrid.

(165) A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.5, p.25.

That is net migrants who moved from one partido judicial to another within the same province.


These are natural regions which are based upon drainage basins but adapted to respect provincial boundaries. See A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., p.16.
(162) The number of net intra-provincial migrants expressed as a percentage of total net migrants in each of the three periods was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>1921-30</th>
<th>1931-60</th>
<th>1951-60</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tajo-Guadix occidental</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tajo-Guadix oriental</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andalucia occidental</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andalucia oriental</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data was extracted from A. García Barcencho, 1970, op. cit., Table 5, p.25.

(170) In other words, intra-provincial migration was weak throughout Andalucia, Extremadura, and all of New Castile with the exception of Madrid.

Intra-provincial migration was also weak in some other provinces of Spain. In Teruel, for example, the provincial capital only increased in population by 1,200 between 1951 and 1960. Andorra (a lignite mining centre) increased in population by 42.24% during the same period, although its population in 1960 was still only 7,735. See X. Castro Solana, Evolución de la Población de Teruel entre 1860 y 1960, Estudio Geográfico, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Teruel, 1968.

(171) This was hinted at on pp.71-72 and p.81.

(172) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.2.3.2, p.43.

(173) See p.11.

The lack of correspondence between the inter-provincial and intra-provincial migration efficiency indices is in part related to intramunicipal migrations which go unrecorded (by both direct and indirect methods) thus minimizing intra-provincial migration.


(175) Ibid., p.545.

(176) My interpretation of statistics in ibid., Table 3.29, p.579.

(177) The figures were extracted from Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.34; and Apuntes Estadísticos de España 1970, op. cit., p.45.

There was also a not unconsiderable return migration. In-migrants to Cordoba, for example, who represented only 19.3% of out-migrants from the province in 1962, increased to 47.0% in 1968. See A. López Ontiveros, Integración, Propiedad y Paisaje Agrario en la Comunidad de Córdoba, Edit. Ariel, Esplugas de Llobregat, Barcelona, 1974, p.123.

(178) E. Síguiz Soler, 1959, op. cit., Fig.9, p.40.

(179) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Map 1.

(180) R.P. Bradshaw, op. cit., Map 6, p.73.

(181) Migration fields for most in-migration centres in Spain are national. 

"Effective migration fields" (defined in terms of the 25 barrier - see p.105 in most instances are by no means so.


(182) The three categories are:

(a) Those provinces for which the in-migrant province was the chief source of attraction (including the province itself e.g., intra-provincial migrants).

(b) Those provinces for which the in-migrant province was the second most important destination of its out-migrants.

(c) Those provinces for which the in-migrant province was a lesser attraction (although it still absorbed more than 25% of each province's out-migrants).

(183) Navarra, for example, is the stronghold of Carlismo - a "political movement of traditionalist character originating in the 1820s whose continuing appeal is based upon religious fervour and a degree of decentralization." Encyclopaedia Britannica, op. cit., 1972, Vol.4, pp.919-920.
The north-eastern provinces belong to the ancient kingdom of Ararán (including Gataluha).

The province of Pontevedra, for example, sent only 3.3% of its out-migrants during the 1962-1965 period to Madrid, compared to 16.39% to the province of Barcelona. There are important commercial connections between the Galician fishing industry (which are both ancient and modern) and Barcelona. See Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., pp.45 and 47; and A. Meijide Pardo, "Contribución de los Catalanes al Desarrollo de la Industria Pesquera de Vigo (1750-1915)," Aportación Española al XXI Congreso Geográfico Internacional, Madrid, 1969, pp.297-298, cited in A. Meijide Pardo, "Panorama industrial de Galicia," Estudios geográficos, Vol.36, Nos.140-141, Au.-Nov., 1975, p.755.

In the case of Oviedo see f. 271, PART 1.

Traditional links between Madrid and Cádiz were established when the latter (together with Sevilla) had a monopoly of trade with the Indies. See J. Vieca Vives, 1969, op. cit., p.333. Later the development of the sherry wine trade may have been an important factor in keeping traditional links open. Certainly la Gaditana (native of the city of Cádiz) is a common name for a bar, tavern or grocery shop in Madrid.


G. Polf, op. cit., pp.273-274, writing about Italian immigrants, attitude to FIAT of Turin.

G. Olsen, 1965 (b), pp.3.


See f.173 and f.180.


Guenca is contiguous to both Valencia and Madrid, Murcia to Alicante - the fifth most important in-migrant province, 1961-1970. See ibid.

D. Glick, 1973 (a), op. cit., p.20.

Ibid. "spread" effects begin to replace "backward" ones at a later stage of economic development. In the case of the three national growth centres of Barcelona, Valencia y Vizcaya, "spread" effects on a provincial scale are influencing adjacent coastal provinces as well as spreading inland along major means of communication. "spread" effects from the newer industrial region of Madrid are now beginning to make themselves felt in the provinces of Guadalajara and Toledo.

The functional migration distance in each case is determined by connecting the provincial capitals of out- and in-migration by a straight line and then counting the number of provinces which that line crosses. See J. Olsson, 1965 (a), on. cit., p.2.

Ignoring intra-provincial out-migrants which, if taken into account, obscure the pattern. During 1952-1965 no less than 73.90% of Barcelona's out-migrants were retained within the province. See Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.495.


E.G. Ravenstein, 1873, on. cit., Map 6, p.73. See also p.100.

J. Klein, 1920, op. cit., p.10, and p.115, PART TTO.

Migrants follow traditional routeways in so far as modern means of communication adhere to them.

The number of out-migrants to provinces arranged according to their geographical location was as follows:

Zamora (20), Valladolid (125), Salamanca (111), Ávila (40), Céceres (724), Toledo (222), Badajoz.

See Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., pp.43-47.

Informe Socialista sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.03, p.581.

After 1967 Badajoz-Barcelona fell from the top ten most important migrations streams in Spain.

Ibid. The pattern of increased short-distance, intra-provincial migrations is confirmed. See pp.105-106.


A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.44.


This ignores Madrid's function as capital of Spain, sending managerial and white-collar class migrants to other provinces, although de Miguel and Láz have been able to show that Madrid has a net in-migration of industrialists. See A. de Miguel and J.J. Láz, "Movilidad geográfica de los empresarios españoles," Estudios Geográficos, Vol.25, No.24, Feb., 1964, p.15.

E.G. Ravenstein, 1885, op. cit., p.12.


The "ratio of stream to countercurrent or the net redistribution of population affected by the opposite flows," E.S. Lee, 1969, op. cit., p.205.
The exceptions are Ciudad Real, Logroño and Santa Cruz de Tenerife provinces.

That is the relationship between total out-migrants and in-migrants for the 1962-1965 period which was as follows:

(a) Madrid: \( \frac{21,403}{109,629} \times 100 = 19.58\% \)

(b) Barcelona: \( \frac{33,527}{26,253} \times 100 = 124.57\% \)

The statistics were extracted from Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., pp.43 and 45.

Assimilation will be dealt with in detail in PART FIVE.


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The percentajes for inter-regional migration may be extracted from Table X, p.118, by subtracting the figures given there from 100.

The percentage of "life-time migrants," e.g., the percentage of "non-natives" within a province's population.

As defined by "life-time migrants," e.g., the percentage of "non-natives" within a province's population.

The percentages for inter-regional migration may be extracted from Table XV, p.118, by subtracting the figures given there from 100.

As defined by "life-time migrants," e.g., the percentage of "non-natives" within a province's population.


Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.2.3.4, p.54.

Since García Barbancho's regions for the 1331-1360 period differ from those in Migración y Estructura Regional for the 1362-1365 period it is difficult to be precise, no more so since the former uses the net balance method, the latter directly-recorded statistics.

This apparent intensification of inter-regional migration made Spanish rates comparable with those of other West European countries. Inter-regional mobility in 1964 affected 0.94% of the 1960 population, compared with 1.6% for West Germany (1962), 1% for Italy (1960) and 1.5% for France (1954-1962 average). See Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.3.2.2, p.73; and L.C. Hunter and G.L. Reid, op. cit., p.45.

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According to Sánchez López (working with admittedly crude statistics) the percentage of returnees to permanent migrants from Spain to Europe in the 1960-1965 period was 23.0%. See F. Sánchez López, 1965, op. cit., p. 3-5.

According to L.A. Martínez Cuahoro, 1959, op. cit., p. 143, the percentage of returnees to migrants from Spain to overseas countries in the 1954-1977 period was 12.4-22%. See also T. Iann Smith, Population Analysis, Hafner Hill, New York, 1943; and Principles and Recommendations for the 1970 population Census, op. cit., R.J. Pryor, 1973, op. cit., Table 1.2, p. 30, should also be consulted for patterns and characteristics of migration during "mobility transition phases."


According to Gosal and Krishan, 72.7% of all life-time migrants enumerated in the Census of 1961 in India were rural-to-rural ones. See G.S. Gosal and G. Krishan, op. cit., Table 1.3, p. 123.

The three-fold subdivision of municipios into:
- rural (under 2,000 population),
- intermediate (2,000-9,999 population) and
- urban (over 10,000 population),
adapted by the Instituto Nacional de Estadística is abandoned here. Following V. Pérez Díaz, 1967, op. cit., the intermediate category is incorporated within "rural" (or, to be more precise, "non-urban") population. Some justification for this statistical departure is derived from the difficulty of defining "rural" and "urban" in Spanish conditions. Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., p. 501, for example, defines the rural sector as "localities of under 5,000 inhabitants in the North and under 20,000 in the South. For the problem of defining "urban" population see J. Díez Nicolás, "Determinación de la población urbana en España en 1960," in Centro de Estudios Sociales, "La Concentración Urbana en España," Anales de Nivel Social y Económica, Vol. 20, Madrid, 1965, pp. 3-37.


For example the movement of rural population from the Lozín valleys and the vega of Granada to newly-irrigated areas in the Guadalquivir valley; movements towards the Ebro delta which affected 20,000 people

There is some evidence that the Instituto Nacional de Colonización preferred forasteros to local inhabitants as settlers within the new J.N.C. villages of the Plan Badajoz. See J.M. de Ferialta y Sosa, "Aspectos Urbanos del Plan Badajoz," in Apertura Española al XX Congreso Geográfico Internacional, op. cit., p. 257.

R. Sancho, Estudio Sociológico del Medio Rural Segoviano, Caja de Ahorros de Segovia, Segovia, 1971, p. 77.

It is assumed here that most in-migrants into a rural municipio with less than 2,000 population must be rural-to-rural migrants, especially if they come from within the province (as 34% did in this instance).


The percentage was quoted for municipios with less than 2,000 population to allow comparison with Sancho (who unlike Fundación FEDCA interviewed married people of both sexes). "Life-time migration" into all centres with less than 10,000 population according to Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., p. 751, was 31.5%.


José Redondo calculated that seasonal agricultural migrants at harvest-time in the late 1950s represented only about 6.25% of the labour force. See J. Redondo 1967, op. cit., p. 11.

Since the late 1950s there has been a serious decline in the demand for seasonal harvest labour, notably in the rice-growing areas of Castellón, Tarragona and Valencia provinces, due to the increased use of labour-intensive machinery after 1960. See A. López Cimes, "La trahumancia soriana en el momento actual," Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 17, No. 50, June, 1974, pp. 113-117. See also J. Houston, "Contribución al estudio del poblamiento de la comarca de Tortosa," Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 25, No. 34, Pub., 1964, p. 42.


In Vanguardia, 26th Aug., 1970.


(260) According to G. Made and J.J. Linz, op. cit., Table 24, p.70, seasonal (assisted) migration from Spain to Continental Europe increased from 24,055 in 1953 to 103,712 in 1965.


(264) For an account of rural-to-rural migration to the Llano de Carchuna (Granada) and the Campo de Milía (Almería) see J. Bosque Neurul, "El Cultivo en Huertas Mejoradas en la Costa Mediterránea entre Almería y Málaga (España)," in Acuentamiento Español al XX Congreso Geográfico Internacional, op. cit., pp.217-226.


(266) For the importance of the aldea as an unit of settlement see J. García Fernández, Organización del Espacio y Economía en la España Atlántica, Siglo Veintiuno de España Edit., Madrid, 1975.


(268) See p.101; and S. Moreno Sánchez, op. cit., pp.300-301.


(270) Cavalli Sforza, in a study of "matrimonial migration" in the Parma valley (Italy), found that between 51.3 and 64.3% of the carriage partners had "travelled" less than 1.56 kilometres from their places of birth, the percentage varying according to the altitudinal grouping of the parishes in his study. See L. Cavalli Sforza, "The Distribution of

G. Kalbfleisch, (273) cit., pp.1-45, has shown that at least one-third of all migrations in Sweden occur within parishes and as such go unrecorded. See also T. Ekerström, 1957, on. cit., p.23.

(272) J. Uceta del Ro, on. cit., p.304.


(274) There is some evidence that several in the western border regions are partly filled by migrants from Portugal, especially in the provinces of Orense, Pontevedra, León (where they are rarely rural migrants) and Huelva. An estimated 5,000 migrants from Portugal arrived in the province of Huelva between 1961 and 1970. Many were clandestine immigrants and most settled in the rural, western area of the province - mainly in the municipios of Ayamonte, El Abadillo, Isla Cristina, Salinas de Guarda, Villanueva de los Castillejos, Puebla de Guzmán, Payame, Elche, and Rural de la Frontera. See A.3, op. cit., 15th July, 1970.


(276) The figure of 95% in ibid., p.502, is corrected to 90.34% to tally with statistics extracted from p.504.

(277) V. Pérez Díaz, 1957, on. cit., p.70.

There is some evidence of limited upward social mobility in the Mesa de Ocaña region of the province of Toledo, some agricultural workers obtaining jobs in cement factories, their places in agriculture being taken by rural-to-rural migrants from the province of Ocaña stopping to work in the region for one or two years en route to Madrid. See Plan C. C.U., op. cit., Vol.3, Madrid, 1969, pp.154 and 174-175.

(278) See the Ley 54/1968 dealing with Ordenación Rural, 27th July, 1968. Under this law the Servicio was re-named the Servicio Nacional de Concentración Parcelaria y Ordenación Rural, one of the re-named organization's most important new functions being the provision of social amenities in rural areas. See G. Hills, 1970, on. cit., p.449; and Servicio Nacional de Concentración Parcelaria y Ordenación Rural, "Situación de los Trabajos al 31 de Diciembre de 1967," Ministerio de Agricultura, Madrid, 1967, p.5.


(283) M. Kenny, 1972, on. cit., p.32.

Until recently the comarca was not studied in Spain largely because of
the fragmentation of municipios. See H. de Ruentes Sanchis, op. cit., p.57.

Notwithstanding, village studies continue to appear. See, for example, E. Isaac Beza, Estudio Antropológico Social de un Pueblo del Sur, Socilla y Surco, Madrid, 1974.

See also A. Revenya Carbonell, Geografías Geográficas de España, Madrid, 1980.


(235) Provinces having more than the national average of 67.1% of their population living in progressive municipios of expanding population. Ibid., p.55.

(236) The two exceptions in the interior were the provinces of Alava and Madrid.

(237) Ferdinand VI reigned from 1746 to 1759. In 1749 an attempt was made to settle Irish, Dutch, German and French colonists in the Sierra Morena. See J. Vicens Vives, 1960, op. cit., pp.489-490.


Naylor has argued that irrigation and land-settlement schemes like the Plan Badajoz and the Plan Jaén have "acted too slowly to cure pressing unemployment problems". See J. Naylor, "A challenge to the Rock - the Campo de Gibraltar Development Plan", Geography, Vol.57, No.254, Jan., 1972, p.4.

(243) Literally to "ask permission to leave". See f.2.

(244) Concejo Ferreras, op. cit., p.695.


(246) Hocueda y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.41.

(247) H. Sancho Haza, 1972, op. cit., Table 1, p.229, quotes the following statistics from the Censo de la Población y de las Viviendas de España 1960, op. cit., Vol.1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Municipio</th>
<th>1950 Census</th>
<th>1960 Census</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>15,7%</td>
<td>14,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>31,1%</td>
<td>23,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>52,2%</td>
<td>56,3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 1970 figures extracted from Censo de la Población de España Año 1970, Poblaciones de Derecho y de Hacia de los Municipios, op. cit., Table II 2. a), p.121, indicate that the actual population (población de Hacienda) in 1970 was distributed amongst the different categories of municipio as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of Municipio</th>
<th>1970 Census</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 2,000</td>
<td>11,01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,001-10,000</td>
<td>22,50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,001-20,000</td>
<td>11,14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20,001-100,000</td>
<td>10,57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,001-500,000</td>
<td>18,84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 500,000</td>
<td>17,94%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(248) Compare, for example, migrant arrival statistics for this category of municipio with those for larger, non-urban municipios. See Table XXI, p.129.
This population group could be expected to make the largest contribution to out-migration since it was still the most populous group in 1970, although its percentage of the national population had fallen from 40.27% in 1960 to 22.50% in 1970.

In 1964, for example, in-migrants to urban municipios from rural ones were as follows:

- 60.76% of total in-migration to municipios with 10,001-20,000 population,
- 63.72% of total in-migration to municipios with 20,001-100,000 population,
- 60.15% of total in-migration to municipios with 100,001-500,000 population,
- 62.00% of total in-migration to municipios with Over 500,000 population.

The corresponding percentages for 1969 were 45.18, 53.78, 43.72 and 52.51 respectively. The data was extracted from Table XXII, p. 131.

The exception was for movements of migrants to and from municipios with 10,001-20,000 population in 1964 (see Table XXII, p. 131). Many of these are not fully urbanized but micro-toms, especially in Andalucia.

The figures as a percentage of total in-migration, into population groups of 10,001-20,000, 20,001-100,000, 100,001-500,000 and Over 500,000 in 1964 and 1969 were 54.02, 46.24, 51.20, 47.42; and 39.02, 39.35, 39.35 and 39.00 respectively.


The importance of counterstreams cannot be exaggerated. Between 1935 and 1959, for example, the work-force at Avilés expanded by 1,300%, but by the latter date 23.4% of the migrant arrivals had been forced to return to their places of origin. See J. García Fernández, 1964, op. cit., pp. 105-106, quoted from Servicios Provinciales de Empleo de Oviedo, Diálogo sobre la Migración, Oviedo, 1959, pp. 10-11.

R. Sancho, "La estructura social de las comunidades rurales ante la reconversión de los núcleos de población", Revista de Estudios Agronómicos, No. 37, Apr.-Jun., 1969, p. 133.

According to S. del Campo Urbano, 1972, op. cit., Table 4, p. 21, rural municipios (under 2,000 population) and semi-urban ones (2,001-10,000 population) experienced their greatest population losses of the century, losing 3.4% and 6.3% respectively of their 1950 populations by the end of the decade.

R. Sancho Hual, 1972, op. cit., Table 2, p. 234; and Censo de la Población de España Año 1970, Poblaciones de Derecho y de Hecho de los Municipios, op. cit., Table 2 b), p. 127.

R. Sancho Hual, 1972, op. cit., Table 2, p. 234; and Censo de la Población de España Año 1970, Poblaciones de Derecho y de Hecho de los Municipios, op. cit., Table 2 b), p. 127.

The twelve comarcas studied were Atienza and Molina de Aragón (Guadalajara), Río Cea and Río Cuéllar (Valladolid), Río Párra (Segovia), Ciudad Rodrigo and Peracense (Salamanca), El Cerrato (Valencia), La Bureba (Burgos), Río Mayor (Cuenca), El Burgo de Osma (Soria) and El Páramo (León).
PART FOUR
INTERNAL MIGRATION PATTERNS IN SPAIN - CAUSE AND EFFECT

INTRODUCTION


There is a distinct tendency in some Spanish sources to inflate returns for reasons of political advantage or prestige. See, for example, Ero, "La calle y su mundo," in La Vanguardia Española, 13th March, 1971, quoted in H. Salas, op. cit., p.32. See also the comments on data collection in developing countries in The Open University, Understanding Society: A Foundation Course, Units 32-36, The Population Explosion - An Interdisciplinary Approach, The Open University Press, Walton Hall, Bletchley, 1971, pp.27.
For the justification of the use of ranked statistical data in Spain because of inaccuracies in the original data see H.W. Richardson, 1975, op. cit., p.9, p.77, and pp.28,29 and 76.

Ref. pp.135-136
McCallagh has pointed out that generalized estimates of correlation are sufficiently rigorous for most geographical problems. See P. McCullagh, Data Use and Interpretation, Oxford University Press, London, 1970, p.31.


Alonso has argued that where data is less accurate the current practice of building complex models for predictive purposes is not to be recommended. See W. Alonso, "The quality of data and the choice and design of predictive models," Urban Development Models, Highway Research Board Special Report 37, Washington D.C., 1968, p.172.

The statistics were extracted from A. Garcia Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.2, pp.65-66; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.2.2, column C, pp.41-42.

The correlation between the Instituto Nacional de Estadística’s not directly-recorded data for the 1961-1970 period and the percentage of provincial population ten years and over changing municipio residence between 1961 and 1970 (according to the 1970 Census), was also significant at the 0.05 level of confidence, when calculated at the scale of fifty provinces ($R_s = 0.730$). If intra-provincial moves are ignored, the correlation is slightly lower, although still significant at the 0.05 level of confidence ($R_s = 0.779$). The base statistics were extracted from Las Migraciones Interiores en España, Decenio 1961-1970, op. cit., Table 1.1., pp. 70-79.
I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

A. RURAL-TO-URBAN OUT-MIGRATION STREAMS: "PUSH" FACTORS OPERATING IN OUT-MIGRATION AREAS

1) AT A NATIONAL LEVEL

(1) See Table XIX, p.127.

(2) See Table XVIII, p.127.

(3) See Table XXI, p.129.

(4) Approximately 20\% of all out-migrants in Spain are rural-to-rural ones. See Table XX, p.129.

(5) See Table XVIII, p.127. In the peak out-migration year of 1964 the percentage was 64.49. See Table XXI, p.123.

There is confirming evidence from registered in-migration into Vitoria (Alava). During the 1961-1963 period, for example, 73.37% of the in-migrants arriving in the city came from non-urban municipios. See J.M. López de Juan Abad, A.M. Campo, I. Ibarro and J.A. Rezarte, "Vitoria: aspectos de su crecimiento urbano", Estudios Geográficos, Vol.26, No.100, Aug., 1965, p.355.


Ahlberg has shown that two-thirds of Swedish males who left agriculture between 1941 and 1945 continued to reside in the same parish as before. See G. Ahlberg, op. cit., p.10.

(8) R. Courtot, 1971, op. cit., p.343; and Productividad, op. cit., p.129.

The numbers leaving agriculture during the 1961-1963 period may have been between 150,000 and 200,000 annually. See A. López Muñoz, "La crisis agrícola", Gaceta de la Ciencia, No.1, 1961, pp.1-4; F. Ruiz de Lobera y Tombele, "Novedades de la mano de obra agrícola", Revista de Estudios Agronómicos, Vol.17, No.50, Jan.-Mar., 1967, p.44; and A. García Barbado, 1967, op. cit., p.27.

For worker-peasants in Spain see J. Millé, op. cit., p.52.

(9) Anuario Estadístico de España (various years), op. cit.

(10) See f.103, PART THREE.

It must be emphasized that the definition of "rurality" adopted in this section (see f.152, PART TEC) is a minimum one. Of the 253 "urban" municipios with 10,001-20,000 population in Spain in 1950, only 73 had more than 50% of their economically active populations engaged in non-agricultural activities. See R. Jiménez and M. Serrano, "Estructura funcional de las ciudades españolas de 10,000 a 20,000 habitantes en 1950", Estudios Geográficos, Vol.31, No.113, Feb., 1970, Table 2, p.92.

(11) Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España, 1967, op. cit., Table 3.49, p.163.

Using statistics from a constant source (Productividad, op. cit., p.63),
it is possible to arrive at some rough approximation of the strength of out-migration from agriculture. The indices are calculated as follows:

\[
\text{Annual number leaving primary sector} \times 100
\]

The indices for 1961-1969 are published here without comment:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>27.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>39.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>52.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>41.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>60.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(16) Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 12.2. R 50-60 and R 50-67, p.1274; and idem., Table 5.50, p.144.


(18) Las Emigraciones en España, op. cit., pp.43-44.


(21) Ministerio de Trabajo, Instituto Capital del Emigrante, Emigración a la Unión Europea, Madrid, 1960. Seventeen motives are listed, and assisted emigrants to Europe are given the opportunity of multiple answers, with the result that 21.2% chose "to help the family," while 31.2% gave "to improve one’s salary" as their motive.

(22) G. Kade and J.J. Lins, op. cit., Table 43, p.96.

(23) Only 15% of Kades' sample gave the desire to save as their motive for emigrating to France, while a survey conducted by Deutscher Caritas-verbund D.V. in 1957 gave 79.95% of the men and 50% of the women as migrating to West Germany for this motive. See J. Kades, La Emigración Española en Francia, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, 1971, p.50; and S. del Campo Urbano, 1972, op. cit., p.42, p.117.

(24) Angeles Pascual does not attribute the desire to save as a motive for emigrating to West Germany to his ninety return migrants interviewed in Barcelona. See Angeles Pascual, op. cit., p.103.


(27) The statistics were extracted from Emigración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Tables 1, 2, and 3, pp.41-42 and 92. The source of net internal migration statistics 1951-1955 will not be given in future calculations except where it differs from the above.


Our intention is not to use simple correlation techniques "rather indiscriminately on a mass of data in the hope of revealing some hitherto unsuspected relationships," but rather to evaluate the relative importance of the most important factors controlling and regulating out-migration within the agricultural control sub-system through the testing of specific hypotheses. Quoted from D.L. Smith, 1975, op. cit., p.273.

(30) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.59.


Ref. pp. 140-141


(36) Informe Socialista sobre la Situación Social de España 1979, op. cit., p. 277; and J. Rosque Laurel, "La distribución de la explotación agraria en Andalucía", Anales de Sociología, Núm. 4-5, 1952-1959, p. 13. In Rosque Laurel's definition latifundios must also cover more than 50% of municipal areas.


(38) P. García, op. cit. According to this source, latifundios occupied 35.2% of the twenty-seven provinces surveyed although only accounting for 0.12% of the total farm units. Ibid., p. 50.


(41) S. Thome, 1962, op. cit., p. 129.

(42) J. Añiló, op. cit., p. 77.

(43) F. García, op. cit., p. 43.


(45) J. Sancho Hanz, 1972, op. cit., p. 27.

(46) J. Mañer Alfonso, Hacienda, hierro y dependencia en el campo de Gibraltar, Ciencia Nueva, Madrid, 1955, p. 25; and G. Breman, op. cit., p. 125. Only 23% of the land-surface of the province of Badajoz was cultivated; according to P. García, "La cédula de título de propiedad social para intensificar la explotación del suelo", n.d., p. 13, quoted in S. Aznar Elfrido, op. cit., p. 34.

(47) Plantation owners (in Brazil, for example) have similarly under-utilized land as a device to control labor. See C. L. Beckford, Persistent Poverty, Underdevelopment in plantation economies of the third world, Oxford University Press, New York, London and Toronto, 1972, p. 179.


(49) Only 25% of the land-surface of the province of Badajoz was cultivated; according to P. García, "La cédula de título de propiedad social para intensificar la explotación del suelo", n.d., p. 13, quoted in S. Aznar Elfrido, op. cit., p. 34.


(54) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.59.


(56) V. Pérez Díaz, 1966, op. cit., p.156.


(58) G. Kade and J.J. Linz, op. cit., p.159.

(59) J. Bosque Maurel, The "landowners". A term much used in Andalucía with reference to rich land-owners.

(60) S. de Madariaga, op. cit., p.112.

(61) J. Martínez Alier, op. cit., p.46.

(62) Literally "the masters". A term much used in Andalucía with reference to rich land-owners.

(63) For the "black legend" of the Andalucian señorito see N. Salas, op. cit., pp.227-232.

(64) I. Moreno Navarro, Propiedad, Clases Sociales y Hermandades en la Baja Andalucía, Siglo Veintiuno de España Edit., Madrid, 1972, p.118.

Moreno Navarro distinguishes five categories within the agricultural social hierarchy:

- Fuerte propietario (Rich land-owner)
- Propietario (Land-owner)
- Agricultor autónomo (Small land-owner)
- Jornalero-propietario (Labourer-small land-owner)
- Jornalero sin tierra (Landless labourer)

The significant socio-economic divide comes between the agricultor autónomo and Jornalero-propietario classes.

(65) Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., p.239.

The "Índice de concentración" is defined as provinces where estates of 300 hectares or over occupy more than 50% of the total land area. The "Índice de concentración-desaprovechamiento" is refined so as not to include uncultivated, irrigated and forested-unpastured zones within the total land area. Ibid., p.257.


(67) The statistics were extracted from Primer Censo Agrario de España, Año 1962, op. cit., quoted in J. Anillo, op. cit., pp.226-227, for the first calculation; and ibid., quoted in Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 4.5, p.306, for the second calculation.

(68) Quoted in S. Aznar Embid, op. cit., p.36.


(70) J. García Fernández, 1964, op. cit., p.169.


(71) G. Kade and J.J. Linz, op. cit., p.159.

(72) A recent survey found that the average farmer working an area of 5 acres or less in Western Europe spends a third of his entire working hours in...
transit. See P. Clough, "Counteracting mass migration from the mountains", The Times, 14th May, 1974.


(73) An interesting sidelight into "bovine litigation" (a branch of the law which owes its raison d'être to straying beasts) was given by P. O'Flanagan, "Factors promoting intra-peninsular migration from Galicia," paper read at the Fourth Annual Conference of the Iberian Social Studies Association, University of Southampton, 15-18th April, 1971.


(75) Seignorial rights. See S. de Madariaga, *op. cit.* p. 114.


The classification sometimes employed is:

0-5 hectares,
5-20 hectares,
20-50 hectares,
50-200 hectares,
Over 250 hectares.

(77) According to A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

The relevant statistics were extracted from *Primer Censo Agrario de España, Año 1962*, 1966, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-6.

(78) M. Sigüen Soler, *El Medio Rural Castellano y sus Posibilidades de Ordenación*, Ministerio de Agricultura, Servicio Nacional de Concentración Parcelaria y Ordenación Rural, Madrid, 2nd ed., 1967 (b), p. 23. Sigüen suggests that the owner either cultivates the 2 hectares as a supplement to some other occupation or emigrated some time ago (and by implication either rented or sold his land to another).


In the Sierra Ministra (of the provinces of Soria and Guadalajara), although theoretically land is equally divided between the sons on the death of a father, in practice the entire estate is usually farmed by one son who pays rent to his siblings for this right. See S.T. Freeman, "Corporate village organisation in the Sierra Ministra: an Iberian structural type," *Man*, Vol. 3, No. 3, Sept., 1968, p. 477.

Ref. pp. 143-145


(83) Cf. latifundismo where thirty-seven provinces had more than one third of the total land surface occupied by estates of over 300 hectares in 1962.


(85) L. García de Oteyza, "El parcelamiento de la propiedad y de la explotación. La concentración parcelaria y la ordenación rural," Boletín de Estudios Económicos, No. 61, 1964, p.15.

Sancho Hazak distinguishes between the primitive subsistence type of minifundio and the subsidized, cereal-secano type of Old Castile and León. See R. Sancho Hazak, 1972, op. cit., pp.251-252.

(86) In some minifundist zones it has been customary for the sons of small land-owners, shopkeepers and the like to migrate on growing-up. In some villages it is a tradition for the eldest son to inherit the estate, the second son say to make the army his career, the third to become a priest and so on. See M. Siguán Soler, 1967 (a), op. cit., p.52, and A. Abascal Garayoa, "Los orígenes de la población actual de Pamplona," Geográfica, 1950.

For the factor of the derecho del hereu (land-inheritance rights) in migration in Catalonia see J. Ros Jimeno, 1966, op. cit., p.112.

For the tradition of "religious out-migration" in la Aldea del Puente (León), see Casildo Perreras, op. cit., pp.695-696.


Despite relatively high birth-rates the provinces of Old Castile are characterized by weak population growth thanks to migration. Between 1900 and 1950 the population of Old Castile increased by only 25.6% compared with 69.7% for the nation as a whole. See M. de Terán, Geografía de España y Portugal, Vol. 4 (1st Part), Montaner y Simón, Barcelona, 1958, p.246.

(88) This is the índice de disgregación-parcelación perfected by Fundación FOESSA. This index shows moderately significant degrees of correlation with six agricultural variables ($r = 0.65$ to $0.42$). See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., p.243 and Table 4.11, ni 62, p.312.


García Fernández's conclusions based on the number of campesinos per cultivated hectare are false. He claims that Galicia, Andalucía and Canarias - regions with less than 2 hectares per active agricultural person - are regions where migration is most favoured. But all of the provinces of peripheral Spain (according to his map on page 166) have similar indices. Moreover, following his line of thought, it would seem logical that the interior provinces would have the lowest out-migration rates!


(91) The statistics were extracted from Anuario Estadístico de España, 1970, op. cit., Table 1.3.3, pp.13-14; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.68.

(92) The quick, rough and ready method for defining rural population in Spain which is usually employed is the provincial totals minus the population of the capitals. See A. Melón Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1941, op. cit., pp.402-403.

(93) The statistics were extracted from Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, op. cit., Table 1.3.3, pp.13-14; and A. Melón Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1941, op. cit., pp.402-403.

(94) J. García Fernández, 1960, op. cit., p.266.


(96) Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit.,
The calculations are, in fact, wrong. One in four of the total national economically active population in 1950 of 10,773,000 was a salaried agricultural worker, and one in ten in 1965. See *ibid.*, Table 3.60, p.170. In 1950, 48.75% of the agricullurally active population was salaried (i.e., one in two of the active population in the primary sector, not one in four as stated); in 1965, 34.97% (i.e., one in three, not one in ten).

It would be wrong to read too much into these statistics. From 1964, for example, there is a change in the system of classification - which causes the salaried agricultural labour force to fall from 51.76% in 1963 to 34.83% twelve months later, with a proportional rise occurring in the number of land-owners.

According to statistics issued by the Mutualidad de Revisión Agraria the number of affiliated salaried agricultural labourers fell by 52.23% between 1963 and 1964 compared with an almost parallel decline in the number of autonomous workers (e.g. small land-owners) of 47.75%. There is reason, therefore, from these statistics quoted in *Presidencia del Gobierno, Comisión del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Memoria sobre la Ejecución del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Año 1964*, Madrid, 1965, p.136, to doubt the more rapid decline of landless labourers noted by *Fundación FOESSA* above.

Moreover, by taking statistics from different sources (always a dangerous practice in Spain), it is possible to show that the number of salaried agricultural labourers as a percentage of the total agriculturally active economic population hardly declined between 1950 and 1964:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>48.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>47.14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See *Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970*, *op. cit.*, Table 3.60, p.170; and *Memoria sobre la Ejecución del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Año 1964*, *op. cit.*, p.136.

That is land-owners and self-employed agriculturalists.

The statistics were extracted from *Banco de Bilbao, Servicio de Estudios, Renta Nacional de España y su Distribución Provincial 1962*, Bilbao, 1965, pp.66-67.

That is hired labourers and agricultural wage-earners.


Statistics taken from a constant source show that the number of landless labourers as a percentage of the total active agricultural population declined from 37.6% in 1960 to 31.7% in 1971. See *Banco de Bilbao, Servicio de Estudios, Renta Nacional de España y su Distribución Provincial 1960*, Bilbao, 1963, p.50; and *Banco de Bilbao, Renta Nacional de España y su Distribución Provincial 1971*, Bilbao, 1973, pp.121-122.

Values above 0.230 and 0.369 are significant at the 95 and 99% levels of confidence respectively. The statistics were extracted from *Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España*, 1966, *op. cit.*, p.52.


In the *Primer Censo Agrario* all agricultural labourers were simply classified as *remunerados* or *no remunerados*. See J. Anlló, *op. cit.*, p.87.

The original correlation using Spearman's formula was \( R_s = -0.278 \). The coefficient was really unsuitable in this instance since tied values affected 41 provinces in one variable thus causing the square of the rank difference (\( D^2 \)) to be too low. A correction factor (\( T \)) was applied and produced a corrected \( R_s = -0.310 \).

The correction factor (\( T \)) has been applied in all calculations of the coefficient of rank correlation in this thesis where there have been
tied values.

For the use of the correction factor (T) see W.H. Theakstone and C. Harrison, op. cit., pp.80 and 82.


(109) Ibid. The exact figure was 67,510 or 38.02%.


In 1953, 15.57% of the salaried agricultural workers in España del Sur (Andalucía plus Badajoz) had permanent jobs compared with 26.15% for the Rest of Spain.

In 1956, the comparable figures were 15.34% (España del Sur) and 28.70% (Rest of Spain).


(116) That is including the unemployed from the non-primary sectors. An average of 84.98% of the total number unemployed in the province of Jaén during the 1941-1950 period, according to demandas de colocación (or job-demand statistics) were from the agricultural sector. See R. Gómez Quevedo, El paro obrero en Jaén, Suplemento to Revista Sindical de Estadística, Nos.27 and 28, 3rd and 4th quarters, 1952, 38pp.


In the very bad agricultural years of 1945, 1946 and 1954 an average of 13,600, 20,900 and 18,700 respectively were unemployed monthly in the province of Jaén. See Presidencia del Gobierno, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Reseña Estadística de la Provincia de Jaén, Madrid, 1956, p.517.

According to a sample survey conducted by the Servicio de Encuadramiento y Colocación, an average of 17,000 workers (including non-agricultural ones) were unemployed in Jaén province during the 1956-1960 period, compared with 15,000 in both Badajoz and Córdoba. See Consejo Social de la Organización Sindical Española, Campo (2), Madrid, 1959, p.225.

Martín Sanz has estimated that a total of 11,206,031 work-days are lost annually by the agricultural population of Jaén province. If we divide this figure by 230 (the number of utilizable work-days in the year according to J. Aniló, op. cit., p.92) then 48,722 represents
the number underemployed in agriculture within the province. See D. Martín Sanz, "Paro obrero", paper read at the Primer Pleno del Consejo Económico Sindical de Jaén, 1954, p.72, quoted in A. Muñoz Fernández, op. cit., p.473.

According to D. Martín Sanz and C. García de Oteyza, 20.89% of the national total of unemployed agricultural workers in 1946 were in the province of Jaén, compared with 16.44% in Badajoz and 6.30% in Córdoba. See D. Martín Sanz and C. García de Oteyza, El Paro Estacional Campesino, Sindicato Vertical del Olivo, Madrid, 1946, pp.6-7. See also J.M. Fontana, Información sobre el Paro Agrícola en España, Granada, 1946, pp.28-29.

During the 1956-1960 period Jaén province had the highest number of workers unemployed - an average of 11,238 monthly. See — — - ■ > Paro obrero registrado en España, Revista de Trabajo, 1962, pp.769-770.


Disguised unemployment is part of a traditional social security system in agriculture, whereby people who would have been unemployed and who would have starved in a wage economy are maintained by their relatives (by sharing part of the total output of the extended family), even though their own output is below subsistence level. See H. Myint, "The Expansion of Exports and the Growth of Population", in A.B. Mountjoy, (ed.), Developing the Underdeveloped Countries, Macmillan, London, 1971, p.67 (First published in The Economics of the Developing Countries, Hutchinson, London, 1967).

(119) Mediterranean Development Project, op. cit., p.43.

(120) Mediterranean Development Project, op. cit., p.43.


(122) Consejo Económico Sindical de la Provincia de Badajoz, Perspectivas de Desarrollo Económico de la Provincia de Badajoz (en los Próximos Cinco Años), Organización Sindical, Consejo Económico Nacional, Cabinte Técnico, Madrid, Mar., 1962, p.23. In Córdoba, underemployment in agriculture affected 24,000 workers in 1961, while a further 6,000 on average were seasonally unemployed in the province. See J. Aniló, op. cit., pp.94-95. The statistics were extracted from Consejo Económico Sindical de la Provincia de Córdoba, Perspectivas de Desarrollo Económico de la Provincia de Córdoba (en los Próximos Cinco Años), Organización Sindical, Consejo Económico Nacional, Cabinte Técnico, Madrid, Mar., 1962. See also II Pleno del Consejo Económico Sindical de la Provincia de Córdoba, Memoria, Córdoba, Nov., 1956, pp.32-35.


(124) Mediterranean Development Project, op. cit., p.43.

(125) Mediterranean Development Project, op. cit., p.43.
of the total and permanently-employed agricultural labourers the remaining 4.99%.

(125) Assuming 230 utilizable work-days in the year (see f.117). G. Hemet, op. cit., p.60, assumes that there are 240 utilizable work-days in the agricultural year.


(130) Registered unemployment for the 1960-1964 period was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Agriculture, forestry and fishing</th>
<th>Agriculture and fishing</th>
<th>Average of first three quarters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>35.39%</td>
<td>34.19%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>42.20%</td>
<td>34.11%</td>
<td>39.68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>39.43%</td>
<td>32.65%</td>
<td>38.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>51.03%</td>
<td>29.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Agriculture, forestry and fishing; + Agriculture and fishing.

The statistics were extracted from Anuario Estadístico de España 1965, op. cit., p.321; and O.E.C.D., Spain, 1965, op. cit., Table 4, p.48.

Note the figures given in Campo (2), op. cit., quoted in M. Capello Martínez, op. cit., pp.93 and 321, which gives 280,005.

(131) Three examples will illustrate this point:

(a) The officially registered unemployed in the province of Seville at the end of January 1967 totalled 3,008, or 0.23% of the 1970 population. The actual number of unemployed farm workers at the same date (according to local union officials later corroborated by interviews in the field) in one provincial village (Lebrija) was 2,102, or 2.68% of the 1970 population of the province. B. Kayser, op. cit., p.47.

(b) The percentage of the economically active population unemployed in twelve western countries compared with Spain averaged:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Twelve western countries</th>
<th>1953</th>
<th>1958</th>
<th>1961</th>
<th>1967</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1.60%</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
<td>1.40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Spain's registered unemployment statistics would thus appear to be artificially low, averaging only 1.5% of the economically active population during the 1962-1969 period. See O.E.C.D., Etudes Economiques, Espagne, Paris, Jan., 1972, p.72.

(c) Official unemployment statistics in Spain have fallen quite dramatically since the change of régime in 1940:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reproduced in Ya, 18th Jul., 1970.

The rate of unemployment is an important factor determining the rate of transfer of labour from agriculture to the other two sectors of the economy in the United States. See C.E. Bishop, "Economic Aspects of Changes in Farm Labor Force" in Labor Mobility and Population in Agriculture, Iowa State University Press, Iowa City, 1961.

(133) J. Giménez Mellado, op. cit.

Should there be those who would criticize Giménez Mellado for linking unemployment in one specific year and life-time internal migration, in defence it has been stated by Brenan:

"Lower Andalusia is probably the only region in Europe where the condition of the agricultural workers has not improved in the last hundred and fifty years."


(135) E.J.T. Collins, op. cit., p.78.

(136) Ibid., p.77.


(138) Ibid., p.25; and A. Muñoz Fernández, op. cit., p.490.

It must not be assumed that there is full employment at harvest time. Francisco Bergasa has estimated that 18% of the agricultural workers in the province of Granada were unemployed at harvest time (circa. 1970). See La Vanguardia, 20th Aug., 1970. Other regions suffer from a chronic shortage of labour at harvest time. See F. Benítez Cano, "La migración en la comarca extramuriana conocida con el nombre de "la Siberia", Estudios Geográficos. Vol.29, No.108, Aug., 1968, p.371.


(141) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.61.

(142) The statistics were extracted from ibid., p.61; and Ponencia de Desarrollo Regional, II Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, op. cit., p.166.

(143) Ibid., p.167; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.61.


(145) My italics. See M. Siguán Soler, "Desarrollo Económico y Evolución Social. Repercusiones sobre el Campo Español", in Ministerio de Agricultura, Servicio Nacional de Concentración Parcelaria y Ordenación...

For the development of highly mechanized estates of over 30,000 hectares see G. Hemet, "Estructura agraria y progreso técnico en tres provincias españolas (Burgos-Huelva-Sevilla)"; Anales de Sociología, Nos. 4-5, 1968-1969, p. 157.


Agriculturalists have been able to buy gas-oil at specially reduced rates. (precio desbarrado) See Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., p. 147.

Under the 1st Economic and Social Development Plan (1964-1967) big credits were made available to certain groups of agriculturalists to mechanize their farms. Ibid., pp. 147-151; and G. Hills, 1970, op. cit., p. 326.

Servicio Sindical de Estadística de Segovia, Productividad y Empleo Agrario: una Investigación en la Provincia de Segovia. Segovia, 1964, p. 52.

J. García Fernández, 1964, op. cit., pp. 141-143, feels that the disastrous agricultural year in 1960 was a factor leading to mechanization. Land-owners could dispense with labour and save costs,
tractors being obtained mainly on long-term credit agreements. Significantly, the harvesting of wheat (which had previously been the most labour-intensive agricultural operation) was the first to be mechanized in the comarca de Calatrava (Ciudad Real). A 62% fall in the number of casual labourers contracted at harvest time in Cañada de Calatrava between 1960 and 1970. See D. Marquez Femandez, "Cañada de Calatrava. Un municipio rural", Estudios Geográficos, Vol. 35, No. 136, Aug., 1974, pp. 454-455.


(159) The statistics were extracted from J. Pérez de Tudela Bueso and T. Pérez Sánchez, op. cit., p. 73.

(160) A. López Muñoz, op. cit., p. 15.


(162) Ibid., p. 15. The statistics refer to a 47.79% decline in the number of agricultural workers registered by the Mutualidad de Previsión Agraria between 31st December, 1963 and 31st December, 1964.


(165) L.A. Rojo Duque, "La crisis agraria", Información Comercial Española, No. 378, Feb., 1965, pp. 16-17. According to this source, 59.88% of the decline in the active agricultural population in the biennial 1963-1964 could be attributed to small proprietors and their families.


(167) The measure of agricultural mechanization was the amount of horsepower (of tractors and motor-cultivators) per 100 cultivated hectares. The statistics were extracted from Ministerio de Agricultura, Dirección General de Agricultura, Censo de Maquinaria Agrícola 1964, Madrid, 1965.

(168) See, for example, R.P. Bradshaw, 1972, op. cit., Map 5, p. 73. The most rapid fall in the active agricultural population as a percentage of the total active population (1950-1966) took place in the most industrialized regions of Spain. See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.52, p. 156.

(169) A. López Muñoz, op. cit., p. 15.

(170) M. Siguán Soler, 1967 (8), op. cit., p. 28.

The Ley de 20 de diciembre de 1952, re-inforced by the Decreto de 10 de agosto de 1955, had laid down that before consolidation of land could begin, a minimum of 60% of the proprietors of the ayuntamiento (municipal area) concerned, possessing at least 60% of the total land-surface, should request such reforms. Rural exodus simplified the operation by reducing the number of potentially dissident proprietors. Incidentally the Ley de 8 de noviembre de 1962 reduced the minimum percentage of proprietors to 50, although they had to own at least 75% of the total land-area of the ayuntamiento (50% if land was exploited communally). See Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., p. 163; and J. Anlló, op. cit., pp. 71-72.

(171) A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p. 174.

In Western Europe, rural exodus together with an increasing use of mechanization in agriculture resulted in a sharp decrease in the number of farm holdings and an increase in their average size. See O.E.C.D., Low Incomes in Agriculture, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1964, p. 29.


(173) L. García de Oteiza, M. Bueno Gómez and F. Cruz Conde, Variación de los Factores de la Producción Agrícola como Consecuencia de la
As a result of the Decreto de 17 de noviembre de 1963, the S.N. de C.P. y O.R. became concerned not only with land consolidation and purely economic measures, but also with improving the professional status of agriculturalists, and with the provision of services, teleclubs and cultural centres in the affected areas (comarcas de ordenación rural).

IETYDA consisted of the fusion of two previously separate agencies for agricultural reform - the S.N. de C.P. y O.R. and the Instituto Nacional de Colonización. The I.N.C. could never have been accused of limiting its colonization/irrigation schemes to Castile (see f. 179). Between 1942 and 1971 it was responsible for the construction of 298 new villages in 23 provinces of Spain (23 of which were non-Castilian ones. See Ministerio de Agricultura, Instituto Nacional de Reforma y Desarrollo Agrario, Mejora del Medio Rural, Serie Boletín de Información, No.8, 1973, pp.6-8; and J. López de Sebastián, 1968, op. cit., p.140.

Flores claimed (in 1965) that the S.N. de C.P. y O.R. at its then current rate of progress would take until 1995 to complete the land consolidation of 10 million hectares within the minifundist zones of Spain. See X. Flores, op. cit., p.193.

In the sense that the legal measures of November 1963 (see f.174) were panic measures - and an attempt to do more for social reform, including the attempt to restore a "feeling of community" in the pueblo - in response to massive éxodo rural.


Including León, Salamanca and Zamora which historically, although not physically, form a separate region. Ibid., p.246.

The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 12, p.177.

Similarly, between 1955 and 1963 no less than 384,000 cultivators of wheat with farms smaller than 2 hectares disappeared. See J. Añiló, op. cit., Table 15, P.59.

Since its creation in 1937, the Servicio Nacional de Trigo (renamed the Servicio Nacional de Cereales in 1968) has had a complete monopoly in purchasing wheat from the farmers at a guaranteed price and supplying wheat to the flour-millers. See The Economic Development of Spain, op. cit., p.296.

L. de Hoyos Sainz, La Densidad de Población y el Acrecentamiento en España: Hechas, Causas, Aplicaciones e Interpretaciones, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, 1952, p.177.
(189) A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.39.
(191) The unnamed village studied by Pérez Díaz is nicknamed Camino Viejo by him. Our calculations suggest that it is probably Pozo de Almoguera. See V. Pérez Díaz, 1966, op. cit., p.72.
(192) The statistics were extracted from Ibid., Table 7-3, p.190, and Table 2-4, p.196.
(195) E.A. Wrigley, 1969, op. cit., pp.69, 77 and 165.
(196) D. Swaine Thomas, 1941, op. cit., pp.82-84.
(197) See f.142.
Until 1967 there was little change in the areas devoted to wheat. The restructuring of prices for cereals for the 1966-1967 harvest saw the first radical change in government policy concerning wheat production for nearly thirty years. See Información Sociológica sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., p.192.
(199) Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, op. cit., Table 2.2.1, p.76. See also G. García Badell, "Las producciones agrícolas y nuestra renta nacional," Estudios Geográficos, Vol.12, No.45, Nov., 1951, pp.671-700, for an account of the effect of the Civil War, the economic blockade which followed it, and drought had on crop yields in Spain.
(201) Ibid., p.36.
(203) The indices used were annual changes in the Indices de la producción final agraria 1960/61-1968/69. The statistics were extracted from Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, op. cit., Table 1, p.75.
(204) I.R. Vesselo, op. cit., p.156; and R. Balton, et al., op. cit., p.27.
(205) For the use of Kendall's correlation coefficient see P. McCullagh, 1974, op. cit., pp.77-79.
(206) M.G. Kendall, Rank Correlation Methods, 4th ed., Charles Griffin, London, 1948, Appendix Table 1, p.173.
(207) In 1960, twenty-eight Spanish provinces were in the pre-industrial stage (with 50% or over of their economically active populations employed in agriculture). By 1967, the number had shrunk to 17 (with another 18 provinces in the developing stage with 35-49% of their economically active populations employed in agriculture). See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.54, p.167, and the two maps on p.119. The definitions of pre-industrial, developing etc., are based on the United Nations, Demographic Year Book 1966, New York, 1966.
(210) Ibid., p.140.
(211) Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., Table 23, p.120. The statistics were extracted from Presidencia del Gobierno,

(213) Ibid. These official statistics quoted from the Comisión del Plan are not necessarily correct. See J. Añiló, op. cit., p. 85.

(214) This resulted in a fall of nearly 10% in the Gross Agricultural Product which affected the sale of tractors. See Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., pp. 21-22.

(215) Ibid., pp. 119-120.

(216) Ibid., p. 117.


(218) The Economic Development of Spain, op. cit., p. 401.


(220) According to J. Añiló, op. cit., p. 31, as a result of the successful completion of irrigation schemes a large landowner can treble or quadruple his net income, as well as receiving substantial sums in cash for secano land expropriated by the Instituto Nacional de Colonización.


(222) In this instance estates of 200 hectares or over. See Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., p. 87.

(223) In 1964, of all the internal migrants assisted by the Ministerio de Trabajo no less than 35.62% were intra-provincial migrants moving within the province of Badajoz. In 1965, internal movements within the province of Badajoz increased to 60.95% of the national total of assisted internal migrants. See G. Kade and J.J. Linz, op. cit., Table 34, p. 86.


(226) Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, 1964-1967, op. cit., p. 145. See also ibid., p. 35, where a figure of "nearly 1½%" is quoted. According to G. Hills, 1970, op. cit., p. 394, the real rate for the 1964-1967 period was a 3.9% decrease per annum; and over 4% per annum according to Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., p. 147.

(227) J. García Fernández, 1964, op. cit., p. 140.

(228) The statistics for the net migration of workers were extracted from ibid., pp. 144 and 161-162.


(230) Ibid., pp. 22-23. The statistics extracted refer to the net migration of workers as a percentage of the active population.

(231) The statistics were extracted from A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A3.

(232) The statistics were extracted from R. Tamames, 1962, op. cit., p. 119. As a matter of interest, the degree of correlation between García Barbancho and Tamames’s statistics (both obtained by the vital statistics method) was Rs = +0.821, which was significant at the 99% level of confidence.


(235) Ibid., Table 17.3, p. 1165.
Ref. pp.161-163


The depressed economic condition of the agricultural labourer was partly due to the loss of extra income earned by his wife and children in cottage craft industries. See G.P. Hirsch, "Migration from the land in England and Wales", The Farm Economist, Vol.6, No.9, 1951, pp.270-280.

For the "agriculturalisation" of the countryside see S.H. Franklin, op. cit., p.24.


According to C. Giménez de la Cuadra, op. cit., p.68, the 1939-1949 period in Spain was characterized by a subsistence level of economy. The first lorries carrying chemical fertilizers arrived in the backward agricultural areas of Alcober-Ecarajo de los Montes (Ciudad Real) only in 1945. See F. Giménez de Gregorio, "La población en la zona suroccidental de los Montes de Toledo", Estudios Geográficos, Vol.28, No.108, Aug., 1967, p.320.

(240) H.D. Clout, op. cit., p.12.

(241) Although not in percentage terms.

The population of all municipios under 10,000 population was in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>12.6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>13.2 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>11.4 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


(242) The percentage decline of population contained in municipios with under 2,000 population was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Period</th>
<th>Percentage Decline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901-1910</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-1920</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-1930</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-1940</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941-1950</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951-1960</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-1970</td>
<td>15.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See ibid., p.124; and Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., p.111.


(244) J. Hinderink, op. cit., p.189.


(249) M. Siguán Soler, 1967 (b), op. cit., p.125.

(250) Ibid., p.126.

It is the ambition of many small proprietors to obtain some form of security before emigrating. Employment as a concierge is ideal for the post is permanent and pensionable with free living accommodation provided. Fixed salaries are low but were doubled by Government Decree.
in the early 1960s to the author's knowledge (and have most likely risen considerably since).

(251) M. Wolfe, op. cit., p.484. As an example, the number of farmacias (chemist shops) fell by 18.60% in the province of Segovia, 22.24% in Guadalajara, 24.72% in Palencia and 31.25% in Soria, between 1941 and 1961 in each case. See Consejo de Colegios Farmacéuticos de España, La Oficina de Farmacia en España, Madrid, 1964, cited in Plan C.C.E., op. cit., Vol.1, p.61.


(252) B. Kayser, op. cit., p.146.
(255) Ibid., pp.29-57.


According to the president of the Sección de Trabajadores de la Hermandad Sindical Nacional de Labradores y Ganaderos, in a press conference quoted in la Vanguardia, 22nd May, 1965, nearly 70% of the labour-force remaining in the countryside was over 50 years old.

(257) As a percentage of the economically active agricultural population. Pueblo, op. cit.

(258) Ibid.

The percentage of youngsters (10-14 years old) in all sectors of the economically active population in Spain fell from 9.9% in 1950 to 4.9% in 1966. See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.71, p.176.

(259) Anexo al II Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, op. cit., Table 1.2, p.3. See also Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.59, p.175.

According to a sample survey conducted by the I.N.E. in 1963, women accounted for 20.12% of the agricultural labour-force in the second semester. Only 6.21% of the females employed in agriculture were salaried, 70.85% being classified under ayuda familiar (unpaid family help). See Presidencia del Gobierno, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Enuesta sobre Población Activa. Año 1968, Madrid, 1969, Table 2.2.3., p.7.

See also S.H. Franklin, 1971, op. cit., p.35, for a comparison with Italy; and Geographic and Occupational Mobility of Rural Manpower, for the affect of mechanization in reducing the number of jobs done by females in agriculture. Ibid., p.21.

(262) S. del Campo Urbano, 1972, op. cit., p.132.
(263) Information privately supplied by the I.N.E. Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.2.a), p.29, gives a sex discrepancy of 3.21% in favour of male migrants for the 1961-1965 period. This could be expected in view of the greater under-registration of female in-migrants. See f.2, PART THREE.

(264) Migration abroad is male-dominated. Regions with high rates of external (including seasonal) migration tend to have proportionally more females employed in agriculture. See P. Dovring, Problems of Manpower in Agriculture, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1964, p.97.

Local areas where the "worker-peasant" phenomenon is common also have proportionally higher percentages of women employed in agriculture. See E. García Manrique, "Un ejemplo de paisaje agrario de la Vega Alta del Segura: Abarán", Estudios Geográficos, Vol.36, Nos.136-138, Feb.-May, 1975, p.420, and Table 1, p.421.
Ref. pp.165-169


(266) A. Míguez, Galicia, Exodo y Desarrollo, Edit. Cuadernos para el Dialogo, Madrid, 1967, p.59. The term is often reserved for Galicia, the most ruralized region of Spain.

(267) A. Martín Gamero, op. cit., p.41.

(268) In this instance, 35.59% of the houses were built before 1860 and 25.67% between 1861 and 1900. Ibid., p.66. See also Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 16.11, p.1124.


(272) Instituto de Estudios de Administración Local, Anuario Estadístico de las Corporaciones Locales, 1962, cited in A. Martín Gamero, op. cit., Table 2, pp.63-64. (Vol.2, Madrid, 1965)


(274) A. Martín Gamero, op. cit., p.48.


(276) Consejo Económico Sindical de la Provincia de Guadalajara, Perspectivas de Desarrollo Económico de la Provincia de Guadalajara (en los Próximos Cinco Años), Organización Sindical Consejo Económico Nacional, Gabinete Técnico, Madrid, Mar., 1962, p.3. This source gives the average budget for the small municipio of the province as 204 ptas. per capita, which is quite insufficient even for the provision and upkeep of minimum service facilities.

(277) Bracey attempted to correlate services with rural depopulation in Somerset (1931-1951) but found that 10% of parishes with increasing population were poorly served. See H.E. Bracey, "A note on rural depopulation and social provision", Sociological Review, Vol.6, 1958, pp.67-74, cited in H.D. Clout, op. cit., p.20.

(278) A. Martín Gamero, op. cit., p.25, p.40.

(279) In this context, mechanization by relieving enforced separation results in the humanization of the countryside, as well as its "dehumanization" as Rodrigo Rubio, 1966, op. cit., would have us believe.

(280) A. Garcia Barbancho, 1964, op. cit., p.79.

(281) F. Murillo, et al., op. cit., p.220.


(287) Ibid.


Lack of population pressure on resources in the French countryside resulted in comparatively little out-migration. Conditions in both agriculture and industry were stagnant, almost fossilized. See T. Judt, "A society in stagnation," No.4 in series "France from Waterloo to World War II," Geographical Magazine, Vol.48, No.4, Jan., 1976, p.239.


In our opinion, the five stages of the "mobility transition" in Spain can be dated approximately as follows:

I Pre-1830
II 1830-1910
III 1910-1939
IV 1945-1965
V 1965-------


Thus Spain’s share of 18 European countries' intercontinental emigration increased from 1.3% (1866-1870) to 1.9% (1870-1875). See W.F. Willcox and I. Ferenczy, op. cit., Vol.1, Tables 1 and 2. One of the results of unrestricted emigration was a fall in the average annual population increase from 1.14% (1833-1860) to 0.47% (1860-1900), as we have shown in Table XXX of this thesis.

M. González-Rothvoss y Gil, op. cit.

C. Martí Bufill, op. cit., p.289.


R. Carr, op. cit., p.413.

C. Martí Bufill, op. cit., p.289.


A. Maris, op. cit., pp.42 and 48-49.

Ref. pp.172-173


(312) See A. Melón Ruiz de Gordejuela, 1951, op. cit., pp.203-231. Fourteen provinces grew in population at rates above the national average during the 1921-1930 period, but not Badajoz. See J. Díez Nicolás, "Componentes del crecimiento de la población en España, 1900-1960", Revista Internacional de Sociología, No.117, 1971. (a) Population statistics for Badajoz are often different from those of nearby provinces. During the 1931-1935 period, for example, adjoining Cáceres had the highest birth-rate in Spain while Badajoz was nineteenth. Between 1948 and 1960, the rate of natural increase of population in Badajoz fell from the second highest to the second lowest of nine southern provinces. In the 1962-1964 period, the rate of natural increase in Cáceres was above the national average, in Badajoz below it. See A. García Barbancho, 1964, op. cit., p.110; G. Heimert, 1966, op. cit., p.33; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 3.1, p.103.


(314) II Pleno del Consejo Económico Sindical de la Provincia de Córdoba, Memoria, op. cit., p.82.


This pattern was followed in many developing countries. See, for example, N.L. Müller, "Brazil", in R. Jones, (ed.), op. cit., pp. 212-222.

(320) Bishop has shown that the rate of "implied migration" decreases rapidly as the age of males employed in agriculture increases. He estimated that 59.1% of the farm population of the United States within the 5-14 age group in 1960 would migrate, compared with 73.7% for the 15-24 age group and only 15.7% for the 35-44 age group. See Geographic and Occupational Mobility of Rural Manpower, op. cit., Table 10, p.41.


(323) Net migration statistics 1956-1960 were extracted from A. García Barbancho, 1964, op. cit., p.110.


(326) L. de Hoyos Sainz, op. cit., p.19.

(327) D.H. Wrong, op. cit., p.97.


(331) Ibid., p.10.


(333) J. Ros Jimeno, La natalidad y el futuro crecimiento de la población de España, Boletín de Estadística, No.17, 1943; and J. Ros Jimeno, La natalidad en España después de la guerra y la población futura, Revista Internacional de Sociología, Jul.-Dec., 1946.

(334) J.W. Leasure, op. cit., p.280.

(335) In municipios with less than 20,000 population. See M. Capelo Martínez, op. cit., pp.70-71.


(340) The statistics were extracted from Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.41, p.159.

(341) Ibid.


(343) See, for example, Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 3.2, p.110.

(344) The statistics were extracted from J. Nadal, 1966, op. cit., p.76.

(345) The statistics were extracted from A. Melón Ruiz de Cordejuela, 1962, op. cit., p.346; and A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.3.

(346) The statistics were extracted from Vivienda, op. cit., Table 2, p.65.


I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

A/ RURAL-TO-URBAN OUT-MIGRATION STREAMS. "PUSH" FACTORS OPERATING IN OUT-MIGRATION AREAS

2) AT A REGIONAL / PROVINCIAL LEVEL

(1) The choice of regions has been dictated by three criteria:
   (a) The changing pattern of migration.
   (b) The recognition of Old Castile-León and Extremadura-New Castile as valid demographic regions by Houston (see J.M. Houston, 1965, op. cit., p.349).
   (c) The extension of New Castile-Extremadura to include Andalucía in order to create a sample where N is greater than 10, so that the Spearman rank correlation coefficient may be safely used at regional as well as at national level. Justification for the inclusion of Andalucía within a larger region comes from the changing pattern of massive out-migration described in PART THREE.

(2) G. Kade and J.J. Linz, op. cit., p.159.

(3) A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 12, p.177.


(6) G. Kade and J.J. Linz, op. cit., p.159.

(7) The statistics were extracted from Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 17.5, p.1164, but only for the twenty provinces with more than one hundred small municipios listed in J. Ruiz Almansa, 1950, op. cit., p.11. Values above 0.377 are significant at the 95% level of confidence when N = 20.

(8) The critical values of Rs were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of significance</th>
<th>.05</th>
<th>.01</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National level (N = 50)</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andalucía-New Castile-Extremadura (N = 15)</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Castile-León (N = 11)</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


(10) J. Cazorla Pérez, 1965, op. cit., pp.56-57. The correlation between the percentage of the active population in agriculture 1957 and the percentage of the active population which was working-class in 1957 was \( r = 0.84 \).

(11) The statistics were extracted from A. García Barbancho, 1964, op. cit., p.110; and A. García Barbancho, 1970, op. cit., Table A.1, pp.39-64.

(12) The statistics were extracted from Perspectivas de Desarrollo Económico de la Provincia de Ciudad Real (en los Próximos Cinco Años), op. cit., p.10. Values above 0.456 are significant at the 95% level of confidence where N = 14 as in this case.

Ref. pp.178-183
I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

B/ RURAL-TO-URBAN IN-MIGRATION STREAMS. "PULL" FACTORS OPERATING IN IN-MIGRATION AREAS

1) AT A NATIONAL LEVEL


(3) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., p.12.


(6) For the total urban population the calculations assume that the national population remained static between 1900 and 1960 but that the proportion of the total which was urban rose (as it did in reality) from 32.17% to 56.56%.

Then:

Theoretical absolute urban pop. 1960 - Actual urban pop. 1900 = Actual urban pop. 1960 - Actual urban pop. 1900

\[ \frac{10,516,995 - 5,982,176}{17,211,602 - 5,982,176} = \frac{4,534,819}{11,229,426} \times 100 = 40.39\% \]

For municipios of 100,000 population and over the calculations assume that the national population remained static between 1900 and 1960 while the proportion of the total living in municipios of 100,000 population and over rose from 9.01% to 27.88%.

Then:

\[ \frac{5,184,420 - 1,676,348}{6,806,698 - 1,676,348} = \frac{3,507,772}{5,130,350} \times 100 = 68.53\% \]

The original statistics were extracted from J. Diez Nicolás, Tamaño, Densidad y Crecimiento de la Población en España, 1900-1960, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Madrid, 1971 (b), Table 1, p.19.


(8) Spain and Portugal, op. cit., p.12.

(9) Ibid., p.121.

(10) See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., pp.1194-1195. The statistics were extracted from ibid., Table 18.5, p.1273.

Ref. pp.189-190
Ref. pp.191-195

(11) Ibid.

(12) Díez Nicolás's definition is based on municipios with 10,000 population or over but only considers urban the population which lives in the chief centre together with those living in entidades less than 5 kms. from the centre (10 kms. if the chief centre has a population of more than 50,000). See J. Díez Nicolás, 1969, op. cit.; and J. Díez Nicolás, Especialización Funcional y Dominación en la España Urbana, Publicaciones de la Fundación Juan March, Ed. Guadarrama, Madrid, 1972.

(13) A. Cabo Alonso, 1961, op. cit., p.357.


According to this source, 253 urban municipios (excluding provincial capitals) had net migration losses.

(15) Ibid., p.212.

(16) A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.10.


(18) The statistics were extracted from A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.3, and A. Melón Ruiz de Cordejuela, 1972.

(19) The statistics were extracted from Anuario Estadístico de España 1965, op. cit., Table 1.1.2.1., pp.483-484.

(20) The statistics were extracted from A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.3; and A. Melón Ruiz de Cordejuela, 1962, op. cit., p.343.

(21) The statistics were extracted from Plan C.C.B., op. cit., Vol.1, p.212.

(22) Ibid., pp.212-221.


(24) The statistics were extracted from ibid., and Plan C.C.B., op. cit., Vol.1, pp.212-221.

(25) Factores Humanos y Sociales..., 1964, op. cit., Table 4.5, p.184.

(26) Anuario Estadístico de España 1965, op. cit., Table 3.3.1., p.515; and Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.3.7., p.464.

These tables list municipios which received more than 500 in-migrants in 1964 and 1969 respectively. It was felt necessary for comparison purposes with the 1956-1960 period to restrict our attention to municipios which received over 1,000 migrants. There were no municipios receiving between 500 and 1,000 in-migrants in 1964, but Bilbao received 521 and Cornellá 574 in 1969.

(27) See pp.128-130.

(28) The statistics were extracted from Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 13.1, p.1271.


(30) This was entirely due to the lack of correlation between urbanization (which increased) and industrialization (which decreased) during the unique economic, social and political conditions of the 1931-1940 period. The statistics were extracted from J. Díez Nicolás, 1971 (b), p.30; Anexo al II Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, op. cit., pp.12-14; Consejo Economía Nacional, quoted by C. Trías Bertrán, 1966, op. cit., p.97; and Productividad, op. cit., p.70.

(31) The statistics were extracted from ibid., A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table 2.13, p.84; and "Los movimientos migratorios", op. cit., p.113.

(32) Ibid.


(35) Urbanization, op. cit., Table 1, p.9, and Table 5, Annex 1, p.81.


The author of this thesis found a higher degree of correlation between the "index of urbanization" and the "index of tertiary labour force" in Colombia 1964 (Rs = 0.839) than between the former and the "index of secondary labour force" (Rs = 0.735), although both were significant at the 99% level of confidence at the scale of seventeen departments. The statistics were extracted from Camacho de Pinto, op. cit., p.40, cited in C. Stadel, op. cit., Table 32, p.246.

(39) Censo de la Población y de las Viviendas de España 1960, op. cit., Vols. III and VI, and A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.150.

(40) Ibid., Table 5, p.77; and Urbanization, op. cit., Table 5, Annex 1, p.81.

(41) B.F. Hoselitz, 1955, op. cit.


(43) E. Estallla and E. Gubert, op. cit., pp.22-23.


The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, p.38; and Productividad, op. cit., p.69.

(46) Ibid.

(47) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 22, p.252; and A. Garcia Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.3.
(48) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 22, p.252; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., pp.41-42.

(49) H.G. Kariel, op. cit., p.214.


(51) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, p.38; and Productividad, op. cit., p.69.

(52) Ibíd.

(53) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, pp.36-39; and A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.3.

(54) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, pp.36-39.

(55) The statistics were extracted from Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 13.7, p.1275.

(56) Ibíd.

(57) The statistics refer to the number of women employed in manufacturing centres of over fifty employees in twenty provinces accounting for 92.31% of the female industrial labour force. The statistics were extracted from Organización Sindical Española, Servicio Sindical de Estadística, El Trabajo Femenino en Centros de más de Cincuenta Productores, Madrid, 1959, 46pp.; and A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.3.


(61) Notwithstanding, Jukes has tried to correlate Rostow’s four phases of economic development with the per capita production/consumption of electricity. According to Martínez, Spain entered the third ‘mature’ stage in 1964, so that this would account for the rapid expansion in electricity consumption. See J.A. Jukes, op. cit.; F. Pascual Martínez, op. cit., pp.181-183 and Fig.6; W.W. Rostow, 1960, op. cit.; R. Philip Jones, 1969, op. cit., pp.139-140; and J. Casoria Pérez, Problemas de Estratificación Social en España, Edicasa, Madrid, 1973, p.131.


(63) The statistics were extracted from Consejo de Economía Nacional, quoted in R. Philip Jones, 1968, op. cit., Table XXIII, p.82. The relationship between the G.N.P. per capita, 1962 and electricity consumption per capita, 1966 was r = +0.689, which was significant at the 99% level of confidence.

(64) The statistics were extracted from Anuario del Mercado Español 1973, op. cit., pp.465-468; and ———, “Los movimientos migratorios”, op. cit., p.113.

(66) A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.226.


(69) M. Siguán, 1959, op. cit., p.46. In this study, 60 out of 98 male migrants (or 61.22% of the total) had obtained work in Madrid as peones de la construcción. Only 10% of the construction workers had permanent jobs.

(70) The statistics were extracted from Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., Table 4.1.1.XI, p.195, and A. García Barbancho, 1967, Table A.3.

(71) The statistics are extracted from Encuesta sobre Población Activa en España, 1968, op. cit.

(72) The statistics were extracted from Renta Nacional de España y su Distribución Provincial 1971, op. cit., p.66.


(74) Brinley Thomas, 1972, op. cit., p.37.

(75) The statistics were extracted from Anuario del Mercado Español 1973, op. cit., pp.434 and 546, and A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, p.38.


(77) J. José Caballero, "Clase Obrera y Relaciones de Trabajo", in M. Fraça Tríbar, et.al., (ed.), op. cit., Table 2, p.608.

(78) Ibid.

(79) J. Diez Nicolás, 1972, op. cit., p.171. He concedes that urbanization was also very rapid during the 1931-1940 period, mainly due to 1940 Census errors and dislocation caused to the economy by the Civil War. One aspect of industrialization in Spain was the 144.5% increase in electricity production 1915-1917. See P.P. Sintes Olives and P.Vidal Burdils, La Industria Electrónica en España, Montaner y Simon, Barcelona, 1933, p.60.

(80) A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.66.


(82) Desarrollo Regional, op. cit., p.73.

(83) The statistics were extracted from A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.5; and A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 23, p.253.

(84) These findings support Richardson's view that the major shift out of agriculture into industry took place in the 1950s, with the 1960s characterized by a movement into services. See H.W. Richardson, 1975, op. cit., p.3.

(85) The statistics were extracted from Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 18.7, p.1275.

(86) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., pp.86-90.
No statistics relevant to the sector are given, for example, in "Población Activa, Año 1968," op. cit., and only partial ones in "Anuario Estadístico de España, 1970," op. cit., Table 1.5, p.51.

Turismo, op. cit., Table 7.27, p.96.


Allowing for an active net migrant influx of 38% (the average for the 1961-1970 period) of the total net migrant inflow, this would give:

118,710 (new jobs created in tourism 1968-1971) x 100 = 25.26%

510,275 (net active migrants 1968-1971)

Tourismo, op. cit., Table 7.27, p.96.


Allowing for an active net migrant influx of $38$ (the average for the 1961-1970 period) of the total net migrant inflow, this would give:

118,710 (new jobs created in tourism 1968-1971) x 100 = 25.26%

510,275 (net active migrants 1968-1971)

Percentage annual changes in net internal migration and tourist visitors to Spain 1962-1970 were ranked for this calculation (which proved to be statistically significant at the 94% level of confidence). The statistics were extracted from Presidencia del Gobierno, Comisión del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Turismo e Informaciónes y Actividades Culturales. III Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, 1972-1975, Madrid, 1972, p.14; and Anuario del Mercado Español 1972, op. cit., p.546.


Quoted by ibid., p.33 (see f.10$ PART THREE).


Tourism is being made the starting point for the economic development of new areas designated as "centres of national tourist interest". See A.J. García Rodríguez-Acosta, Financial Times, supplement on Spain, 25th April, 1969.

The calculations were based on statistics extracted from Table XXXIX; and Turismo e Información y Actividades Culturales, op. cit., p.14.

See, for example, the case of Peniscola (Castellón) in P. Pérez Puchal, 1970, op. cit., p.277.

The statistics were extracted from Turismo, op. cit., Table 1.14, p.21.


According to International labour Organization quoted by McNamara, 24.7% of the population in developing countries (excluding mainland China) were underemployed or unemployed in 1970. See R. S. McNamara, op. cit., pp.54 and 60-61. See also P.L. Lawrence, "Radicalization and the Breakdown of Democracy", in D.E. Schmitt, (ed.), Dynamics of the Third World; Political and Social Change, Winthrop, Cambridge, Mass., 1974, p.88.


There is also a close relationship between employment and the degree of formal education. See Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadísticas, Subempleo en las 7 Principales Ciudades del País (según el Censo de 1964), Imprenta Nacional, Bogotá, 1969, pp.7-9, cited by C. Stadel, op. cit., p.254.

(106) J. Isaac, op. cit., p.34.

An I.L.O. survey of migration in Thailand found that over half of the persons interviewed succeeded in finding some form of employment within three days of arrival, only 14% taking more than two weeks. See International Labour Office, Regular Programme of Technical Assistance, Report to the Government of Thailand on Internal Migration, Geneva, 1965, p.51.


See also R.S. McNamara, op. cit., p.60.


See also F. Wilsher and R. Richter, op. cit., pp.152-165.


(113) Ibid., pp.xvii-xix.

(114) Fonencia de Factores Humanos y Sociales, 1967, op. cit., Table III.1.13., p.114, calculates that the "urban low class" socio-economic group represented 16.90% of the total economically active population in 1965, and "street" and "bazaar-type" traders must be mainly contained within this group.

(115) Cited in V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.239.

(116) Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de Madrid, op. cit., Table 2.27, p.60, nationally the figure was 10.84%. See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España, 1966, op. cit., Table 1.89.

(117) Cited in J.L. Ugarte del Río, op. cit., p.734.

(118) Quoted from V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.31.

(119) Ibid., p.33.

(120) Ibid., pp.43 end 226.

Mesoneros Romanos op. cit., p.176, refers to the Calle de la Paloma (in the La Latina district) having 31 blocks of flats containing nearly 1,000 people (circa. 1861). They consisted of typical gente baja - artesans, day-labourers, pimps, hawkers, vagabonds and malefactors.

(121) The occupation of the heads of household in the Arganzuela sample survey were as follows:

Porter, central heating engineer, shopkeeper, representative, taxi-
owners, retired widow, musician, journalist, bus-driver, business-man, office worker, antique dealer. There was also a ground-floor tavern and a first-floor ladies' hairdressers.

In the Carabanchel survey the occupations were as follows:
- Porter / part-time tailoress
- Barber / part-time dressmaker
- Shopkeeper, tavern-owner
- Bookshop salesman / representative
- Dental mechanic
- Teacher
- Two office workers
- Two retired widows
- Two builders
- A lawyer
- A professional soldier

(122) Rastro means flea-market.


(124) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., pp.405 and 409.

There are 410 bars and taverns in the barrio chino in an area of about 50 hectares.

(125) Pipas are toasted, salted sunflower seeds.


(127) The calculations although made in 1965 remain relatively constant. Some kiosks had disappeared by 1976.

Prostitution is most common in the bars and clip-joints of the Centro. See Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de Madrid, op. cit., p.325.


(129) The calculations were based upon a población de hecho of 3,146,071 and an assumed economically active population of 40.8%. See Ayuntamiento de Madrid, Vicesecretaría General, Sección de Estadística, Resumen Estadístico, Año 1971, Madrid, 1973, Table 14, p.21; and V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.237.

(130) The known crime-rate (delitos apreciados) in Barcelona province in 1968 represented 0.149% of the 1960 population, compared with 0.166% in Madrid province. See Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, op. cit., Table 1.2.2.3., p.726.

(131) M. Siguán, 1959, op. cit., p.311.

(132) F. Candel, 1965, op. cit., pp.119-120.

(133) Free accommodation is often offered peones de la construcción in Barcelona. See La Vanguardia, 26th Aug., 1972.


(135) M. Siguán, 1959, op. cit., p.46.


(137) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.224.


(140) Ibid., and H.J. Gans, 1962 (a), op. cit.

(142) Literally "means of livelihood which do not give them a living." Quoted from J. Picazo, El Folklore Español, Hirschfeld Brothers, London, 1953, p.102.


(144) See, for example, the opinion of Spanish housewives concerning delinquent groups in Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Tables 10.2-10.8, pp.665-667.


Churros are strips of dough fried in oil rather in the manner of doughnuts. Horchata is a cold, milky, nutty-flavoured drink made from chufas (tiger-nuts) or almonds.

(146) Feria means feast. A verbena is an open-air fair and festival celebrated on the eve of a Saint's day. Each barrio bajo had its traditional verbena.

(147) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., Table 4, p.60.


(152) This is achieved for each period by calculating the active population as a percentage of the total population of the country, and then allotting this percentage to the total urban population of the country to calculate the theoretical urban active population.

(153) The anticipated annual, accumulative growth-rate for the number of international tourists visiting Spain during the 1964-1967 period was 14.8%. The actual annual, accumulative growth-rate during the 1963-1966 period was 16.4%. See Presidencia del Gobierno, Comisión del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Oficina de Relaciones Públicas, Summary of the Spanish Economic and Social Development Plan 1964-1967, Madrid, 1964, p.92; and Turismo, op. cit., p.14, and Table 1.4, p.15.

Notwithstanding, the evidence is conflicting. Only 68.3% of the extra hotel capacity to be provided for under the I Plan had been completed by the end of 1966. The number of new restaurants, nightclubs, travel agencies, apartments, chalets and holiday bungalows completed greatly exceeded the number forecast to be built under the I Plan (although it still had a year to run). See Turismo, op. cit., Table 1.12, p.19, pp.22-22, and Table 1.19, p.24.

(154) Statistics for the April 1965 - March 1966 period show that the number of hotel employees in the "low season" (Jan.) represented only 58.48% of those employed in the "high season" (Jul.). See Turismo, op. cit., Table 1.23, p.27.

(155) While in Calpe (Alicante) in 1972, the author came across a vendor of cigarettes, sweets and pipas who had come down from Madrid for the season. In Blanes (Barcelona) and Calpe there were many villagers from Lagartera (Toledo) selling embroidered tablecloths (which they make themselves during the winter months) - which are a speciality of the village - to tourists.

(156) C. Clark, 1951, op. cit.

(157) J.J. Caballero, "Clase Obrera y Relaciones de Trabajo", in M. Praga
Iribarne, et al. (ed.), op. cit., p. 610, suggest that the "tertiarization" of the Spanish economy will gather momentum from 1971. See also A. de Miguel, Estructura de la Población Activa Española, unpublished work extracts of which are included in A. de Miguel, "Estructura y dinámica de la población activa española", Revista Española de la Opinión Pública, No. 19, Jan.-Mar., 1970.


(159) In all ten instances the percentage of the active populations engaged in services in the provincial capital (or metropolitan area) in 1960 was greater than that in the provinces as a whole in 1971 (as estimated in 1968). See A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, pp. 86-90; and Desarrollo Regional, op. cit., Table 9, p. 160.

(160) The statistics were extracted from "¿Los movimientos migratorios?", op. cit., p. 113; and Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.65, p. 173.

(161) B. Kayser, op. cit., pp. 41 and 43-44.

(162) The base statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, pp. 86-90. Municipios whose population fell below 20,000 between 1965 and 1970 were excluded, as were municipios which gained over 1,000 population during this period, and ones with less than 50% of their active populations engaged in agriculture in 1960. Finally Cangas de Narcea (Oviedo) was omitted because it was a mining town.

(163) Absorción del Chattolismo, op. cit., p. 39.

(164) See, for example, G. Brenan, op. cit., p. 120.


(167) Out of a national total of approximately 7,600,000 families. See M. Perceval, op. cit., p. 66.


(169) See J.J. Caballero, op. cit., f. 6, p. 617, and p. 666; and B. Kayser, op. cit., p. 43.

(170) In 1970, for example, the number of workers in the province of Madrid affected by redundancies, short-time working, modification of working conditions, transfer to other work centres or reductions of the establishment, only totalled 1.49% of the provincial labour force. In 1971 it was 0.89%. See La Economía de Madrid en 1971, op. cit., Table 10, p. 495. See also M. Perceval, op. cit., p. 118.

(171) N.V. Sovani, op. cit., p. 324.


(173) The statistics were extracted from Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., pp. 103-109.

(174) The statistics were extracted from Estudio sobre la Población Española, op. cit., pp. 355-414.

(175) The statistics were extracted from J. Díez Nicolás, 1972, op. cit., pp. 187-189.


(177) The statistics were extracted from Presidencia del Gobierno, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Estadística Industrial de España 1965, Madrid, 1965.

(178) The statistics were extracted from Renta Nacional de España y su Distribución Provincial en 1962, op. cit.

(179) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., Table 20-5, p.619.

(180) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 13, p.321.

(181) The statistics were extracted from Renta Nacional de España y su Distribución Provincial en 1962, op. cit.

(182) The statistics were extracted from A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 13, p.321.

(183) Ibid.


(188) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., pp.54 and 65; and S. Giner, Continuity and Change: The Social Stratification of Spain, Graduate School of Contemporary European Studies, University of Reading, 1968, pp.5-19. See, for example, Ponencias de Factores Humanos y Sociales, 1967, op. cit., Table III.1.13., p.114. For a study of rural social classes see V. Pérez Díaz, Pueblos y Clases Sociales en el Campo Español, Madrid, 1974.


Ref. pp.213-222


(196) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.60.

(197) Confirmation of our rankings comes from *Informe Sociológico sobre la Situación Social de España, 1966*, op. cit., Table 1.83, p.63.


(199) T. Fox and S.M. Miller, op. cit., p.228.


(201) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.65.


(204) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.60.


(206) The fifteen classes were apportioned to the five migrant groups as follows (the numbers referring to the classes listed in Tables XLI-XIII, pp.220-221):

- Empresarios, altos cargos y profesionales liberales - 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 7;
- Empleados, dependientes y similares - 6, 8 and 9;
- Personal de servicios - 11;
- Jornaleros - 10, 12, 14 and 15;

(207) The method adopted was:

(a) To reduce the inactive group of 60.5% by subtracting from it all those under fifteen years of age (29.3%) and over 65 (3.9%) since these were not normally heads of household. Then subtract 46.8% (representing the female proportion) from the remaining 27.4%.

This leaves a male, head of household inactive group of 14.6%.

(b) The remaining migrant population (39.5% in the actual survey) thus represented the active proportion (100 - 14.6) = 85.4%.

Each active group could then be adjusted using the formula:

\[ x \cdot \frac{85.4}{39.5} \]

(208) This was done by calculating the migrant proportion from Table XLIII using the formula:

\[ \frac{2}{C} \cdot 100 \]

giving the following results:

- Empresarios...: 44.29;
- Empleados...: 81.51;
- Personal de servicios: 115.67;
- Jornaleros: 122.22;
- Inactivos: 82.05.

(209) See an opposite view in Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p.152.

Newly-arrived migrants from the countryside who undertook a course of instruction (curso de Formación Intensiva Profesional) to help them obtain a job in industry found great difficulty in rising above the rank of peón. Three months after finishing the course 47% were unemployed and only 2.2% had a skilled job. See DATA, Encuesta de Trabajadores FIP, Dirección General de Empleo, Madrid, 1965.


(212) The statistics were extracted from Presidencia del Gobierno, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Encuesta de Equipamiento y Nivel Cultural de la Familia, Vol.2, Madrid, 1968, Tables provinciales, Tables 2.1-
2.4, pp.16-507.

Ref. pp.225-228

(215) Ibid.

(216) The statistics were extracted from Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., Table 4.99, p.360.

(217) Ibid., Table 18.6, p.1274.

(218) Ibid., Table 3, p.821; and Encuesta de Equipamiento..., Vol.1, op. cit., pp.14 and 17.

(219) Ibid., pp.14 and 17.

(220) Ibid., Table 3, p.821.

(221) Ibid., Table 4, p.823.


(223) Ibid.

According to Alcaide, 46.1% of Spanish households in 1964 had an annual income of less than 6,000 pesetas. See J. Alcaide Inchausti, "La renta nacional de España y su distribución", Revista Sindical de Estadística, No.86, Apr.-Jun., 1967.


(226) Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., p.537; and Table 5.11, p.569.


(236) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.476, and Table 7.2, p.495.


(238) S. del Campo Urbano, 1972, op. cit., Table 11, p.40.


(244) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., Table 4, p.60, and p.61.


(246) S. del Campo Urbano, 1972, op. cit., Table 11, p.40.

The Basques are amongst the most fervent of practicing Catholics.


(248) A. García Barbancho, "Las estadísticas de natalidad", Documentación Administrativa, Madrid, 1960 (b), No.106.
Ref. pp. 228-232


(244) Resumen Estadístico Año 1969, op. cit., Table 54, p. 53; J. Díez Nicolás, 1967 (b), op. cit., pp. 48-49.


(247) See p. 176.


(249) Ibid., p. 139.

(250) Ibid., Table 52, p. 146.

(251) Ponencia de Desarrollo Regional, op. cit., Table 20, p. 169.


(255) Desarrollo Regional, op. cit., p. 70.

(256) "Spain's development areas, polar strategy", Economist, Vol. 211, No. 6299, 16th May, 1974, p. 743.


(259) Increasingly, however, Spanish business-men are retiring to places like Las Palmas and Santa Cruz de Tenerife — especially from Madrid.

(260) J. Angelet, op. cit., has postulated that inter-provincial migrants in Spain choose their destinations according to differences in income and leisure opportunities and knowledge about them.

(261) J. Houston, 1964, op. cit., p. 27.

(262) Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, op. cit., Table 2.2.1, p. 20.


(264) G. Bremen, op. cit., p. 91.


(267) Informe Sociológico...España 1970, op. cit., Table 4.5, p. 308.

(268) Ibid., Table 4.14, p. 313.

(269) There is a considerable amount of "rimland" development in Spain, to coin a phrase from Friedmann. See J. Friedmann, Regional Development Policy: A Case Study of Venezuela, M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1966. Sixteen of the first 25 ranked provinces in Fundación FOESSA's Índice de H.A.U were coastal ones.

(270) H. Mir de la Cruz, op. cit., p. 22.

(271) A. Higuera Arana, 1956, op. cit., pp. 87-89. See also J. Dantín Cereceda, "El medio físico aragonés y el reparto de su población,"
Ref. pp.232-234


(276) The average cost of irrigation schemes completed during the period of the 1st Plan was 110,000 pesetas per hectare, of which 80% was spent on irrigation and 20% on housing and services. See Sustación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., p.161; and J. Naylon, 1967 (b), op. cit., p.187.


(281) Ibid., 1966, op. cit., p.58; Ibid., 1967 (b), op. cit., p.188; and J. Anillo, op. cit., p.16.


(283) Ibid., 1966, op. cit., p.58.

(284) Ibid., p.48.

(285) Hidración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 2.5.2, p.93.


Notwithstanding, the percentage share of the Plan Badajoz in the gross provincial product rose from 4.14% in 1955 to 16.6% in 1970. See Desarrollo Regional, op. cit., p.164.


(292) See p.126.


For a criticism of the failure of the Plan Tierra de Campos to retain population see Instituto de Estudios de Administración Local, la Comarca en la Re-estructuración del Territorio XI Seminario de Investigación, Documento 2, Comunicaciones, Madrid, Oct., 1970, (multi-copied), p.3.

(294) The price of labour in the irrigated areas of the campo de Cartagena is almost seven times that in non-irrigated areas. See Presidencia del Gobierno, Comisión del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Sureste Español. III Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Madrid, 1972, p.229.

(295) Mr. Drain, op. cit., p.109.

This is confirmed by López Ontiveros for the Córdoban campana. See A. López Ontiveros, Emigración, Propiedad y Paisaje Agrario en la Campana de Córdoba, Edit. Ariel, Esplugas de Llobregat, Barcelona, 1964, p.64.

(296) A.M. Higuéras Amal, 1967, op. cit., p.21; and J. Naylon, 1975 (a),
Ref. pp. 234-236


(298) Ibid., 1970, op. cit., Table A.1, p.41.


(305) A.M. García Terrel, 1958, op. cit., p.70.


(307) J. Redondo, op. cit., p.119.


(311) Mr. Drain, op. cit., p.116.


(313) Cotton-picking is still a labour-intensive activity which draws in large numbers of seasonal harvest workers to the campiña of Urdoba. See A. López Ontiveros, op. cit., p.143.


(317) Mr. Drain, op. cit., p.105.
labour transhumance is used here in the sense of seasonal movements from the plateau secano regions of the interior to coastal tourist centres.

In 1965, 72.2% of the foreign tourists entering Spain arrived between May and September. See Turismo, op. cit., Table I.21, p.25.

Redondo Gómez has argued that there was always an important irrational element in seasonal migrations, namely a desire by the young for adventure. See J. Redondo Gómez, op. cit., pp.120-121 and 127.

Localized migration streams from some Andalucian municipios are directed to tourist resorts within Spain. Such streams are mainly confined to young migrants of either sex seeking adventure, prestige and profit from the three or four months experience. See M. Bueno, La Emigración Campesina en España, unpublished personal communication, Madrid, 10th Oct., 1975, p.2; and M. Siguán Soler, 1972, op. cit., pp.127-129.

Many terms have been invented for temporary migration. See, for example, "turbulence" (Pierre George), "oscillation" (Beaujeu-Gamier) and "shuttle-pattern" migration. See L.A. Kosinski and R.M. Prothero, 1970, op. cit., p.251; and L.W. Fye, "The Political Implications of Urbanization and the Development Process", in G. Breese, (ed.), 1969, op. cit., p.402.

Ref. pp.238-241


Barcelona in late 1938 had at least 1 million refugees. See H. Thomas, 1965, op. cit., p.712.

(346) Ibid.


One notable exception to Rubio's statement was the seasonal migrant.

(351) F. Candel, 1965, op. cit., p.120.

(352) Ibid., p.121.


(354) A. de Miguel y J. Salcedo, op. cit., p.41.


(357) Estructuras y Servicios Urbanos, op. cit., p.344.


(362) The ley de viviendas bonificables extending the benefits of official "protection" to the private sector of the construction industry was approved in 1944.
The Ley de Viviendas de Renta Limitada became operative in 1954 and led to a great increase in the number of cheaper, officially "promoted" flats built.


Anexo al II Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, op. cit., Table A.10; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., p.4.

A famous saying: "From Madrid to heaven and from there a little hole in order to be able to see it."

See D. Novembre, "Ambitious remedies are needed in a city choked by traffic," The Times, 2nd May, 1974; and ibid., "Madrid ailing metropolis keeps its charm despite the fumes and the crowds," The Times, op. cit.

The statistics refer to the 1941-1945 period. See G. Kade and J.J. Linz, op. cit., Table 18, p.56.

According to Sevilla de Guzmán, three distinct periods of differing agricultural policies characterized the Spanish countryside under the Franco regime, namely 1939-1951, 1951-1964 and post 1964. The second period was associated with the transformation (usually unplanned) as small land-owners and landless labourers migrated to the towns. See E. Sevilla Guzmán, "The peasantry and the Francoist regime," paper read at the Spain under Franco conference, University of Reading, Graduate School of Contemporary European Studies, 16th-17th Dec., 1974.


Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., Table 23, p.120.

A tax on luxury goods was introduced in 1971 to finance a more ad-
equate social security scheme for agricultural workers. See Barclays Bank Ltd., Economic Intelligence Department, Spain. 10th Sept., 1971; and Presidencia del Gobierno, Comisaría del Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Seguridad Social, Sanidad y Asistencia Social, III Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, Madrid, 1972, pp.75-77.

(385) V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.229.


(387) For example, that paid to construction workers in the province of Sevilla after the convenio colectivo of July 1970. See A.B.C., 25th July, 1970.


In the countryside there was, for example, the iniquitous "taxation" of the 1940s when fixed quotas of wheat had to be supplied (even in the lean years) at an average of 37.5% of the "black-market" price. See R. Rubio, 1966, op. cit., p.52.


(391) E. Lluch and A. Giralt, 1964, op. cit., p.25.

(392) J. Salcedo and A. de Miguel, op. cit., p.41.


Estimates of the population of the city of Madrid in the year 2,000 A.D. have varied from 5 million to 12 million! See V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., pp.294-296.


Informes Socio-comerciales... España 1970, op. cit., p.277.

In the short-term only the growth-pole centre itself will be transformed. Sáenz de Buruaga has criticized them for being "islands of development" which have not affected provincial or regional development. See A. Pina, "Los polos y la politica de desarrollo regional", Información Comercial Española, No.385, Sept., 1965, p.52; and G. Sáenz de Buruaga, "Polos de desarrollo regional ante el III Plan", Información Comercial Española, No.465, May, 1972, p.69.

A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 13, p.46. See also H.W. Richardson, Elements of Regional Economics, Penguin, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, 1973, p.103.


A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 13, p.46. See also H.W. Richardson, 1975, op. cit., Table 6.5, p.128.

B. Kayser, op. cit., pp.15-16.


Between 1965 and 1967 the per capita consumption of cement in the seven "growth poles" increased by 93% compared with a 43% increase in the per capita consumption of electricity. See Informe Socio-comercial... España 1970, op. cit., Table 4.62, p.340.


The polígonos de congestación designated by the Dirección General de Urbanismo for Madrid in 1953 were: Aranda del Duero, Guadalajara, Toledo, Alcázar de San Juan and Manzanares. Those for Barcelona were:
Lérida, Tarragona, Martorell and Castellón.

These were Córdoba, Granada, Oviedo, Logroño and Villafranca de Arosa.


Based upon the French concept of métropoles d'équilibre.


Fernández Rodríguez believes that one of the aims of the III Plan was to reduce interregional migration. See F. Fernández Rodríguez, "La política regional de los planes españoles de desarrollo", Boletín de Estudios Económicos, Vol.27, 1972, pp.431-447.


J.E. Chambers and G.E. Mingay, op. cit., p.146.


Quoted by E.G. Ravenstein, 1885, op. cit., p.167.

Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., p.645.

See f.53 Normative Factors at a National Level (Ref., pp.332-312).

See Anuario Estadístico de España, 1970, op. cit., p.51, for the decline in illiteracy.

Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., p.356.

J. Aceves, Crítico Social en un Pueblo de España, Conocimiento de España Barral Edit., Madrid, 1973 (b), pp.152-154 (first published as Social Change in Spanish Village, Schenkman, Cambridge, Mass., 1971), is of the opinion that official courses of technical instruction organized as part of the land consolidation programme prepared peasants for migration, by teaching them not only about agricultural machinery but also T.V. repairing and even building construction methods, for which there was little or no demand in the village.

Cited in Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table I.2.1., p.30.

Ibid. 


F. Murillo, et. al., op. cit., p.200 ff.

Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., Table 10.9, p.663.

The bachillerato general (secondary education) course has three different levels: elemental, superior and pre-universitario. For details of these courses see Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1972, op. cit., Vol. 20, Spain; p. 1115; and A.T. Wright, Spain. An Introduction to the Spanish Nation, University of London Press, London, 1974, pp. 68-70.

There is some evidence from Andalucía that potential migrants with less than primary education feel the pressure of economic "push-pull" factors more than those with primary education and are therefore more likely to migrate. See F. Murillo, et al., 1970, op. cit., p. 207.
See, for example, the contrasts between "moderns" and "traditionals" in D. Lerner, *The Passing of Traditional Society*, The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, 1958.

This is because of the lack of secondary education facilities in most rural municipios.


In 1964, there were 414 radio stations in Spain of which Radio Nacional de España had only 27, the rest belonging to regional, local and sectorial interests. See *Anuario Estadístico de España* 1965, *op. cit.*, Table 3.1, p.353.

In 1968, 67% of homes in municipios with less than 2,000 population possessed a radio. See *Encuesta de Equipamiento y Nivel Cultural de la Familia*, *op. cit.*, Vol.1, Table 9.1, p.143.

As, for example, in hamlet I in the Siguán study of rural Castile. See M. Siguán Soler, 1967 (b), *op. cit.*, p.96.

In 1964, there were 414 radio stations in Spain of which Radio Nacional de España had only 27, the rest belonging to regional, local and sectorial interests. See *Anuario Estadístico de España* 1965, *op. cit.*, Table 3.1, p.553.

In 1968, 67% of homes in municipios with less than 2,000 population possessed a radio. See *Encuesta de Equipamiento y Nivel Cultural de la Familia*, *op. cit.*, Vol.1, Table 9.1, p.143.


During the 1321-1831 period, London, in contrast, grew most rapidly during the 1841-1851 period. See A.F. Weber, *op. cit.*, Table 113.


(506) Statistics before the first official Census of 1857 must be treated with some respect.

(507) J.M. Martínez-Mari Odena, op. cit., p.263; and A. Melón, 1951, op. cit. The population of Barcelona grew by 87.02% between 1837 and 1897 (thanks mainly to annexation). See F. Ivern, op. cit., p.35.


(515) A. García Barbancho, 1967, op. cit., Table A.1.


(517) Anuario Estadístico de España, 1970, op. cit., Table A.2.5., p.192, and Table A.3.1., p.194. Only 20.66% of coach lines operating in 1964 were inter-provincial ones.


(520) Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., Table 17.5., p.1164.


(522) Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., Table 17.5., p.1164.


(524) S. de Madariaga, op. cit., p.99.


(532) Enquesta sobre Bienes de Consumo Duradero..., op. cit., cited by M. Navarro López, op. cit., Table 7, p. 331.

(533) Enquista de Equipamiento y Nivel Cultural de la Familia, op. cit., Vol. 1, Table 2.3, p. 124.

(534) J. García Fernández, 1956, op. cit., p. 90.


(540) Enquesta sobre Bienes de Consumo Duradero..., op. cit., cited by M. Navarro López, op. cit., Table 7, p. 331.

(541) J. García Fernández, 1956, op. cit., p. 90.


(544) A.M. Rose, 1969, op. cit., p. 122. Also italics.

(545) W.H. Nicholls, op. cit., p. 13.


(547) For example, the myth of the "static society".


K.N. Medhurst, op. cit., p.81.


The analogy with a magnetic field is an useful conceptual device. Like a magnetic field the "migration field" is able to attract at a distance. There is a directional as well as a gravitational "pull" in the force involved.


W.R. Bühning, 1972, op. cit., p.69.


The population statistics refer to the city of Madrid and the remaining 49 provinces. The "distance" was taken as that between the centre of Madrid and each provincial capital.
(582) W.J. Reilly, 1929, op. cit.; and ibid., The Law of Retail Gravitation, New York, 1931.


(584) J.Q. Stewart, 1947, op. cit.

(585) G.K. Zipf, 1949, op. cit.

(586) This pattern may be due to some collective discrepancy in migration statistics. Not all of the provinces are at the same stage of economic development, but all lie in "statistically suspect Spain" (see p.91). There is also a strong possibility that different regional communities perceive distance in different ways. See P.R. Gould, "On mental maps", Michigan Inter-University Society of Mathematical Geographers, No.9, 1966, pp.1-54.

(587) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.2.3.1, p.45, and Anuario Estadístico de España 1965, op. cit., Table 1.1.1.2., pp. 481-482.

(588) The rank-size rule has largely been used in urban geography although this need not be so.


(590) When compared with recorded movements during the 1962-1965 period, the exponent - ^ under-estimated in-migration from Toledo by 37.70%, and from Santa Cruz de Tenerife by 6.39%.

(591) See f.587.

(592) S.A. Stouffer, 1940, op. cit., p.846.

(593) After Badajoz and Córdoba provinces.

(594) A. Muñoz Fernández, op. cit., p.469.

Alzina Cuales found that there were 52% more migrants from the province of Granada living in Barcelona in 1945 than in 1940. See J. Alzina Cuales, op. cit., pp.15-48.


(596) A. Melón, 1945, op. cit., p.115.

(597) C.A. de Reparaz, 1962, op. cit., Table 1, p.72, and Table 2, p.74.

(598) See also A. Muñoz Fernández, op. cit., pp.466 and 490-490.

(599) Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Table 1.2.3.1, p.43 and 45. See also F. Murillo, 1967, op. cit., p.209.

(600) According to this method, opportunities are defined as the actual number of persons born in other provinces who were residing in a given province in 1960. Intervening opportunities are defined as the cumulative number of native-born persons settling in all provinces between the province-of-origin and the province-of-destination. Distance is measured in 100 kilometre intervals between the provincial capital of Jaén and every other province in Spain. There a distance-band boundary dissects a province, the location of the provincial capital was used to allocate all opportunities or intervening opportunities to the distance interval in which it was located.

(601) The statistics were extracted from Table XLV.

(602) The statistics were extracted from Table XLVI.

(603) Recent out-migration from j to i was used, by Ihgerstrand as a measure of the contact between the two places. See ibid.

(604) Ibid., p.152.

(605) The ten provinces in descending order of importance were: Toledo, Badajoz, Ciudad Real, Caceres, Guadalajara, Cuenca, Jaén, Segovia, Córdoba and Ávila. See Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit.,
(606) It was felt that potential migrants would seek out contacts with "life-time migrants" to the city. In this instance $P_j$ equalled the population of the city of Madrid in 1960.

(607) Statistics were unavailable for the number of natives of Córdoba residing in Madrid in 1960. Since the basic calculation involved the use of statistics for the city of Madrid, a corrected figure of 109.49% can be produced for the province. This assumes that the city absorbed 85.63% of in-migration from the nine provinces concerned, as it did for total in-migration from all provinces during the 1952-1965 period. The calculations were arrived at as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
100.786 & \text{ (estimated in-migration)} \\
106.252 & \text{ (observed in-migration)}
\end{align*}
\]

But observed in-migration into the city of Madrid was:

\[
\begin{align*}
22.046 \\
106.252
\end{align*}
\]

The corrected figure is thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
100.786 & \times 100 = 94.86\% \\
22.046 & \times 100 = 86.63\%
\end{align*}
\]

(608) In the province of Cuenca with 92.11%.

(609) Madrid 1964..., op. cit., p.532; J.J. Forns, 1964, op. cit., p.131; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Tables 1.2.3.1. and 1.2.3.2., pp.45 and 48.

When "vacancy-density" was defined as total inter- and intra-provincial in-migration into the province of Madrid during the 1962-1965 period, or the total increase in the active population of the province 1960-1965; and in-migration into the city of Madrid during the 1956-1957 period (as a measure of contacts and information), estimated in-migration was 135.67 and 132.77% of the observed total for the 1962-1965 period. The statistical relationship between the ranked estimated and observed data was significant at the 95% level of confidence at the scale of ten provinces ($r = 0.467$ and $0.467$ respectively). A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 13, p.321; Fonencia de Factores Humanos y Sociales, op. cit., Table 1.1.25, p.39; Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Tables 1.2.3.1. and 1.2.3.2., pp.45 and 48; and M. Siguán, 1959, op. cit., pp.39-40.

(610) The corrected figure (see f.607) was 162.49%.

(611) The Andalusian and León regions with 104.33 and 100.34% respectively.

(612) Madrid 1964..., op. cit., p.532; and Migración y Estructura Regional, op. cit., Tables 1.2.3.1. and 1.2.3.2., pp.45 and 48.

(613) Cf. the gravity model (formula 2) $R_s = 0.645$, the gravity model (formula 1) $R_s = 0.811$; and the intervening opportunity model $R_s = 0.695$. See pp.266 and 268.

(614) See pp.263-264.

(615) The feedback mechanism is important in another context. It is the direct, personal contacts associated with urban and sometimes rural control sub-systems which help to account for deviations in expected migration patterns. See, for example, variations in seasonal migration to France from seven Andalusian municipios in 1967. M. Siguán Soler, 1972, op. cit., pp.121-123 and 127-128.
I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

B/ RURAL-TO-URBAN IN-MIGRATION STREAMS. "FULL" FACTORS OPERATING IN IN-MIGRATION AREAS

2) AT A REGIONAL / PROVINCIAL LEVEL

(1) Eleven of the fifteen provinces did in fact form one compact group.

(2) It was decided to have five provinces in each group for purposes of comparison and contrast. Catalonia-Baleares was a logical choice, Lérida being included even though it was an out-migrant province. Navarra could clearly be included with the three Basque provinces (T. Dawkins and L. Smith, "Seven Basque provinces on a mountain frontier", Geographical Magazine, Vol.43, No.5, Feb., 1971, p.362; and T.II. Hawkins, "The geographical background of Basque nationalism", Iberian Studies, Vol.1, No.2, Fig.1, p.93, and Fig.3, p.93). Zaragoza was included within this group partly in recognition of its axial function linking up the two regions.

(3) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., pp.59-60.

(4) Eight of the thirteen most significant correlations at national level are listed in Tables XLVI-LI. They are variables No.: 46, 47, 61, 43, 23, 24, 1 and 2.

(5) The thirteen most significant correlations at "macro-regional" level listed in ibid., were variables No.: 6, 59, 65, 49, 5, 50, 2, 13, 4, 55, 47, 3 and 68.

(6) See variables No.: 5, 13, 49, 53, and 54 in ibid.

(7) See variables No.: 3, 5, 57 and 2 in ibid.


(9) See Table XIII, p.225.

(10) These statistics have also been adjusted because they refer only to the active population. See Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 2.27, p.60.


(12) These findings were confirmed in Granada province in eleven municipios with an average of 35-75% of their cultivated area irrigated. There was no statistically significant relationship between irrigation and percentage changes in population 1965 (Rs = .0473). J. Bosque Maurel, Granada la Tierra y sus Hombres, Granada, 1971, cited in F. Villagrá Molina, op. cit., p.719.


(14) See also E. Gómez, op. cit., pp.55-59 and 96-93.

(15) Memoria-Anuario Industrial 1968, op. cit., Table 4, pp.61-62. See also C. de Castro, op. cit., pp.517-518.

(16) Work in tourism, the petty-service sector and the building trade are at a maximum in the summer months.

(17) Examining variables Nos: 10, 17, 22, 24, 29, 35 and 37 in Tables XLVI-LI.

(18) Examining variables Nos: 1, 19, 40, 44, 46, 43, 49, 50, 54, 55, 63, 72, 75, 76 and 79 in ibid.


(21) T. Parsons, "Some Reflections on the Institutional Framework of Economic Development", in The Challenge of Development, Symposium, published by the Eliezer Kaplan School of Economic and Social Sciences, The He-

(22) E. A. Triggle, 1965, op. cit., p.65.
(26) See, for example, the decline of out-migration from El Espinar (Segovia), during 1962-1964 when local work was available in the Guadarrama tunnel and motorway construction project. See A. Redondo González, op. cit., p.692.
(29) Quoted in Ponencia de Factores Humanos y Sociales, op. cit., Table II. 1.o, p.106.
(30) Anexo al II Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social, op. cit., Table 7.15, p.132.
(32) Ibid., Vol.1, Table 1, p.78.
(33) Ibid., Vol.2, Table 9, p.370.

(38) Later to become the Dirección General de Regiones Devastadas of the Ministerio de la Gobernación (Home Office) by the Decree Law of 23rd Sept., 1939. Ibid., p.595.
(39) Many flimsy one-storey dwellings in this war zone had been destroyed. Ibid., pp.597-598.
(40) Ibid., pp.607-603, and Appendix 2, p.655.
(41) Ibid., Table 8, p.632.
(42) Even the population statistics for the capital differ from source to source, a complicating factor being the annexation of peripheral municipios between 1943 and 1954. See Resumen Estadistico AG 1962, op. cit., p.25; and Memoria Anuario Industrial 1968, op. cit., p.39.
(44) A. Cabo Alonso, 1961, op. cit., p.564.


(48) Climatic push factors were also important. Economic distress was widespread during the 1951-1954 period due to the lack of rain. See W.B. Fisher and H. Bowen-Jones, Spain: A Geographical Background, Christophers, London, 1958, p.39.

(49) Land speculation was a factor here.


(52) M. Valenzuela Rubio, op. cit., p.410.


(55) Urbanismo y Aspectos Socio-Económicos Vizcaínos, op. cit., pp.109-110. Industrial companies were also to provide dwellings for over 20% of their employees during the same period. M. de Torda, "la industria de la construcción de viviendas en España", Estudios Geográficos, Vol.23, No.39, Jan.-Mar., 1962, p.595.


(57) M. Valenzuela Rubio, 1974, op. cit., pp.600-610, and Apendix 1, p.53.

(58) Ibid., Tables 4 and 8, pp.620 and 632.

(59) Ibid., Table 8, p.632.

(60) Ibid., Tables 4 and 8, pp.620 and 632.

(61) Ibid., p.610; and ministerio de la Vivienda, Plan de Urbanización Social de Madrid, Madrid, 1958.


(63) Ibid., Apéndice 2, pp.554-555.

(64) V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.71.

(65) M. Valenzuela Rubio, 1974, op. cit., Table 2, p.612.

(66) The Decreto contra Asentamientos Clandestinos (Decree against Clandestine Building) of the 23rd of August, 1957, was doomed to failure because of the insatiable demand of industry for labour. Ibid., f.19, p.610.

(67) Full-page advertisements were taken up in the press.


(70) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., pp.35-36.


Labour costs represent between 35-39% of the total construction costs...

(72) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., pp.37 and 40.


(74) See, for example, Resumen Estadístico Año 1969, op. cit., Table 13, p.28.

(75) Factores Humanos y Sociales..., 1964, Table 14, pp.505-512.

(76) There was no statistically significant correlation at the level of 50 provinces between net internal migration 1951-1965 and either the number of caves in rural areas (Rs = +0.059) or the number of chabolas in rural areas (Rs = -0.024). Ibid.


Too often physical planning (as in the Third World) was "the playing of politicians. See D.J. Dryer, "Attitudes towards Spontaneous Settlements in Third World Cities", in D.J. Dryer, (ed.), 1972, op. cit., pp.163-170.


(80) Quoted in H. Valenzuela Rubio, 1974, op. cit., p.12, p.621.

(81) Resumen Estadístico Año 1969, op. cit., Table 13, p.28; and V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.170.


(83) These were at Villaverde (Arganzuela-Villaverde), Pan Bendito (Carabanchel) and Vallecas.


(85) H. Valenzuela Rubio, 1974, op. cit., Table 6, p.624.

(86) Ibid., Table 8, p.652.

(87) Ibid., Table 6 and 8, pp.624 and 632.

(88) Ibid., Apéndice 2, pp.644-645.

(89) These villages were within the metropolitan area of the capital.

(90) O.E.C.D., Spain, 1974, op. cit., p.30. State spending on housing fell from 1.4% of the G.N.P. in 1962 to 0.6% in 1972.


(94) V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.171.

(95) Mr. Drain, op. cit., p.43, cites the instance of Huerta & Co. - a major construction company with a permanent staff of 40 and a casual labour force fluctuating between 200-800.


(97) Ibid., Table 6, p.57.


(100) See pp.199-200; and variables No.12 (Table XLVII), 73 and 73 (Table LI), pp.276 and 281.

(101) Resumen Estadístico Año 1969, op. cit., Table 13, p.26; and H. Valenzuela Rubio, 1974, op. cit., Table 6, p.624.

(102) Ibid.

(103) H. de Bolós y Capdevila, 1953, op. cit., p.218, and Fig.5, p.219.

(104) Ibid., p.214.

(105) There was no significant correlation with the total number of dwellings built during the period (r = +0.700). Urbanismo y Aspectos Socio-

(107) M. Valenzuela Rubio, 1974, op. cit., Table 6, p. 33; and Anuario del mercado Español 1973, op. cit., pp. 560-561. The housing statistics refer to the city.


(110) Urbanismo y Aspectos Socio-Económicos Vizcaínos, op. cit., p. 135; Anuario del mercado Español 1973, op. cit., pp. 560-561; and Anuario Estadístico de España 1970, op. cit., Table 1.2.1., p. 73.

(111) A. de Miguel and J. Salcedo, op. cit., Table 6, p. 33; and Anuario del mercado Español 1973, op. cit., p. 44.

(112) Free from government controls and fiscal benefits that is.

(113) K.N. Medhurst, op. cit., p. 82.

(114) Ibid., p. 83.


(120) The construction industry is essentially one of transit between agriculture and other sectors of the economy. Análisis Sectorial, op. cit., p. 362.


(126) This is not to say that there was no political control over their choice of site.

(127) The ten municipios were Alcorcón, Greda, Getafe, las Rozas de Madrid, Leganés, Majadahonda, Pinto, Pozuelo de Alcorcón, San Fernando de Henares and Torrejón de Ardoz. Ibid., p. 206.

(128) The three municipios were Alcobendas, Rivas-Vacianadrid and San Sebastián de los Reyes. Ibid.

(129) In Economía de Madrid en 1971, op. cit., pp. 53-59; and Resumen Estadístico Año 1971, op. cit., Table 67, p. 78. The three municipios not named were las Rozas de Madrid, Majadahonda and Rivas-Vaciamadrid.

(130) Resumen Estadístico Año 1971, op. cit., Tables 25 and 67, pp. 27 and 70.

(131) See, for example, R. Philip Jones, 1968, op. cit.
I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

C/ INTRA-PROVINCIAL IN- AND OUT-MIGRATION STREAMS

(1) E. Gómez, op. cit., p.59.
(4) Ibid., pp.174-175. See also T. Vidal, op. cit., the map on p.162.
(5) See, for example, an internal migration paradigm in R.J. Pryor, 1975, op. cit., Fig.1.2, p.29.
(6) The low percentage of dispersed settlement in the traditional out-migrant region of Old Castile-León may be partly due to this one-way centripetal movement towards the municipal capital.
(7) During this period 60.60% of internal migration from the province of Barcelona was intra-provincial. In 1972 the metropolitan area of Barcelona accounted for nearly 80% of intra-provincial migration. See J. Estébanez Alvarez and R. Puyol Antolín, op. cit., Appendix IV, p.140; and Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, Servicio Técnico de Estadística, Avene del Boletín de Estadística Municipal, Vol.17, No.254, Barcelona, 1972, pp.5 and 7.
(10) It has been assumed that all municipios with a population growth above the provincial average of 7.5% for the decade were in-migrant ones. Official municipal migration statistics are very inaccurate. See Plan C.C.B., op. cit., Vol.1, p.199. For the use of national growth-rate methods of calculating net migration see L.A. Kosinski, 1975, op. cit., p.116.
(11) Agricultural wages were 22% greater in the Sevillian campeña than in the sierra. See F. Murillo, et al., op. cit., Table 8, p.138; and Plan C.C.B., op. cit., Vol.3, pp.49-52.
(12) N. Salas, op. cit., p.25-29.
(13) As is the case with Madrid, new residential, commuter settlements are developing. For example, Jardín Park, Sardanyola - only ten minutes from Barcelona by motorway. See La Vanguardia, 6th Nov., 1975.
(15) Ibid., pp.7-8.
(17) The natural increase of the urban municipios of the province averaged 18.5% in the 1961-1970 period, their average growth due to net immigration being estimated at 359.6%. Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p.57.
(18) Rivas-Vaciamadrid on the eastern outskirts of the capital lost 16.57% of its population during the 1961-1970 period. The local factor of importance was the environmental problem associated with the dumping of refuse from the capital.
(19) See A. Higueras Armal and M. Molina Ibañez, op. cit., pp.530-534; and M. Martín Cantalapiedra, op. cit.
(20) Money believes that the percentage of population change due to migration increases with the decreasing scale of settlement size. See D.C. Money, Patterns of Settlement, Human Geography in Colour, Evans, London, 1972, Fig.195, p.143.

This lack of relationship was confirmed at "macro-regional" level.
Ref. pp. 300-307

\[ (R_s = 0.032), \text{and at "micro-regional" level in both Cataluña-Baleares} \]
\[ (r = 0.400) \text{ and Vascongadas-Navarra-Zaragoza} (r = 0.600). \]

(22) For the development of the New Sierra de Madrid (near Solarque reservoir) and the Nueva Costa de Madrid (near San Juán reservoir) see M. Gaviria, 1971, op. cit., pp. 155-156.

(23) Population growth in Patones was partly due to the opening of a camino vecinal (second class road) which led to the development of tourism. See A. Cantó Téllez, El Turismo en la Provincia de Madrid, Diputación Provincial, Oficina de Prensa, 2nd rev. ed., Madrid, 1953, pp. 314-315.

(24) The maximum loss of population was experience in Puebla de la Sierra (−65.08$).

(25) See also Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p. 49.

(26) Ibid., pp. 225-226; and Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., Table 17.5, p. 1164.

Notwithstanding, 56 of the rural parishes of the archdiocese of Madrid-Alcalá did not have a resident parish priest in January 1972. See Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p. 23.


These findings were confirmed at “macro-regional" level (Rs = −0.021) and at "micro-regional" level in both Cataluña-Baleares (r = 0.200) and Vascongadas-Navarra-Zaragoza (r = 0.600).


(29) We estimate that between 35-38% of the province’s growth of 96,33% between 1951 and 1970 must be attributed to natural increase. Only Alcobendas, Galapagar, Parla, Sevilla de la Nueva, Valdavaso, Villaviciosa de Odón and Navalcarnero could be considered as net immigrant municipios in our survey.

(30) A 10% sample was used employing the municipios ending with a number one within the official list for the 1970 Census, the statistics being extracted from Tables IV and V/VI.


(32) We suspect that a higher correlation would have been obtained if statistics for the number of non-industrial employees had been used.
I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

D/ URBAN-TO-URBAN MIGRATION STREAMS


(7) If municipios with 10,000-19,999 population are included, 43.45% of the in-migrants came from urban municipios in 1971. See Resumen Estadístico Año 1971, op. cit., p.73.

(8) J. Estévez Alvarez and R. Payol Antolín, op. cit., p.119. The calculations were made at the level of 14 regions as delimited in J.M.L. Casas Torres, A. Míguez Amat and J.A. Miralles Bedosa, op. cit., p.34. See also B. Gómez, op. cit., p.44 ff.

(9) G.K. Zipf, National Unity and Disunity: The Nation as a Bio-Social Organization, Principia Press, Bloomington, Ind., 1941.

(10) You have included three of the seven socio-economic categories recognized by the Instituto Nacional de Estadística: Empresarios y altos cargos.
Profesionales técnicos y afines; (Funcionales administrativos; Comerciantes y similares). The statistics for 1970 are not strictly comparable since migrants are now classified into eight socio-economic groups, four of which are included in our calculations: Profesionales y técnicos; Personal administrativo; Comerciantes y vendedores; Trabajadores de los Servicios. Las Migraciones en Espana. Decenio 1960-1970, op. cit., Tables II.3 and II.4, pp.122-141.

De Miguel has been able to show that the degree of upward social mobility of "migrant managers" is greater than that of native managers in industrial rather than semi-industrial provinces, and so must lead to the migration of aspiring, young businessmen from the latter to the former. See A. de Miguel, 1965, op. cit., Table 4, p.274, and p.275.


Ibid., Fig.13.2, p.238.

Ibid.

Table 13.4, p.303.

A. de Miguel and J.J. Linz, 1964, op. cit., Table 10, p.23.

J.J. Linz and A. de Miguel, 1966, op. cit., Table 10, p.23.

A. de Miguel and J.J. Linz, 1964, op. cit., Table 10, p.23.

J.J. Linz and A. de Miguel, 1966, op. cit., p.304. See also the data from a study by J. González Ateo cited in ibid., p.304.

According to this source, 24.3% of the seminary students in 1960 came from "clases medias" Spain and 20.3% from "bourgeois" Spain (especially the rural areas of the Basque provinces).

A. de Miguel and J.J. Linz, 1964, op. cit., Table 10, p.23.

J.J. Linz and A. de Miguel, 1966, op. cit., p.304. See also the data from a study by J. González Ateo cited in ibid., p.304.

The origin of the migrants was perhaps rural, but they moved to urban areas (especially provincial capitals) to obtain a secondary education.


See, for example, differences in the cost of living indices in provincial capitals in Anuario Estadístico de Espana 1965, op. cit., pp.633-634.

There is a growing tendency for small rentiers and landowners to enter the urban middle classes as financiers, merchants and service workers. See A. de Miguel, 1965, op. cit., p.265.

Theoretically the supply of clergy should show little regional variation. In 1960-1961 each province had at least one seminary (11 having 2-3 each). See Plan C.C.E., op. cit., Vol.1, Table 1.12, p.111.

It was felt relevant to include this section on the clergy within urban-to-urban migration since most seminaries are located within urban areas, while diocesan capitals are also urban. Moreover, according to Aznar, an increasing number of the clergy are recruited from urban areas. See S. Aznar, "La revolución española y las vocaciones eclesiásticas", I.E.F., Madrid, 1949, cited in A. de Miguel, 1965, op. cit., p.265.
I. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

E/ THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF "PUSH" AND "PULL" FACTORS OPERATING IN IN- AND OUT-MIGRATION REGIONS

(2) Three main methods of measuring the gap have been devised:
   (a) The average difference between agricultural and unskilled industrial labourers' wages.
   (b) The difference between average agricultural and industrial wages.
   (c) The difference between per capita agricultural and non-agricultural (or industrial) incomes.
   See P. Bairoch, op. cit., p.152.
(3) J.R. Bellerby, 1953, op. cit., Table 3; and ibid., 1956, op. cit., p.270.
   For differences in Europe see My labour leaves the land, op. cit., p.197.
(9) Consejo de Economia Nacional statistics quoted in J. Ros Jimeno, 1966 (a), op. cit., p.97. See also H.W. Richardson, 1975, op. cit., Table 1.2, p.5.
(10) J. Ros Jimeno, 1966 (a), op. cit., p.97.
(12) G. Brennan, op. cit., pp.87-100.
(13) Instituto Nacional de Estadistica quoted by S.G. Payne, op. cit., p.34.
(19) Factores Humanos y Sociales del Desarrollo. Reunion de la Monarquia, op. cit., p.35.
(21) J. Añilo, op. cit., p.173; and A. Camilleri Lapeyre, 1967, op. cit., p.120.
(22) There are, of course, other unpredictable factors which affect rural life - for example, health. See A. de Miguel, 1965, op. cit., p.236.
(23) V. Perez Diaz, 1966, op. cit., pp.74 and 143.

Ref. pp.317-320
(25) The base statistics were extracted from Anuario Estadístico de España 1965, op. cit., p.246; and Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., Table 3.59, p.167.


(27) S.G. Payne, op. cit., p.53.


(29) P. Ohsson, 1965 (b), op. cit., p.7.


(32) B.H. Wrong, op. cit., Table 3, p.179, and J.R. Isaac, 1962, op. cit., p.179, and Table 177.

(33) J. Añiló, op. cit., Table 1.39, p.15.


(35) See Table IX, p.220; J. Añiló, op. cit., Table 3, p.173; and A. Guilleri Lapuyre, 1967, op. cit., p.120.


(37) See for example, L.A. Rojo Buque, op. cit., pp.16-17.

(39) J. Añiló, op. cit., pp.169-170; and Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., p.73. See also La Agricultura Española en 1961, op. cit., p.223.

(41) If salaries and wages in agriculture during the six year period 1957/3-1962/3 are ranked in order and compared with ranked agriculturalists' profits for the same period it will be seen that they are exactly opposite in tendency. Informe Sociológico... Escoria, 1960, op. cit., Table 1.81, p.84.

(42) M. Siguán, 1964 (b), op. cit., p.239.

(43) J. Añiló, op. cit., pp.169-170; and Situación Actual de la Agricultura Española, op. cit., p.73. See also La Agricultura Española en 1961, op. cit., p.223.


(46) Santiago Escartín, op. cit., (see f.32).


(48) M. Siguán, 1964 (b), op. cit., p.239.


Money remittances from relatives and evidence of their prosperity can act as an incentive to migration. See J. Isaac, op. cit., p.45.
(52) Informe Socialístico... España 1970, op. cit., p.552.
(54) J. Hinderink, op. cit., pp.86 and 90.
For the long-term benefit of reforestation to rural communities see
(56) Ibid., p.80.
(58) Insúa believes that urban-rural income differentials increased during
the 1960s. See J.R. Insúa, Spain's Regional Growth, Universidad
Autónoma de Madrid, Mimeo, Madrid, 1973, cited by H.J. Richardson,
1975, op. cit., p.5.
p.46.
For the difficulty of separating "push" and "pull" factors see D.K.
Bussey, op. cit., p.5.
(60) This is the opinion of García Barbancho. See A. García Barbancho, 1954, op. cit., cited in V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.231.
(61) In confirmation see A. de Miguel, 1965, op. cit., p.238.
II. MORATIVE FACTORS OPERATING IN OUT-MIGRATION AREAS

1) AT A NATIONAL LEVEL


(3) Ibid., p.403.

(4) Ibid.


(6) Ibid., p.23; and J. Jones, 1962, op. cit., p.38.

(7) L. Kenny, 1961, op. cit., p.34.

(8) Ibid., p.9.


(16) J.B. Aceves, 1974, op. cit., p.43.


(18) J.B. Aceves, 1974, op. cit., p.43.

(19) Ibid.


(21) In the bars, taverns, public washing-place and the main square. See J. Hinderink, op. cit., p.5; and M. S. de la Colina, 1967 (b), op. cit., pp.101-102.


Ref. pp.326-336
(35) *Tonto del bolo*; a term of derision used by madrileños for people of rural origin (paletos) in culture (without manners, uneducated), but widely used as a general "insult".
(41) See pp.262-273.
(42) These findings are confirmed by W.W. Oginowo, *op. cit.*, quoted in J.E. Goldthorpe, *op. cit.*, p.223.
(43) Innovators see themselves, and are most certainly seen by others, as deviants. See J.E. Goldthorpe, *op. cit.*, p.213; C. Jones, *op. cit.*, p.93.
(46) G. Germani, *op. cit.*
Schramm is of the opinion that the mass media can only affect attitudes which are lightly held. See W. Schramm, Mass Media and National Development, Stanford University Press and U.M.C.S.C.O., Stanford, Calif., and New York, 1964, Chap. 4.


J. Seville, 1957, op. cit., p. 19. The italics in f. 54-56 are mine.


A.L. Ibsen, op. cit., p. 212.


M.E. Cimarr, op. cit., p. 3. My italics.


The term was first used by H.H. Hyman, "The psychology of status", Archives of Psychology, No. 259, New York, 1942, quoted by W.E. Kuncina, op. cit., p. 12.


R.C. Taylor, op. cit., p. 131.
(73) J. Gregor, op. cit., p.466.
(76) L.B. Clinard, op. cit., p.3.
(78) Ibid. See also J. Rowland, op. cit., p.339.
(88) W. Petersen, 1961, op. cit., Table 2-9, p.613.
(92) See 1970 Report on the World Social Situation, op. cit., p.109, for "minimum vital needs" and "minimum felt needs".
See p. 205 ff.


J.E. Coldithorne, on cit., p. 104, prefers the term "indigenous private sector."

See p. 325.


A. García Barbano, 1970, on cit., p. 20.

K. Rossi-Boria, on cit., p. 497.


H. Siguán Soler, 1967 (a), on cit., p. 50.

Ibid., p. 69.

Pastores Humanos y Sociales..., 1964, on cit., p. 193.

Síntesis del Informe Sociológico... España 1970, on cit., p. 31.

Note the concept of "incorporative drive" - the intensification of communication between centre and periphery. See A. Pearse, "Metropolis and Peasant. The Expansion of the Urban Industrial Complex and the Contracting Rural Structure", in T. Slinn, (ed.), Peasants and Peasant Societies, Penguin, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, 1971, p. 70.

Síntesis del Informe Sociológico... España 1970, on cit., Table 4.107, p. 365, and p. 297.

G. Komet, 1966, on cit., p. 67.


S. Aznar Heredia, on cit., p. 50.


Pérez Díaz attempts to demonstrate that in the Tierra de Campos agricultural labourers were more likely to migrate than small landowners. We believe that relative deprivation acts on small landowners and agricultural labourers as separate groups in different moments in time. See p. 321; and V. Pérez Díaz, 1969, on cit., p. 104.

G. Foster, on cit., p. 310.


S. López, 1973, on cit., p. 122.

K. Siguán Soler, 1967 (b), on cit., p. 103.

J. Díaz del Moral, on cit., and C.E. Lida, on cit.

Maqueda considers "survivance" (and the excessive dependence of workers on large estates) as one of the main causes of the migration of landless labourers. See A. Maqueda, on cit., pp. 141-142.

M. Siguán Soler, 1967 (b), on cit., p. 103.

V. Pérez Díaz, on cit., pp. 35 and 116.


M. Siguán Soler, 1967 (b), on cit., p. 103; and ibid., 1972, on cit., p. 85.

See, however, Mr. Díaz, on cit., p. 116.

M. Siguán Soler, 1967 (b), on cit., p. 103.

Síntesis del Informe Sociológico... España 1970, on cit., p. 203.

(130) M. Sigüén Soler, 1967 (a), op. cit., p. 53.
(131) R. Sanchez Hauck, 1972, op. cit., p. 222.
(134) Ibid., p. 121.
(135) Ibid., p. 143.
(136) Pal Capo Ra, Book I, op. cit., p. 54.
(137) Rural stagnation (pauwazo rural) is a significant social factor in out-migration. See A. Mejía, op. cit., p. 95; and the editorial of Proceso, No. 40, n.d. quoted by A. López Izáz, 1966, op. cit., p. 14.
2) At a Regional / Provincial Level

(1) There was a good harvest in 1959. Although the harvest was poorer in 1960, agriculture suffered much less from stabilization measures than the other two sectors of the economy.

(2) "Productividad y Banco Agrario: una Investigación en la Provincia de Servicio, op. cit., p.44.


(9) W.S. Fisher and H. Bowen-Jones, op. cit., p.142.


(12) Ibid., Table 6.9, p.195.

(13) Ibid., Table 3.14, p.104; and ibid., 1954, on. cit., p.775.

(14) Seminario de la Cátedra de Sociología y Derecho Rural de la E.T.S. de Ingenieros Agrónomos, Estudio de una Población Rural en una Comarca de la Provincia de Guadalajara, 1965, p.32.


(16) M. Siguán Soler, op. cit., p.29.


(18) Ibid., Table 8, p.207.


(20) Y. Pérez Díaz, 1969, op. cit., Table 6.27.


(22) M. Siguán Soler, op. cit., p.29.

(23) H. Bitter, on. cit., (see Psycho-social Factors, f.8), Table 33, p.142.


(25) Ibid., Table 6, p.207.


(29) Y. Pérez Díaz, 1969, op. cit., Tables 5-6 and 6-6, pp.213 and 219.


(32) See, however, J. Cazorla Pérez, 1973, op. cit., p.125 ff., for significant differences in social well-being between eastern and western Andalucía. See also Lázaro Araujo and Muñoz Cidad, "La Distribución..."
Family migrations are also much more important now in the developing world. See A. Inquien, 1973, on. cit., cited in P. Wilsher and R. Righter, on. cit., p.39.

In 1971 there was an upswing in the economy which resulted in an increase in family migrations. See Visión Sociográphica de Barcelona, on. cit., p.92, for details of family migrations in 1960 - a year with a downswing in the economy. Unfortunately, Spanish statistics do not make a distinction between "individual migrations" (where a number of families move together) and "split migrations" (where the head of the family migrates first to seek work and a place for the family to live). See A. Gilbert, on. cit., p.113.

Siguán suggests that the "gregarious" habit of out-migration from Andalucía is due to lack of self confidence. See H. Siguán Soler, 1972, op. cit., p.217. See also C.E. Bishop, 1955, on. cit., p.55, on regional differences in "nonpecuniary costs" involved in migration.


III. PSYCHO-SOCIAL FACTORS

(2) C. Germani, op. cit.
(3) M. German, op. cit., p.44.
(9) H. Kettler and J. Bosque Laurel.
(10) M. Olza Zubiri, Psicología del Habitante de la Rivera Tudelana de Navarra, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Pamplona, 1974, p.64.
(11) J.S. Lindberg, op. cit.
(16) O. Lewis, 1967, op. cit., p.xxv.
(17) J.W. House, Industrial Britain. The North East, David & Charles, Newton Abbot, 1969, p.57, based on J.W. House and G.S. Willis, "Northern Region and Nation," Papers on Migration and Mobility in Northern Britain, No.4, University of Newcastle, Department of Geography, April, 1967.
(18) J. Clyde Mitchell, 1959, op. cit., p.32.
(20) See for example, the models proposed by R.C. Taylor, op. cit., p.131; M.H. Frijsa, op. cit., p.85; and G. Germani, op. cit., pp.159-173.
(21) P.H. Rossi, op. cit., p.115.
(22) M. Siguan, 1959, op. cit., p.53-204.

Ref. pp.353-356
PART FIVE
THE SOCIAL-POLITICAL IMPLICATIONS OF MIGRATION

INTRODUCTION


(10) K. Fried, op. cit., p.46.


(13) W. R. Hohm, 1972, op. cit., pp.64-70.


Ref. pp.358-359
THE SOCIAL-POLITICAL IMPLICATIONS OF MIGRATION

I. ASSIMILATION INTO THE HOST SOCIETY - AN URBAN VIEW


(6) For an opposite view see P.A. Sorokin, Social Mobility, The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, 1939.


(10) For an opposite view see P.A. Sorokin, Social Mobility, The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, 1939.


Ref. pp.360-362
A sample survey of the chabola population of Madrid in 1967 revealed a sub-population of school age of about 27.5% of the total compared with 15% for the whole of Madrid. See Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.8. See also Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 2.23, p.60; El Chabolismo..., op. cit.; and Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., pp.22-24.

(24) Memoria-Anuario Industrial 1963, op. cit., Table 11, p.49.
(25) Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 2.24, p.52; and V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.205.
(26) F. Pevón Guerrero, op. cit., p.100.
(28) Forty-nine per cent of a Fundación F0E33A sample survey of chabola heads of family in Madrid in 1969 were service workers (mainly casual ones). See Informe Sociológico... España 1970, op. cit., p.69.

Peones y obreros sin calificar were more than three times as likely to be unemployed as obreros calificados in 1954. See Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 2.27, p.60.

(29) F.J. Gómez Rodríguez, op. cit., p.69.
(30) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.39. See also F. Negro Rical, op. cit., pp.77-84.
(31) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.224.
(32) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.37.
(36) To other provinces as well as to other municipios within the province of Madrid.
(37) Most migrants do not declare their previous occupation, or give a false one.
(38) Resumen Estadístico, Año 1966, op. cit., Tables 69 and 70, pp.200-201.
(42) Ibid., and Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.303.
(43) Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 3.17, p.92. See also Ponencia de Factores Humanos y Sociales, op. cit., Table 1.11.14, p.58; and Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p.242.
(44) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.43.
(45) Ibid., p.303.
(46) It should be emphasized that 63.5% of the population of the Periferia were born in Madrid, 44.5% within the zone itself. See Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, Table 2.12 and 2.18, pp.67 and 70.
(47) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., pp.8 and 30.
Absorción del Chabolismo..., on. cit., p.39. See also Informe Socio-\ldots de Madrid, on. cit., pp.323-324.

According to J. Ferrer, Himilón los Gitanos..., Publicaciones de Cáritas Diocesana de Barcelona, Barcelona, 1965, p.46, cited in ibid., p.504, Gypsies are not even registered in the Registro Civil and are not called up for Military Service.


Various kinds of petty thief. Ibid., on. cit.


Absorción del Chabolismo..., on. cit., p.10.


Ibid., Vol.3, Table 37, p.73.


La Voz de un Pueblo y Nivel Cultural de la Familia, on. cit., Vol.2, pp.89, 299, 469 and 499.

Life-time residential segregation indices were calculated for 1960 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of Regional L/T Migrant Group in District</th>
<th>100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Same Regional L/T Migrant Group in City</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Informe Socialgeico... de Madrid, on. cit., Table 2.13, p.57. See also A. Redondo, on. cit., p.1017.


Cited in J.M. Simmie, on. cit., p.96.


P. Schiller, on. cit., p.43.


Informe Socialgeico... España 1970, on. cit., p.701.


Ref. pp.363-372

(76) M. Siguén, 1959, op. cit., quoted by V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.239.


(78) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., pp.23 and 37.


(81) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.403.


(83) F. Negre Rigol, op. cit., p.15.

(84) R. Echarren Ysturía, op. cit., p.142.


(88) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.213.


(90) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.7.

(91) Sometimes electricity is tapped illegally from overhead transmission lines. On other occasions it is obtained legally from private supply companies.

(92) Ibid., p.7.

(93) J.F.C. Turner, 1969, op. cit., Fig.1, p.514. See also the classification of P. Wilsher and R. Richter, op. cit., p.25.


(95) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.6.

(96) The six zones are: Tetuán-Fuencarral, Cuetatín-Hortaleza, San Blas-Hortaleza, Vallecas-Mediodía, Villaverde and Intina-Carabanchel.

(97) Ibid., p.10.

(98) F. Condell, 1972, op. cit., p.141.

(99) G. de Castro, op. cit., p.504.

(100) Ibid., pp.504-505.

(101) J.M. Vázquez and P. López Rivas, op. cit., p.22.

(102) In a zone of unconsolidated sandy soils. Roads and blocks of flats which have been built in this part of the city are liable to be affected by socavones (cave-ins). Some of the earliest flats built in the Barrio de Hortaleza collapsed in this way in the early 1960s.


(104) The river-bank region of the Manzanares near the Puente de Toledo was populated by a number of cave-dwellers (some of whom grazed sheep on the scrub of the zone) until the region was developed in the mid-1960s.
According to L. Arregui in Plan C.C.B., op. cit., Vol.2, p.90, the average cost of a chabola in Bilbao built by the owner-occupier himself, is only about 25% of that of the average flat in a working-class barrio.

See the example cited by Turner of a southern migrant to Barcelona who built a river-bank shack, converting it by stages to a well-built, three-storey concrete building, the ground floor of which became an official neighbourhood centre. See J.F.C. Turner and D. Roberts, op. cit., p.123.

See also R. Martin, "Insaka squatters are licensed", Geographical Magazine, Vol.43, No.3, May, 1976, p.476.

According to L. Arregui in Plan C.C.B., op. cit., Vol.2, p.100, more than 50% of the few chabolas remaining in Bilbao are rented, their owners having managed to move elsewhere.

Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.6.

El Chabolismo..., op. cit., according to this source there were 23,234 chabolas in Madrid in 1961. Ibid., p.4.

Tugurios are defined as impermanent dwellings without any services. See G. Stadel, op. cit., p.254; and Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., pp.421-33. In Mexico City a tugurio is a «one room hut round a central courtyard». See P. Wilsher and R. Richter, op. cit., p.12.

V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.230; and Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 6.23, p.223.

Informe Sociológico... Barcelona 1970, op. cit., p.632.

Considered from H. Valenzuela Rubio, 1974, on. cit., Table 7, p.627, based on DITECA, Censo de Chabolas del Término Municipal de Madrid (15 de junio a 15 de septiembre de 1973), According to this source there were 30,250 chabolas in Madrid (excluding the barrios cited).

Calculations made at the level of twelve municipal districts. Resumen Estadístico. Año 1963, op. cit., Table 25, p.30; and P. Pavía Guerrero, op. cit., p.172. There was a correlation with the percentage of commercial establishment in each district concerned with food, which was significant at the 99.6 level of confidence (Rs = 0.925). Ibid., Table 26, p.30; and ibid., p.142.


Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 8.21, p.234, and Table 8.48, p.120. See also Informe sobre la Estructura Social de la Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p.103.

Only 25% of the active population of the Periferia in 1955 worked within the zone. Most of the remainder travelled daily to the Centro. See Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Tables 8.6 and 8.7, pp.235 and 236.

Not all the population of the suburbio is rural migrant in origin. At least 20% in 1961 had been displaced from the central districts of Madrid as a result of urban redevelopment schemes. See El Chabolismo..., on. cit., p.38.

Carriola: irregular, private bus-service, often with no fixed timetables or routes and invariably employing worn-out old buses. See Informe...Provincia de Madrid, on. cit., p.222.


For the many functions of bustees in Calcutta see C. Rosser, on. cit., p.136; and D.J. Dwyer, 1975, op. cit., p.41.

Absorción del Chabolismo..., on. cit., pp.9 and 14, and the graph on p.21.

Urbanización, on. cit., p.41.

Visión Sociológica de Barcelona, on. cit., pp.214 and 223. See also Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, on. cit., p.123.

Visión Sociológica de Barcelona, on. cit., p.221. See also La Gran Barcelona, Colegio Oficial de Aparejadores y Arquitectos Técnicos de Cataluña, Madrid, 1972, Chap.1.

Visión Sociológica de Barcelona, on. cit., p.220-221. See also P. Candel, 1972, on. cit., p.133, who estimates the number of barracas in the city circa. 1972 as 4,639 (there were 12,494 in 1957).

E. Pinilla de las Heras, on. cit., Vol.2, p.120.

Ibid., Vol.3, Table 12, p.38.


See pp.295-296. This may have been because of the lack of industrial...
specialization in Barcelona. The suburbio here is a sprawling zone of mixed industry and housing. See F. Ivern, op. cit., p.47.


(148) Factores Humanos y Sociales..., 1964, op. cit., p.150.

(149) Resumen Estadístico. Año 1968, on. cit., Table 26, p.30; Ibid., 1962, op. cit., Table 26, p.30; and A. Gilbert, op. cit., p.132, for similar trends towards peripheral shantytown sites in Latin America.

(150) Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., p.49.

(151) Ibid., Table 3.4, p.77.

(152) Ibid., Table 3.42, p.110. Multi-family dwellings also abound in the Periferia, with 12% of dwellings shared in both Vallcoas and Villaverde. Ibid., p.215.


(154) This section is in the Centro zone.

(155) A. Redondo, op. cit., pp.1025-1025, and Fig.7, p.1024.


(157) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., pp.89, 202 and 212.

(158) 1960 Census Statistics cited in Factores Humanos y Sociales..., 1964, op. cit., Table 3.175, p.160.


(160) Ibid., cited in Informe Sociológico...de Madrid, op. cit., p.139.

(161) Ibid., cited in A. Buttimer, op. cit., p.131.


(163) Informe Sociológico...de Madrid, op. cit., p.199.

(164) Ibid., Table 6.16, p.219.

(165) Ibid., Tables 6.20 and 6.21, p.220.

(166) El Chabolismo..., op. cit. See also Informe Sociológico... España 1973, op. cit., p.699.


(169) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., pp.7, 19 and 39.

(170) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.221.


(172) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.19.

(173) J.M. Vázquez and P. López Rivas, op. cit., p.17.

(174) Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.7.

(175) Informe Sociológico...de Madrid, op. cit., Table 6.7, p.216. The averages for all of Madrid were 90 and 92% respectively.

(176) Ibid., Table 6-10, p.217; and Informe Sociológico... España 1973, op. cit., p.599.

(177) El Chabolismo..., op. cit., and J.M. Vázquez and P. López Rivas, op. cit., p.15. Absorción del Chabolismo..., op. cit., p.7, being a Ministerio de la Vivienda publication, has a vested interest in denying the existence of running water and modern sewage disposal facilities within chabola zones.


(130) Resumen Estadístico. Año 1963, op. cit., Table 16, p. 25, and Table 54, p. 53.

(181) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., pp. 71 and 75.

(132) Ibid., p. 73. The statistics for Madrid show 0.47% of deaths in the city in 1968 being the result of infectious diseases. See Resumen Estadístico. Año 1963, op. cit., Table 16, p. 25, and Table 54, p. 53.

(133) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p. 74.


Vallecas, the district with lowest living standards and most widespread chabolismo, accounted for only 1.9% of the deaths from tuberculosis in 1968. It should be remembered that deaths from tuberculosis mainly affect the elderly, and that Tetuán is a relatively wealthy immigrant district. It only increased in population by 65.3% between 1950 and 1965, compared with 365.6% in the case of Vallecas. See Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 2.9, p. 66.

Resumen Estadístico. Año 1971, op. cit., Table 94, pp. 90-99; and Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 9.22, p. 303.


(197) Even those who adjust tend to be disrupted, frequent disruption among "high mobiles" resulting in a "loss of commitment." Ibid., p. 233.


(201) M. Siguda, 1959, on cit., p.233.


(204) Absorción del campesino..., op. cit., pp.24 and 39.

(205) Informe Sociológico..., de Madrid, on cit., Tables 2.5, 5.11 and 5.2, pp.317, 160 and 170.

(206) Ibid., Table 5.2, p.176; and Reunten Estadístico, Año 1952, on cit., Table 25, p.30.


(208) Ibid., p.244.

(209) Plan C.C.B., on cit., Vol.2, p.44.

(210) Candel (himself a migrant) refers to the Leyenda Tepantzing con barracas-dwellers. See P. Candel, 1975, op. cit., pp.212 and 225. See also the letter from the Comisión Gestora de la Asociación de Vecinos de las Barracas de Monteleón to the mayor of Barcelona; and the reply given by the alcalde quoted in ibid., pp.366 and 367.

(211) Informe Sociológico..., de España, 1956, on cit., Table 1.19, p.42.

(212) Plan C.C.B., on cit., Vol.1, Table D.1, p.134.


(218) H.P. Davig, on cit., p.88; and A.M. Rose, 1963, on cit., p.33.
"Accommodation" has been defined as "the process of making social adjustments to conflict situations by maintaining social distances between groups and persons which might otherwise come into conflict ..." (quoted by T.G. Speake, 1971, op. cit., p.55, from E.L. Burgess, "Accommodation," Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, Vol.1, Chicago, 1950, pp.403-404).

E.B. Brody, op. cit., p.19. See also H.J. Gans, 1962 (a) and (b), op. cit.; G.A. Lynd, op. cit., p.259; and W.F. Whyte, The Street Corner Society, Chicago, 1943, pp.94-104 and 255-278.


C. Hill, op. cit., p.92.

Visión Socio-rífica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.320.

Informe Socialldico... España 1970, op. cit., p.663.

Ibid., Table 9.7, p.629.

Statistics from three of Fundación FESSA's socio-economic regions - Extremadura, Sierra and Canarias - were not included because the sample was unrepresentative in those regions.

Ibid., Tables 9.6, 9.11 and 9.12, pp.622 and 624.


Ibid., p.702.

Ibid., p.703.

Ibid., Table 11.1, p.706.

Ibid., Table 10.9, p.669.

Ibid., Table 10.43, p.693.


Ibid., Tables 9.6, 9.11 and 9.12, pp.622 and 624.

Ibid., p.702.

Ibid., p.703.

Ibid., Table 11.1, p.706.

Ibid., Table 10.9, p.669.

Ibid., Table 10.43, p.693.


Ibid., pp.34-35.


Ibid., Table 3, pp.932-935.


Ibid., Table 3, pp.932-935.


On the other hand 49% of the mothers were natives!


The Madrid Periferia accommodated 54% of the population of the city in 1960 and 52% in 1970. These statistics would appear to prove that were national statistics applied to Madrid, juvenile-delinquency rates for the suburb would seem to be relatively low.


Visión Sociológica de Barcelona, op. cit., pp.400-403.


See A.E.C., 22nd July, 1972, for the reported robbery of a chulapa in the Calle Soledad López in Vallecas, Madrid.


(268) Informe Social-Sociología de España, 1956, on. cit., Table 9.11, p.229; and Informe sobre la Estructura...Provincia de Madrid, on. cit., p.204.

(269) J.J. Láz and A. de Miguel, "La realidad asociativa de los espárados", cited in Ponencia de Factores Humanos y Sociales, on. cit., Table 1.3, p.32. See also J.J. Láz and A. de Miguel, 1966, on. cit., Table 1.5, p.306.

(270) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, on. cit., p.335.

(271) These were extracted from the current Guía Telefónica.


(278) Informe Social-Sociología de España, 1956, on. cit., p.200.

(279) Such credit-cards in Spain can be lent to someone who is not an accredited card-holder to obtain discounts.


(281) A.L. Epstein, on. cit., p.258.


(283) N. Konya, 1951, on. cit., p.9.

(284) 1976 Report on the World Social Situation, on. cit., p.44.


(286) K.R. Hollmsteiner, on. cit., p.20.

(287) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, on. cit., p.384; and F. del Valle, on. cit., p.378. According to Martínez Martí, 95% of 5,000 dwellings in the Barrio del Sud-Oeste del Besos were occupied by migrants. Quoted in discussion in K. Sjöberg, "Actitudes y Perspectivas de la Inmigración", in Conversaciones sobre Inmigración Interior, on. cit., p.151.


(289) J. Vendellós, on. cit.


(292) Ibid., pp.226-227.


(295) See, for example, the resistance of peasants in El Pinar (Segovia) to co-operatives in J.B. Aceves, 1974, op. cit., p.45.


(297) L. Tirth, 1983, op. cit.


(299) The least madrileñismo (by birth), the most madrileñismo (by behaviour). Quoted from V. Simancas and J. Elizalde, op. cit., p.226.

(300) R.P. Bradshaw, op. cit., p.74.

(301) P. Negre Ríos, op. cit., p.85.


(304) Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 6.19, p.220; and El Carabismo..., op. cit.


(307) See, for example, ibid., 1963, op. cit., p.157.

(308) M. Siguán, 1969, op. cit., p.52, expressing a popular opinion.


(310) Ibid., 1969, op. cit., p.41.


(318) See Table XLIX, p.270.

(319) Visión Sociocrítica de Barcelona, op. cit., pp.256-237. The findings were confirmed when net internal migration produced a statistically insignificant correlation with the percentage of the population over the age of 10 who were illiterate (Rs = +0.140). Ibid., pp.255-256.

(320) The statistics refer to the percentage of illiterates over the age of sixteen. Informe Sociológico... de Madrid, op. cit., Table 7.3, p.253. The findings were confirmed when the percentage of illiterates in 1965 produced a statistically significant correlation with net internal migration 1969 (Rs = +0.748), and with the growth of population 1961-1967 (Rs = +0.549).


(327) R. D'Onofria, "Problems of Adjustment in the Case of Internal

(328) A. Miguez, op. cit., pp.86-89 and 93.


(337) L. Alonso Hinojal, op. cit., p.71.

(338) Professor José Arthur Más found that favela-dwellers in Rio de Janeiro only began to practice birth control after they were rehoused in high-rise flats where children were of less economic importance. See P. Wilsher and R. Righter, op. cit., p.33.


(344) Visión Sociográfica de Barcelona, op. cit., p.30.

(345) F. Magre Rigol, op. cit., p.17.
II. ASSIMILATION INTO THE HOST SOCIETY - A "SUBURBAN" VILT

(1) M. Olga Zurubi, op. cit., pp.64-69.
(2) A. de Miguel, 1965, op. cit., p.265.
(10) A. Gilbert, op. cit., Table 13, p.115.
(12) A. Gilbert, op. cit., p.116.
(13) P. Wilsher and R. Richter, op. cit., p.49.
(17) El Chabolismo... De Boix Selva and R. Vidal Folch, op. cit., p.151.
An average of 77.31% said that they were content to live where they were. Ibid., p.150.
(18) El Chabolismo..., op. cit.
(19) J. Mangalam, 1968 (b), op. cit., p.10.
(20) El Chabolismo..., op. cit.
(21) D. Harvey, op. cit., p.55.
(23) Informe Sociológico... España, 1970, op. cit., p.702.
(24) Informe Sociológico... de España, 1966, op. cit., Table 9.1, p.291 and Table 9.2, p.292.
(26) Informe Sociológico...Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p.135. See also Informe Sociológico... España, 1970, op. cit., pp.941-945; and Informe Sociológico... de España, 1966, op. cit., pp.133-125.
(28) Anes Pascual, op. cit., pp.159-160.
(29) Informe Sociológico...Provincia de Madrid, op. cit., p.114.
(31) Informe Sociológico...de Madrid 1970, op. cit., p.701; and Encuesta de Equipamiento y Nivel Cultural de la Familia, op. cit., Vol.2, Table 2.2, p.207.

Ref. pp.405-411
(33) Informe Sociológico...de Madrid, op.cit., Tables 8.13 and 8.20, p.303.
(34) Informe Sociológico...España 1970, op. cit., p.702.
(35) P. Rossi, op. cit.
(36) El Sabotismo..., op. cit.
(37) Havens and Usandizaga, 1966, n.p., cited in A. Gilbert, op. cit., p.120.
(38) Absorción del Sabotismo, op. cit., p.39.
(39) Informe Sociológico...España 1970, op. cit., p.702.
(41) C. Obradors, op. cit., pp.41-42.
III. THE ROLE OF MIGRATION IN SOCIAL CHANGE

(1) G. Jones, op. cit., p. 7.
(4) S. Uiner, 1972, op. cit., p.59.
(5) See p.217 ff.
(6) A. de Miguel, 1965, op. cit., p.263.
(8) D.J. Dwyer, 1972, op. cit., pp.vii-xvi.
(12) Resumen Estadistico. Año 1971, op. cit., Table 65, pp.72-73.
(15) In the case of Barcelona migration has also resulted in a biological regeneration of the population.
(16) C.C. Clarke, 1974, op. cit., p.231.

Ref. pp.416-422
IV. THE SOCIO-POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

(1) P.R. Odell, 1974, op. cit., pp.208 and 216.


(4) S. Lindqvist, op. cit., p.47.


(6) P. Bonilla, op. cit., p.81.

(7) A.B. Mountjoy, op. cit., p.215.


(9) Ibid., p.527.

(10) Ibid., p.528.


(15) J.M. Maravall, op. cit.

(16) S. Giner, 1972, op. cit., p.61.

(17) Ibid.

(18) Quoted by S. Lindqvist, op. cit., p.51.

(19) Lindqvist, op. cit., p.60.

(20) Anton Canellas leader of the Christian Democrats in Catalonia, quoted in C. Hitchens, "The state of Spain", New Statesman, 9th Jan., 1975, p.35. See also N.F. Bruce, op. cit., p.76.


(22) J.B. Aceves, 1973, op. cit., p.95.


(28) Ibid., p.59.

(29) Inforrne Sociol6gise.. Espaia, 1966, op. cit., Table 9, p.297.


(34) G. Brennan, op. cit., p.83.

Ref. pp.423-428
PART SIX

CONCLUSIONS

(1) García Barbancho's estimates for 1961-1965 at a partido judicial scale would under-estimate net out-migration for 1961-1970 by 34.5% and net in-migration by 50.05%. See f.29, PART THREE.

(2) This was not an example of the tendency for variables in the same economy to grow over time leading to misleading correlations.


APPENDIX

The three sample surveys were undertaken in July and August 1972.

Sample Survey I: Rural Questionnaire - Personal

Three separate regional samples were undertaken - in the provinces of Huesca and Lérida; Old Castile-León and Andalucía-New Castile-Extremadura. In the Huesca-Lérida study fifty-nine questionnaires were completed in the time allowed. In the other two studies one hundred questionnaires were completed in each migration zone. Following the approximate distribution of the non-urban population in 1970, ten persons were interviewed in a village with less than 500 population, sixty persons in two villages with between 500-5,000 population and thirty persons in one village with between 5,000 and 10,000 population in each migration zone. No attempt was made to conform with national sex-ratio or age-group characteristics.

Sample Survey II: Rural Questionnaire - Official

A 2/3 random sample survey of all the municipios existing in 1970 was undertaken - 173 in all.

Sample Survey III: Urban Questionnaire - Personal

Two separate samples were undertaken - in Madrid and Barcelona - one hundred questionnaires being completed in each case. An original attempt to conduct a 1/3 sample survey of the number of net migrants arriving in the respective cities between 1961 and 1965 was subsequently abandoned due to the inaccuracy of migration statistics, the high migrant mobility rates and the difficulty of recall five or ten years after the event. The three chief net in-migrant districts in both cities were identified from official statistics, visually identifiable in-migrant zones within each district then being located and individual migrants approached on a trial and error basis. In the case of Madrid, individual contacts and knowledge through living in an in-migrant community between 1960 and 1962, proved to be invaluable. No attempt was made to produce representative migrant samples but merely to compare migrants in Madrid and Barcelona. Interviews were restricted to ten individuals in each particular zone.
Sample Survey I

Rural Questionnaire - Personal

Indicate name of rural locality where survey was taken as follows:

Pueblo o aldea....
Municipio....
Partido Judicial....
Provincia....

Give a brief geographical description of the physical setting of the locality.
Realizando el Departamento de Geografía de esta Universidad un estudio sobre las migraciones, le agradeceríamos quisiera prestaros su valiosa ayuda, contestando el siguiente cuestionario.

### Datos Personales

Debido a que este cuestionario es de tipo impersonal no necesitamos sus apellidos, pero le agradeceríamos que incluyese su nombre cristiano:

1. **Nombre cristiano.**
2. **Sexo.**
3. **Edad.**
4. **Estado Civil.**
5. **Lugar de nacimiento: pueblo provincia.**
6. **¿ Sabe Ud. leer?**
7. **¿ Qué clase de educación ha tenido Ud. primaria o secundaria?**

### Datos de tipo socio - económico

8. **¿ Qué número de familiares mantiene Ud. en su casa?**
9. **¿ Qué relación tienen esos familiares con Ud.?**
10. **¿ Qué clase de trabajo realiza Ud.?**
11. **¿ Qué ingresos obtiene Ud. y su familia al año?**
12. **¿ Es su nivel de vida más alto ahora que hace cinco años?**
13. **¿ Cuántas tierras tiene Ud. en propiedad?**
14. **¿ Cuántas tierras de su propiedad cultiva Ud. directamente?**
15. **¿ A qué cultivos dedica Ud. esas tierras: secano regadío?**
16. **¿ Cuántas tierras tiene Ud. como arrendador?**
17. **¿ A qué dedica las tierras que tiene como arrendatario: secano regadío?**
18. ¿ Cuánto ganado ( por ejemplo caballar, vacuno, etc.) tiene Vd.?
19. ¿ Tiene Vd. pastos privados?
20. ¿ Hay pastos comunales en el pueblo?
21. ¿ Hay ovejas transhumantes en el pueblo? ¿ En qué número?
22. ¿ A qué comarca o pueblos se dirigen?
23. ¿ Vienen rebaños de ovejas procedentes de otros pueblos o comarcas?
24. ¿ Cuántos tractores hay en el pueblo?
25. ¿ Recuerda Vd. en qué año trajeron el primer tractor al pueblo?
26. ¿ Tiene Vd. tractor?
27. ¿ Qué piensa Vd. de la mecanización en el campo?
28. ¿ Si no tiene Vd. tractor, por qué motivo querría adquirir uno?
29. ¿ Su vivienda es propia o arrendada?
30. ¿ Cuántas habitaciones tiene?
31. ¿ Qué sistema de calefacción tiene?
32. ¿ Qué servicios higiénicos tiene?
33. ¿ Tiene su casa agua corriente o pozo?
34. ¿ Tiene Vd. corriente eléctrica en casa?
35. ¿ Tiene Vd. coche particular?
36. ¿ Tiene Vd. moto o bicicleta?
37. ¿ Tiene Vd. escopeta de caza?
38. ¿ Tiene Vd. reloj de pulsera?
39. ¿ Tiene Vd. radio en casa?
40. ¿ Cuántos televisores hay en el pueblo?
41. ¿ Recuerda Vd. en qué año se instaló el primer televisor?
42. ¿ Ve Vd. la televisión con frecuencia?
43. ¿ Tiene Vd. televisor en casa?
44. ¿ Con qué frecuencia lee Vd. el periódico?
45. ¿ Tiene Vd. nevera o frigorífico en casa?
46. ¿ Qué tipo de cocina usa para guisar?
47. ¿ Qué clase de suelos tiene su casa?
48. ¿ Tiene Vd. máquina de coser en casa?
49. ¿ Tiene Vd. lavadora en casa?
50. ¿ Tiene Vd. o no hecho un seguro de enfermedad, accidentes, cosechas?
51. ¿ Tiene el pueblo servicio de autobús?
52. ¿ Recuerda Vd. en qué año aproximadamente empezó el servicio de línea?

Datos sobre las migraciones

53. En general, ¿ Cree Vd. que los pueblos con la emigración se han beneficiado, se han perjudicado o se han quedado más o menos igual?
54. ¿ Por qué cree Vd. que la gente emigra:
   a) ayudar a la familia,
   b) mejorar el salario,
   c) para ahorrar,
   d) por trabajo mal remunerado,
   e) por mejorar la educación de los hijos,
   f) por adquirir una vivienda,
   g) por tener trabajo seguro, no eventual,
   h) por convertirse en trabajador independiente,
   i) para pagar deudas,
   j) por razones de paro permanente,
   k) por problemas familiares,
   l) por ser desagradables las relaciones en su trabajo,
   m) por motivos de salud,
   n) por razones políticas,
   o) para estar con algún miembro de la familia,
   p) por cualquier otra razón?

55. ¿ Es importante la emigración en el pueblo?
56. ¿ Qué opinión general hay en el pueblo sobre la emigración ( deseable, inevitable, etc.)?
57. ¿ Qué opinión demuestran los elementos responsables del pueblo ( autoridades, párroco, maestro )? ¿ La alientan o la censuran?
58. ¿Qué diferencia de opinión hay entre los diferentes grupos sobre la emigración: jóvenes, viejos, hombres, mujeres?

59. Concretamente entre los jóvenes: ¿Influye en las perspectivas matrimoniales (escasez de chicos o chicas)?

60. ¿Influye el cine sobre la emigración?

61. ¿Influye la televisión sobre la emigración?

62. ¿Influye el haber hecho el servicio militar en la capital sobre la emigración?

63. En los últimos años, ¿ha aumentado o disminuido en el pueblo la tendencia a emigrar?

64. ¿Cómo se podría contener la emigración?

65. ¿Qué grupos sociales son los que tienen más tendencia a marcharse y por qué?

66. ¿Cómo les viene la idea de marcharse?

67. ¿Qué idea se hacen sobre la vida en la ciudad?

68. ¿En qué piensan trabajar?

69. ¿Cuánto creen que podrán ganar y qué les hará falta para vivir?

70. ¿Qué ambiciones tienen?

71. ¿Cómo se marchan? ¿Tienen algún punto de apoyo en la capital, parientes con quién vivir, conocido que les busque trabajo, etc.?

72. ¿Se marcha la familia entera, o primero el padre que llama después a la mujer e hijos?

73. ¿Conservan algo en el pueblo para poder regresar?

74. ¿Cuándo emigra toda una familia del pueblo, qué suelen hacer con sus propiedades (lo alquilen o lo venden)?
5.

75. ¿ Qué razones dan los que quieren marcharse pero no pueden o no se atreven?

76. ¿ Cree Vd. que el que ha emigrado y vuelve puede hacerse de nuevo fácilmente a la vida del pueblo?

77. ¿ Qué cuentan y cómo justifican su fracaso los que han vuelto?

78. ¿ Cuántas personas hay en el pueblo que han emigrado y vuelto de nuevo?

79. ¿ Cuántos forasteros conoce Vd. que viven en el pueblo, y por qué razones vinieron? ¿ Qué tipo de trabajo suelen tener?

80. ¿ Recuerda Vd. cuando empezó la gente de su pueblo a emigrar en masa?

81. ¿ Qué ocurrió entonces, que les decidió abandonar su lugar natal?

82. ¿ Piensa Vd. que las cosas han mejorado o empeorado en el pueblo desde entonces?

83. ¿ Cuántas personas de su familia han emigrado a otra parte de España o al extranjero?

84. ¿ A dónde se han ido a vivir cada uno de ellos? ¿ y cuando se fueron, si es posible?

85. ¿ A dónde suelen ir la mayoría de los emigrantes?

86. Los de su familia que han emigrado ¿ se fueron directamente donde viven ahora, o vivieron en otro lugar después de abandonar el pueblo? Nombre cada uno de los lugares, por favor;

87. ¿ Sabe Vd. si alguno de su familia que ha emigrado ya, dejó el pueblo de temporada alguna vez antes de marcharse definitivamente? ¿ A dónde se fué de temporada y por qué razón (vendimia, siega etc.)?
68. ¿Ha trabajado Vd. de temporada fuera del pueblo alguna vez?

¿Dónde por favor?

¿Qué clase de trabajo hizo?

69. ¿Qué capitales de provincia o ciudades grandes conoce Vd. personalmente?

70. ¿Cómo las conoció:

en tiempo de guerra
servicio militar
visita particular?

71. ¿Piensa Vd. emigrar en el futuro?

72. ¿Por qué razón piensa Vd. emigrar o por el contrario quedarse en el pueblo?

73. Si emigrase ¿dónde pensaría Vd. ir?

74. ¿Por qué a ese sitio particularmente?

75. ¿Tiene Vd. algún familiar o conocido allí?

76. ¿Qué clase de trabajo, buscaría Vd. entonces?

77. Si Vd. pensase emigrar y tuviese la intención de vender todos sus bienes en el pueblo, ¿cómo obtendría por todo?

¿Pensaría Vd. que:

tendría bastante para pagar el viaje para el viaje y dar entrada a un piso para el viaje y comprar un piso al contado?

78. En el caso que Vd. fuera cabeza de familia y pensase emigrar ahora, ¿se iría Vd. primero solo o se llevaría a su familia?

79. ¿Con qué frecuencia recibe Vd. noticias (cartas, visitas etc.) de sus familiares, que han emigrado?

80. ¿Piensan ellos que han ganado, o no, con la emigración?

¿Cree Vd. que les mentirán, o que les dirán la verdad?
SAMPLE SURVEY II

Rural Questionnaire - Official

Indicate the names and official titles of all persons consulted as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alcalde</td>
<td>Secretario del Ayuntamiento etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Give the full titles and sources of any official or semi-official documents consulted.
Realizando el Departamento de Geografía de esta Universidad un estudio socio-económico sobre las migraciones en España, su pueblo ha sido escogido para un estudio del proceso migratorio y del cambio social; le agradeceríamos quisiera prestarnos su valiosa ayuda, contestando el siguiente cuestionario.

1. Nombre del pueblo o aldea.
2. Nombre del municipio a que pertenece.
3. Comarca.
4. Partido Judicial.
5. Provincia.
6. Área total del municipio.
7. Área total de la superficie cultivada.
8. Detalles de los cultivos de regadío, secano, cosechas etc. y rendimientos de las varias cosechas por hectárea.
9. Área total de la superficie no cultivada.
10. Detalles de los usos de la superficie no cultivada — pastos etc.
11. ¿ Cuánto ganado de cada especie suele tener el individuo?
12. ¿ Qué superficie total tiene la propiedad media?
13. ¿ En cuantas parcelas suele estar dividida la propiedad?
14. ¿ Cuántas fincas grandes ( más de 100 hectáreas ) hay en el término?
15. ¿ La mayoría de las fincas son llevadas por los propietarios o en arrendamiento?
16. ¿ Hay obreros sin tierras en el término?
17. ¿ Cuánto suelen ganar los obreros eventuales por promedio durante el año, y en tiempo de siega?
18. ¿ Cuánto suelen ganar los obreros fijos y los pequeños propietarios anualmente?
19. En cuanto a la herencia de las tierras, ¿se practica la costumbre de 
heredar o se reparten las tierras y el ganado entre los hijos?

20. ¿Cuántos tractores hay en el pueblo? ¿Y cuándo se instaló el primer 
tractor?

21. ¿Hay alguna cosechadora en su pueblo?

22. ¿Piensa Ud. que la mecanización influye en la emigración del pueblo?

23. ¿Tiene el pueblo servicio de autobús? ¿Sabe Ud. en qué año empezó el 
servicio de línea?

24. ¿A qué ciudad importante o capital se dirigen los coches de línea que 
 paran en su pueblo?

25. ¿Tiene el pueblo ferrocarril?

26. En el caso de que no tenga su pueblo ni ferrocarril, ni servicio de auto-
bús; a qué distancia del pueblo hay medios de transporte?

27. ¿Piensa Ud. si los medios o falta de medios de transporte, influyen en 
la emigración del pueblo?

28. Detalles de la estructura social del pueblo — clases sociales. Distri-
bución de la propiedad y de la riqueza. ¿Hay otras actividades además de 
la agricultura?

29. Los porcentajes de la población activa empleados en los sectores primarios, 
secundarios etc.

30. ¿Tiene su pueblo los siguientes servicios de urbanización:

a) alumbramiento eléctrico,

b) agua buena, escasa o mala,
c) fuentes en el casco,
d) agua corriente en la mayoría de las casas,
e) abrevaderos,
f) alcantarillado,
g) pozos negros,
h) lavaderos,
i) pavimentación?

31. ¿Tiene su pueblo los siguientes servicios sanitarios, económicos y culturales?

a) matadero municipal,
b) veterinario,
c) médico,
d) farmacéutico,
e) hospital,
f) sacerdote,
g) escuela,
h) cementerio municipal,
i) hostal, posada, pensión, hotel etc.?

32. ¿Tiene su pueblo los siguientes servicios de comunicación y transporte?

a) carretera (qué clase),
b) línea de autobuses,
c) ferrocarril,
d) correo por peatón,
e) telégrafo,
f) teléfono?

33. ¿Tiene su pueblo los siguientes servicios administrativos?

a) secretario del ayuntamiento,
b) guardia civil residente?

34. Detalles de la población de hecho del pueblo (o municipio) en cada uno de los censos desde 1857, incluyendo la última rectificación del padrón.

35. Estimaciones de los números totales de inmigrados y emigrados en el pueblo (o municipio) en cada año desde 1900. Si no es posible conseguir datos seguros se puede substituir saldos migratorios.
36. Detalles de las altas y bajas en el pueblo durante cada uno de los diez últimos años — puntos de procedencia y fecha de las inmigraciones, puntos de partida y fecha de las emigraciones. Edades, sexo y estado civil de los migrantes.

37. Producción total de trigo en el pueblo en cada uno de los últimos diez años.

38. Acontecimientos en el pueblo que han provocado inmigraciones o emigraciones: sequía, heladas, construcciones de obras públicas empezadas o terminadas etc.

39. Movimiento natural de población del pueblo (o municipio) en el siglo XX (por decenios);
   nacimientos, defunciones, crecimiento natural.

40. ¿Recuerda Vd. cuándo empezó la gente de su pueblo a emigrar en masa?
SAMPLE SURVEY III

Urban Questionnaire - Personal

Indicate name of urban centre where survey was taken as follows:

Barrio....

Distrito....

Partido Judicial....

Provincia....
Realizando el Departamento de Geografía de esta Universidad un estudio sobre las migraciones, le agradeceríamos quisiera prestarnos su valiosa ayuda, contestando el siguiente cuestionario.

**Datos Personales del Migrante**

1. Nombre.
2. Sexo.
3. Edad.
4. Estado civil.
5. Lugar de nacimiento: pueblo provínica.

6. ¿Qué número de familiares mantiene Vd. en el pueblo?

7. ¿Qué relación tienen esos familiares con Vd.? Incluya por favor detalles de: nombre, sexo, edad, estado civil, lugar de nacimiento, relación que tiene cada uno de ellos con Vd.

8. ¿Qué número de familiares mantiene Vd. aquí en esta ciudad?

9. ¿Qué relación tienen esos familiares con Vd.? Incluya por favor detalles de: nombre, sexo, edad, estado civil, lugar de nacimiento, relación que tiene cada uno de ellos con Vd.

10. ¿Qué clase de trabajo tuvo Vd. en el pueblo? Era trabajo fijo o eventual?

11. En el caso que Vd. tuviera trabajo eventual en el pueblo, cuántos meses estuvo Vd. en paro?

12. ¿Sabe Vd. leer?

13. ¿Qué clase de educación ha tenido Vd. primaria o secundaria?
14. ¿Qué clase de trabajo tiene Vd. ahora?

15. ¿Es trabajo fijo o eventual?

Motivos de emigración

16. ¿Por qué razón o razones ha emigrado Vd.:
   a) ayudar a la familia,
   b) mejorar el salario,
   c) para ahorrar,
   d) por trabajo mal remunerado,
   e) por mejorar la educación de los hijos,
   f) por adquirir una vivienda,
   g) por tener trabajo seguro, no eventual,
   h) por convertirse en trabajador independiente,
   i) para pagar deudas,
   j) por razones de paro permanente,
   k) por problemas familiares,
   l) por ser desagradables las relaciones en su trabajo,
   m) por motivos de salud,
   n) por razones políticas,
   o) para estar con algún miembro de la familia,
   p) por cualquier otra razón?

17. En su opinión, ¿qué le influyó más para emigrar:
   a) el consejo de familiares o conocidos,
   b) el cine,
   c) la televisión,
   d) la mecanización del campo,
   e) el haber hecho el servicio militar,
   f) por otra razón?

Proceso de emigración

18. En el caso que Vd. no ha venido directamente de su pueblo natal, ¿cual es el último sitio en que vivió Vd. antes de venir a vivir aquí?

19. ¿Cuándo vino Vd. a vivir aquí en esta ciudad?

20. ¿Cómo le vino la idea de marcharse del pueblo o de otro lugar intermedio?

21. ¿Qué medios de transporte usó Vd. para emigrar del pueblo aquí?

22. ¿Cómo vino Vd. solo, con su familia, con varias familias?
23. ¿Tenía Ud. algún punto de apoyo en la capital: parientes con quien vivir, conocido que le buscara trabajo?

24. ¿En cuantos pueblos y ciudades ha vivido Ud. desde que dejó su pueblo natal? Mándenoslos por favor:
   lugar, provincia.

25. ¿Conocía Ud. a alguien aquí personalmente antes de decidirse a venir?

26. ¿Cuántos conocidos y familiares suyos le han seguido a Ud. aquí?

27. ¿Tiene Ud. parientes en el pueblo?

28. ¿Tiene Ud. parientes en otra ciudad grande o capital de España? ¿Dónde, por favor?

29. ¿Tiene Ud. bienes o tierras en el pueblo? Si no tiene, ¿qué hizo con ello antes de marcharse?

30. ¿Con qué frecuencia escribe Ud. cartas y va a visitar su pueblo?

31. ¿Piensa Ud. emigrar de nuevo, y si es así dónde?

32. ¿Ha trabajado Ud. de temporada fuera del pueblo alguna vez antes de marcharse definitivamente? ¿Dónde, por favor y qué clase de trabajo hizo?

33. ¿Ha vivido Ud. en el extranjero alguna vez? ¿Dónde, por favor y qué clase de trabajo hizo?

34. ¿Piensa Ud. volver a vivir en el pueblo alguna vez? ¿Cree Ud. que podrá hacerse de nuevo fácilmente a la vida del pueblo?

Asimilación económica

35. ¿Le fue difícil encontrar trabajo aquí?

36. ¿Cómo lo consiguió?

37. ¿Ha mudado Ud. de trabajo muy a menudo?

38. ¿Está Ud. contento con su colocación actual?
39. ¿ Espera conseguir mejor puesto de trabajo?

40. ¿ Trabaja su señora? ¿ En qué?

41. ¿ Trabajan sus hijos? ¿ En qué?

42. ¿ Trabajan otros miembros de su familia que viven con Vd.? 

43. ¿ Cuánto ganaba Vd. a la semana o al mes en el pueblo?

44. ¿ Qué ingreso total tenían Vds. en su casa cuando vivían en el pueblo?

45. ¿ Cuánto ganan Vds. a la semana o al mes aquí en la ciudad?

46. ¿ Qué ingreso total tienen Vds. en su casa aquí en la ciudad?

47. Indique Vd. cuáles de los siguientes artículos tenía en el pueblo o los ha comprado aquí:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>En el pueblo</th>
<th>En la ciudad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) reloj de pulsera</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) bicicleta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) moto</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) coche</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) radio</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>f) televisión</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>g) lavadora</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) máquina de coser</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) frigorífico</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

48. ¿ Dónde vivió Vd. cuando llegó aquí?

49. Denos detalles de su vivienda actual: realquilado chabola piso.

50. ¿ Cuántas habitaciones tiene su casa actual?

51. ¿ Lo comparte con alguna otra familia?

52. ¿ Cuántas personas en total viven juntos?

53. Indique cuáles de los siguientes servicios tiene su vivienda:

| a) electricidad, |
| b) agua corriente, |
| c) baño o ducha, |
| d) servicios higiénicos modernos. |
54. ¿ Tenía Vd. algún seguro social en el pueblo?

55. ¿ Qué clase de enseñanza tuvieron sus hijos en el pueblo y qué en la ciudad?

56. ¿ Qué clase de enseñanza tuvo Vd. en el pueblo y qué aquí?

Asimilación Sociológica

57. ¿ Qué piensa Vd. de los nativos de esta ciudad?

58. ¿ Qué piensa la gente de aquí de los recién llegados de su provincia o región de España?

59. ¿ De qué parte de España vienen sus amigos: de aquí de su provincia o región de otra región?

60. ¿ Con quién le gustaría que se casasen sus hijos: con alguien de aquí, de su provincia o región, de otra región?

61. ¿ Entiende o habla Vd. el dialecto o idioma local?

62. ¿ Lo hablan sus hijos o sólo lo entienden?

63. ¿ Cuando Vd. vivía en el pueblo, qué idea se hacía de la vida en la ciudad?

64. ¿ Qué opinión tiene Vd. ahora sobre este asunto?
In view of the large number of references cited, the bibliography is limited to the twenty most useful sources consulted in English and Spanish respectively.

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(254) Ref. p. 122, line 53,
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(3) Ref. p. 136, line 16,
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