# TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION ...................................................................................................................................... 4
   1.1 Objectives and organisation of the thematic review.............................................................................. 4 
   1.2 Participation of Spain in the review ...................................................................................................... 5 
   1.3 Structure of the paper ............................................................................................................................ 5 

2. ASPECTS OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHANGE ............................................................................ 7
   2.1 Population change: Immigration ........................................................................................................... 7 
   2.2 Economic change .................................................................................................................................. 8 

3. THE FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATION IN SPAIN................................................................................ 10 
   3.1 Structure of the Education System ...................................................................................................... 10 
   3.2 Decentralization of the education system............................................................................................ 12 
   3.3 Public and private schooling ............................................................................................................... 13 
   3.4 Funding of education........................................................................................................................... 13 
   3.5 Teacher training................................................................................................................................... 14 
   3.6 Participation in education.................................................................................................................... 14 

4. EQUITY IN SPANISH EDUCATION: THE CHALLENGES ............................................................... 15 
   4.1 Public expenditure on education ......................................................................................................... 15 
   4.2 Pre-school education ........................................................................................................................... 15 
   4.3 Compulsory education—primary school............................................................................................. 16 
   4.4 Compulsory secondary education ....................................................................................................... 16 
   4.5 Completion of compulsory secondary education ................................................................................ 17 
   4.6 Upper secondary education—vocational............................................................................................. 18 
   4.7 Upper secondary education—baccalaureate......................................................................................... 18 
   4.8 Tertiary education ............................................................................................................................... 19 
   4.9 Immigrant Children............................................................................................................................. 20 
   4.10 Lifelong learning............................................................................................................................... 21 
   4.11 Teacher education............................................................................................................................. 22 
   4.12 Conclusion......................................................................................................................................... 24 

5. EQUITY: THE POLICY LEVERS IN SPAIN ........................................................................................ 25 
   5.1 Free compulsory education ............................................................................................................... 25 
   5.2 Subsidizing non-tuition costs in compulsory school........................................................................... 25 
   5.3 The grants system................................................................................................................................ 26 
   5.4 Public expenditure on education ......................................................................................................... 26 
   5.5 Comprehensive and non-selective schooling ...................................................................................... 28 
   5.6 Choice of school................................................................................................................................... 29 
   5.7 Support for students with special needs .............................................................................................. 29 
   5.8 Compensatory education programmes ............................................................................................. 30 
   5.9 Curricular diversification programmes .............................................................................................. 30 
   5.10 Social Guarantee programmes.......................................................................................................... 31 
   5.11 Conclusion......................................................................................................................................... 31
6. A STOCKTAKE AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GREATER EQUITY IN SPANISH EDUCATION ............................................................................................................................................... 33

6.1 Curriculum as a tool of equity ............................................................................................................................................... 33
6.2 Teaching culture, teacher education ....................................................................................................................................... 37
6.3 Parental involvement .......................................................................................................................................................... 40
6.4 Schools as networks of providers ........................................................................................................................................... 41
6.5 Raising aspirations .............................................................................................................................................................. 43
6.6 Decentralization and regional education authorities ........................................................................................................... 45
6.7 Conclusion ........................................................................................................................................................................... 47

7. SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS ........................................................................................................................................... 48

BIBLIOGRAPHY ........................................................................................................................................................................... 51

ANNEX 1: SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES ................................................................................................................................................... 53

ANNEX 2: NATIONAL STEERING COMMITTEE, BACKGROUND REPORT AUTHORS, COORDINATION ........................................................................................................................................... 58

ANNEX 3: OECD REVIEW TEAM .............................................................................................................................................................. 59

ANNEX 4: PROGRAMME OF THE VISIT ................................................................................................................................................. 60
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Objectives and organisation of the thematic review

This country note was prepared as part of the OECD thematic review of equity in education across member countries. The review aims to assist countries in developing and implementing effective policies for equity in education. It examines the contribution of different phases of education to lifetime equity and inequity and looks, in particular, at socio-economic, ethnic, regional and gender issues. It is primarily concerned with equality of opportunity while recognising that relative equality of outcomes is often used as an indicator of equality of opportunity.

Ten countries are participating in the activity - Belgium (Flemish region), Finland, France, Hungary, Norway, the Russian Federation, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland. Each participating country prepares an analytical report on equity in education. Additionally, five of the countries (Finland, Hungary, Norway, Spain and Sweden) have opted for the full-scale thematic review strand, which includes a country visit by an OECD review team and the preparation of a Country Note. All strands of work feed into the preparation of a final comparative report.

The thematic review methodology includes national analysis and cross country comparison. Countries prepare a descriptive Country Analytical Report on the status of equity in education in the country. These reports describe each country’s context and current equity situation, provide a profile of equity in education, examine causes and explanations, and explore the effectiveness of existing policies and potential policy solutions to problems. Each report is supported by data, where they exist, on a specified range of indicators on participation, attainment and labour market outcomes by ethnicity, region, socio-economic status and gender, alongside PISA and IALS data.

This is followed by an OECD review team visit to the country that enables the reviewers to analyse equity in education on the basis of the Country Analytical Report, discussions with policy makers at national and regional level, schools, teacher training institutions, researchers, representatives of teachers, migrants, parents, students and practitioners and other stakeholders in the educational system. The object of these visits is to assess policy through the exploration of the perspectives of different stakeholders and through the observation of practice in specific institutional contexts. This involves the participation of a team of experts able to conduct an in-depth examination of policy and practice, and to prepare a country note containing policy recommendations.

After each country visit, the team rapporteur, with the help of the OECD review team, prepares a Country Note analysing the main issues concerning equity in education and policy responses in the country under review. The Country Note addresses how to improve equality of opportunities in education, especially for disadvantaged groups. It follows the key common themes laid out for the Equity in Education Review which include a) transition, access and selection, b) fairness in funding, c) an effective political and legal framework and d) the existence of tools to address equity issues at the various meetings are included in Annex 3.
1.2 Participation of Spain in the review

The OECD review team visit to Spain was designed so that the team can develop an overall assessment of how well Spain’s educational system delivers equity in education, and its capacity to identify and resolve equity problems as they arise. This entails a wide-ranging overview of Spain’s educational system. The visit and the country note are informed by the generic set of key equity themes developed to address equity issues in this thematic review set out above. In addition, the note will examine issues important in their own right, and which also represent significant tests of the robustness of the educational system in the face of challenges to equity. They are:

- The integration of migrants in the education system in Spain, a recent phenomenon which is challenging the education system as a whole, although some say that it is rather over stated and that the focus is rather on the fact that most immigrants with difficulties are those from low socioeconomic backgrounds.

- The low levels of participation in upper secondary education. This is an important bottleneck of the system, with only 57% of those over 16 continuing into upper secondary, while the EU objective for 2010 is to raise it to 85%. This is particularly high for low socioeconomic background and immigrants boys. The different educational pathways at this level are not good alternatives, with vocational education still a weak option, and another option, “social guarantee programmes” or second chance programmes, which do not provide any official recognition and do not allow re-entry into the education system.

- Two other issues of interest are a) decentralisation and the role of the National Government to redress territorial growing inequities; and b) the issue of school choice between public and private subsidised schools. The Spanish Country Analytical Report (Calero, 2005) refers to the “dualisation of the education system”, with a growing gap between the network of subsidised private schools and a network of public institutions attended increasingly by immigrants and kids with low socioeconomic background.

The review visit to Spain took place between 24 May – 2 June 2005. The list of members of the steering committee, the author of the Background Report and the members of the OECD review team are presented in Annexes 2 and 3. The programme of the visit and the participants at the various meetings are included in Annex 4. The review team would like to express their deepest appreciation to the national coordinators, José Pérez Iruela, and Jesus Cerdán, to the author of the Country Analytical Report, Jorge Calero and to the wide range of officials and individuals involved in the visit. Their participation and commitment in the various aspects of the visit and in the provision of information on specifics, contributed to the overall accomplishment of its analysis of the status of equity in education in Spain. Discussions were open and lively.

1.3 Structure of the paper

The purpose of the review in Spain is to identify how well Spain’s educational system delivers equity in education, and its capacity to identify and resolve equity problems as they arise.

The Country Note begins with a short presentation of key aspects of context relevant to the pursuit of equity in Spain. It then briefly reviews the framework of education, including reforms since 1990. The chapters which follow examine in detail the equity challenges in Spain – firstly a review by stages of education, including adult and continuing education and teacher education. Attention then turns to the policy levers for equity currently employed in Spain. These are considered in some detail. They range from the provision of free and compulsory schooling to measures of compensation and Social Guarantee
programmes. Included within this analysis is a discussion of expenditure patterns in the context of equity. Finally the Country Note offers some reflections on possible approaches towards greater equity in Spanish education. These reflections cover issues of curriculum flexibility and structure, teaching culture and teacher education, parental involvement, the public-private nexus, raising the aspirations of young people, and the work of regional government in setting expenditure levels and performance expectations and monitoring and evaluating progress towards equity. At the end of each sub-section of these reflections, a set of recommendations is given. For convenience, these are gathered together at the very end of the report.

The main author for this country note was the rapporteur for this review, Richard Teese. The other experts on the team, Petter Aasen, Simon Field and Beatriz Pont also contributed to the writing and the team as a whole take responsibility for the final product.
2. ASPECTS OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHANGE

Equity policies are developed in contexts marked by economic and social change. It is important to note these changes before considering the performance of an education system. In the Spanish context, changes have occurred in the economy, in the structure of the population (age and cultural background), and also in social attitudes and participation in civil society. Compared to the years when Spain was making the transition from dictatorship to democracy, the Spanish population today is more highly educated, more likely to be employed in the services sector, better-off financially, more active in citizenship, more open to external influences, and more conscious of the evolving global environment and of Spain’s complex links with that environment.

There are two sets of recent changes which are of particular relevance to the performance of the Spanish education system, particularly on equity indicators—population change through immigration, and economic change through industry shift and economic integration in Europe and the wider world.

2.1 Population change: Immigration

There have been major changes in the make-up of the Spanish population in recent decades. Today foreign residents represent more than 6% of the total population. Spain has experienced the fastest rate of immigration in the European Union (Rodriguez-Garcia, 2005) and one of the highest in OECD countries, with an average annual increase of 13% between 1992 and 2002 (OECD, 2004a).

The largest country sources of immigration are Morocco and Ecuador—countries with colonial links (Rodriguez-Garcia, 2005). However, south and east Asian countries are also important sources, particularly China, which has contributed nearly half of all Asian immigrants.

Immigration affects the performance of education systems in a number of ways. Firstly, there are the more obvious stresses due to foreign language background. These stresses may vary according to the migrant’s country of origin. For example, mastery of Spanish presents a bigger challenge for immigrants from China than from Rumania.

Secondly, the educational level of some immigrant groups presents additional challenges over and above language barriers. Migrant children may be from a Spanish-speaking country, but their educational level may be lower than for Spanish-born children of the same age.

Thirdly, the economic roles of some immigrant groups affect parental involvement in school. Immigrants in Spain are highly concentrated in the services and construction sectors (59% and 17% respectively) (Rodriguez-Garcia, 2005). Almost one in four migrant women find work as nannies, cooks and cleaners (Negroni and Waldeck, n.d.). These aspects of occupation and employment have a limiting affect on the extent to which parents are able to communicate with schools and also on how they understand or are able to play their own roles as educators in the family home.

A fourth impact relates to the geographical distribution of immigrants. There are wide variations in the densities of immigrant populations across Spain, ranging from 11 in 1,000 students in school education in Ceuta to a high of 99 per 1,000 in the Balearic Islands (see Figure 7, Annex 1).

This uneven distribution across Autonomous Communities is matched by further unevenness within major urban centres, which may involve residential segregation based on factors such as accessibility of work and rental markets. Immigrants are more highly concentrated in major urban centres, such as Barcelona and Madrid, whose school systems are thus placed under potentially greater stress. But within
these cities, there are major variations in migrant densities, with some schools playing a very large role in the education of migrant children, and others playing only a minor or negligible role. This unevenness may also contribute to policy tensions within the education system, e.g., between public schools and fully-subsidized private schools, which add to social tensions that sometimes arise in the wake of major immigration.

Part of the impact of immigration is due to differential birth rates as between nationals and foreign residents. Spain has a very low birth rate. As a result, the rapid influx of immigrant families has led to a dramatic increase in the proportion of school-age children who are from immigrant backgrounds (Rodríguez-García, 2005). An example of the rapidity of change is shown in Figure 8 which relates to Andalusia. Between 1995-96 and 2001-02, the proportion of children of foreign residents in that Autonomous Community rose from 0.7% to 2.6% of all school children.

2.2 Economic change

Spain has also been one of the fastest growing economies in the European Union. Membership of the European Union has contributed to this and has significantly increased the exposure of the Spanish economy to global markets and other international pressures and influences that had already begun to be felt in the mid-1970s.

Spain has undergone a process of economic modernization since the 1970s. This has seen major growth in manufacturing industry (particularly low to medium-technology industries) and a sharp decline in the role of agriculture and fishing. The services sector, which is the largest source of employment, has continued to grow, including through the emergence of newer information-based industries.

Major sectoral changes have occurred in the Spanish economy over much of the post-war period (these are shown in Figure 9, Annex 1, in terms of contribution to Gross Domestic Product, based on Molero, 2001: 3). Changes registered in broad industry sector categories ignore significant within-sector differences, such as between employment in domestic cleaning and employment in banking.

The directions of change in the Spanish economy have implications for the performance of the education system. Tourism, for example, is a major source of economic growth whose expansion sets up demands on skills and training in different skill areas and at different levels. Current patterns of participation in vocational education and training do not necessarily support this direction of industry growth and may ultimately inhibit further growth.

Though Spain is today much more exposed to the global economy, indicators of participation in post-compulsory education and training suggest difficulties in adjusting to the pressures towards greater innovation, productivity and efficiency which accompany this heightened exposure. While there has been an increase in the proportion of the adult population who have completed upper secondary education and in the proportion of young people who complete tertiary education, current levels of participation and completion in upper secondary education are below the OECD average (OECD, 2004c). This remains a challenge to the Spanish economy, with difficulties for young people in adjusting to the labour market. There are high levels and long periods of unemployment for young people who have not attained tertiary education.

Signs of lack of adjustment between the directions of economic change and levels of educational participation are the difficulties that university graduates have in finding suitable employment and, on the other hand, comparatively low participation in vocational training despite better employment and wage outcomes than experienced by university graduates in their early transition to work (OECD, 2005a).
As with immigration, there are regional patterns in economic change, with some Autonomous Communities responding more quickly than others to the incentives of European integration and the global economy. Where economic growth has been weaker and where employment remains centred on traditional industries and regional or national markets, participation in upper secondary education also tends to be weaker (OECD, 2005a). However, a strong growth industry, such as tourism, can also depress participation or at least attendance and graduation because it creates many jobs and ready income and has disruptive seasonal employment patterns.

While the Spanish economy has grown rapidly on the basis of long-term modernization and subsequent integration in the European Union, there are important differences in the industry structure of the employed workforce which need to be kept in mind when comparing Spain’s educational performance with other European countries (or other member countries of the OECD) (see Figure 10, Annex 1, based on Chislett nd).

Spain employs higher proportions of its workforce in agriculture and construction (despite long-term contraction in both these sectors), but on the other hand a much lower proportion in financial services and business activity. While there is little difference in the proportion of the workforce employed in manufacturing, this masks the preponderant role of low and medium-technology industries in Spanish manufacturing (Caruña, 2005).

Immigration and economic change are two major aspects of social change in contemporary Spain which bear on educational performance, including equity dimensions. There are other important aspects of social change which have not been discussed, but which are relevant to how well education institutions perform and for which populations. For example, the increasing participation of women in the Spanish workforce, social aspirations translated into job preferences, and family economic and social strategies relating to the use of schools, especially private establishments. Some of these aspects will be touched on in the discussion of equity indicators which follows.
3. THE FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATION IN SPAIN

3.1 Structure of the Education System

Education in Spain is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 16. The present framework of compulsory primary and secondary education was established in 1990 through the LOGSE Act (Ley de Ordenación General des Sistema Educativo). Under that Act, compulsory education is divided into a six-year phase of primary education (educación primaria) and a four-year phase of junior secondary education or ESO (educación secundaria obligatoria). Figure 1 is a graphical representation of the structure of the education system in Spain.

Within compulsory schooling, promotion is based on satisfactory attainment of programme objectives in the core curriculum. The classroom teacher in primary school decides whether a child is promoted, while in compulsory secondary education the decision is made by teachers as a group (Amaro et al., 2004: 29). Where students have not met learning objectives, they may repeat a year. It has been estimated that
about 1 in 10 students repeat a year (see O’Donnell et al., 2004). Age-for-grade (or year-level) patterns indicate that grade-repeating has been declining over the last decade, but remains high, especially towards the end of compulsory secondary education (Calero, 2005: 17, 61).

Compulsory secondary education is a general academic programme, broadened to include modern languages and some basic vocational training by the LOGSE Act. The curriculum includes a compulsory core, made up of natural science, technology, music, plastic and visual education, social studies, geography and history, foreign languages, Spanish language and literature, mathematics, physical education, and religion (voluntary). In Autonomous Communities where there are two co-official languages, the compulsory core will include both of them (for details, see Eurydice, 2003: 19).

The completion of compulsory secondary education is marked by a graduation or school leaving certificate (Graduado en Educación Secundaria, Graduate of Secondary Education). To be awarded their leaving certificate, students must pass all subjects in the final year of compulsory education. A record is maintained of student progress, based on assessments by the teaching team at the end of each year, at the end of the first cycle of compulsory secondary education, and in each of the years of the second cycle. Students receive a report which contains all the assessment results and progression decisions. It is the school, rather than the education authority, which awards the certificate. Although a pass must be recorded in each subject, there is in practice a hierarchy of ‘soft’ and ‘hard’ subjects, with some easing of assessment standards in the former (O’Donnell et al., 2004).

Students who fail to receive their Graduado obtain a type of leaving certificate which records the school they attended, the duration of their attendance, and their results in different subjects. These students have access to Social Guarantee programmes which are designed to improve basic skills and prepare for work.

Young people who are awarded the school leaving certificate (Graduado) may enter upper secondary education where they attempt their Bachillerato (baccalaureate). This programme is undertaken over two years, between the ages of 16 and 18 years. It comprises a common core of Spanish language and literature (and the language and literature of the co-official language, where relevant), a foreign language, philosophy, history, religion (or an alternative), and physical education. This core must represent either 65% of classroom time (where a co-official language is not taught) or 55% of teaching time (where a co-official language is taught). The core is adapted by the Autonomous Communities to the social, economic and cultural context (Eurydice, 2003: 22).

In addition to the common core, there is a range of subject options which provide for a degree of specialization. The Bachillerato is divided into four main “option streams” which allow for this specialization of interests—arts, natural sciences and health sciences, humanities and social sciences, and technology. Graduates of the baccalaureate are awarded a bachelor’s diploma (Titulo de Bachiller).

To be awarded the bachelor’s diploma, a student must pass in all subjects. First-year students who fail more than two subjects are required to repeat the year. Second-year students who have failed more than three subjects must repeat the year. If they have failed three subjects or less, they are required to repeat only those subjects (Eurydice, 2003: 23). Students are assessed by single-subject examinations.

Successful completion of compulsory secondary education also entitles young people to undertake vocational training at an intermediate level (Grado Medio). These studies are at technician level (or “middle level”) and lead to a technician’s certificate (Técnico). Specific vocational training is available in 22 industry areas. These include business management, agriculture, electrical, hospitality, sound and image, engineering, textiles, food, glass and ceramics, beauty care, furniture and other fields. A practicum
of between 300 and 700 hours is required (O'Donnell et al., 2004). The total period of training involves between 1,300 and 2,000 hours, and takes between eighteen months and two years (Eurydice, 2003: 23).

Holders of the baccalaureate are entitled to enter a range of tertiary programmes. These include advanced technical training (Grado Superior), involving a 1-2 year programme and leading to a higher technician’s diploma (Técnico Superior).

Higher education in Spain is regulated by the State through the Ministry of Education and Culture. The Ministry is responsible for national or officially-recognized programmes (titulos oficiales), while universities are able to deliver their own degree programmes (mainly specialist and Master’s degrees). Spain has 59 universities (public and private) in addition to a small non-university sector which delivers specialist programmes in areas such as music and the performing arts.

Access to tertiary education is controlled by the national university entrance examination (Prueba de Aptitud para la Universidad). High levels of demand for university places can result in students not receiving their preferred course or receiving no offer of a place at all (Sedgwick, 2002).

Both the organisation of compulsory school education and the organisation of post-secondary education (under the university reform Act of 1983) represent very significant advances over the structures created by legislation in 1970. For at that time schooling was made compulsory only to age 14 and all post-secondary education was delivered by universities.

There have been further advances since the general reforms initiated in 1990 (LOGSE Act), and a new era of reform is being ushered in through legislation now before the Spanish parliament (recently approved by the Spanish Council of Ministers and sent to Parliament in July 2005). The emphasis and key elements in the new reform package are outlined in the public discussion document, A Quality Education for All and Shared by All (MEC, 2004a).

3.2 Decentralization of the education system

Since the passing of the Organic Law on the Right to Education (Ley Orgánica del Derecho a la Educación or LODE) in 1985, the Spanish education system has been progressively decentralized. Powers over education are distributed across different constitutional levels. The State has responsibility for ensuring that across Spain there are basic minimum programme standards (curriculum and qualifications) and for guaranteeing that the rights of Spanish citizens in regard to education are respected. This is primarily a regulatory role.

Delivery of educational services is mainly the responsibility of the seventeen Autonomous Communities. These administer school systems and exercise control over all non-foreign schools operating within their jurisdiction, whether public or private. The Autonomous Communities also regulate school programmes beyond the minimum structure and content determined by the State. They are responsible for school staffing, they provide school support services, and they provide grants to non-government schools.

Local government authorities and individual schools exercise a limited role in Spanish education. This includes setting land aside for schools, upkeep of buildings, and extra-curricular activities. (For the respective powers of the State, the Autonomous Communities and local government, see MEC, 2002). Decentralization in Spain has meant a wider space for independent decisions on the part of the Autonomous Communities. However, decentralization appears to be more of an administrative measure than a vehicle for enhancing the decision-making powers of local communities or individual schools. There appears to be limited ‘bottom up’ powers through which schools might be able to adapt more effectively to changing environments and changing policy priorities.

12
Spain’s Autonomous Communities differ greatly in population size and characteristics as well as in economic terms. They also differ in terms of the history and extent of their political autonomy. The older Communities, such as Catalonia and the Basque Country, have a longer tradition of self-government than those created after the Constitution. Some of the Autonomous Communities have as few as a quarter of a million inhabitants (Rioja), while the largest have over six or seven million people (Catalonia, 6.3m., Andalusia, 7.4m.) (MEC, 2004b). Figure 4 (Annex 1) reports the total population and student numbers in each of the Communities.

Some Autonomous Communities have a very low proportion of the workforce with post-school qualifications (e.g., only 1 in 3 in Extremadura), while others have a much higher proportion (e.g., more than half in the Madrid Community) (MEC, 2004b: 6). The range on this population indicator is presented in Figure 5, Annex 1.

3.3 Public and private schooling

The 1978 Constitution enshrines the right to open schools (section 27) and the right of parents to exercise freedom of choice of school (these provisions were clarified and further defined by the 1985 Ley Orgánica del Derecho a la Educación or LODE). To ensure that parents can exercise this right, non-government schools are generally fully subsidized by the public authorities on condition that they comply with public policies and are genuinely open and free of charge. There is in addition a small sector of independent schools which do not receive subsidies. Across Spain, about 25.5% of school students attend fully subsidized private schools and a further 7.1% attend private unsubsidized schools (MEC, 2004b: 84). These rates vary by educational level. For example, in primary education, 30.1% of pupils attend subsidized private schools and 3.4% attend unsubsidized private establishments, but these rates are slightly higher in compulsory secondary education.

There are substantial regional variations in the proportions of students enrolled in private schools. For example, in Extremadura only about 15% of students attend subsidized private establishments, while in the Basque Country 51.2% do so (MEC, 2004b: 84) (see Figure 6, Annex 1).

3.4 Funding of education

Compulsory education and pre-schooling for 3-5 year-olds is free in Spain. They are funded by public authorities—the Autonomous Communities and, indirectly, the State through regional fiscal transfers which vary across Spain. About 78% of total education expenditure is contributed by public authorities, and 22% from private sources. While tuition is free, parents pay for a range of additional services and materials.

The funding of university education involves a mix of tuition fees (which are quite low), central government subsidies, Autonomous Community grants, and institutional investments and donations.

In 2001, outlays on education, taking both public and private expenditure into account, represented 5.6% of Gross Domestic Product. Between 1992 and 2001, there was a steady fall in this measure of total financial effort from the high points of 5.9% to 6.0% in the early to mid-1980s (MEC, 2004b: 54). Public expenditure as a percentage of GDP fell from between 4.8% and 4.9% in the early to mid-1980s to 4.5% in 2001.

While there has been a decline in total educational expenditure as a proportion of GDP, spending per student has risen in recent years. This increase has been registered at all levels of education, from preschool to university. For example, in nominal terms, spending for primary school children rose from 2,978 euros in 2000 to 3,172 euros in 2001, and in compulsory secondary education from 3,918 euros to 4,136 euros during the same period (MEC, 2004b: 58). 
3.5 Teacher training

Primary school teachers undertake a three-year programme, leading to the *Titulo de Maestro*. This is completed in a teacher training department of a university. The core curriculum includes psycho-pedagogical aspects, general education theory, organisation of schools, psychology, sociology, contemporary education theory and institutions, new technologies, and a practicum of 320 hours. Specialist work is offered in a range of areas—pre-school, primary school, foreign languages, physical education, music, special needs, and hearing and speech (O’Donnell *et al.*, 2004).

Secondary school teachers complete an ‘end-on’ programme in a university department (a course which is undertaken at the end of an undergraduate degree). They have to be holders of the *licenciatura*, which involves a four or five-year undergraduate programme in their foundation discipline. The ‘end-on’ course is a one-year programme which involves a theoretical component (150 hours), followed by a practicum in schools (150 hours). There are also some concurrent under-graduate degree programmes which specialise in educational theory (Sedgwick, 2002).

3.6 Participation in education

Very high proportions of children attend pre-school education in Spain. Participation rates for children between 3 and 6 years of age range from 79% (three year-olds) to 96% and 97% respectively for four and five year-olds (Calero, 2005: *Indicator 1*).

There is considerable regional variation in participation of three year-olds (varying between 5.7% below or above the national figure of 79%). But this falls greatly amongst four year-olds and especially five year-olds (for whom the standard deviations are 1.2% and 0.8% respectively). In effect, participation in pre-primary education for four and five year-olds in Spain is almost universal.

Beyond the compulsory years of schooling (ages 6 to 16), about 57 in 100 young people attend upper secondary education (Calero, 2005: *Ind. 2*). This is comparatively low by European standards (Calero, 2005: 16), and will be discussed further below in this report. The participation rate in upper secondary education ranges widely in Spain from a low of 47% to a high of 70% (in the Basque Country) (Calero, 2005: *Ind. 2*). Furthermore, the distribution across general and vocational programmes differs from the OECD average, with a much larger proportion enrolled in the general programmes (62%) versus vocational ones (38%) The comparatively low participation at the upper secondary level rests on high failure rates in compulsory secondary education and other factors analysed beyond, such as the rigid structure of the education system.

In Spain, every third young person aged 18-22 years attends tertiary education (Calero, 2005: *Ind. 4*). This ranges from a low of 21% in the Balearic Islands to a high of 46% in the Basque Country.
4. EQUITY IN SPANISH EDUCATION: THE CHALLENGES

In an educational reform effort which spans several decades, Spain has set itself an ambitious double objective: to implement a comprehensive and socially inclusive compulsory schooling within the framework of a devolved system of regional self-government.

One objective has been to have all segments of the Spanish population participate in a common and shared experience of successful learning. A second objective has been to base this experience on the policies and programmes of the regional authorities as vehicles of democratic government.

Under the Constitution, there is a further commitment to freedom of school choice. This introduces an additional dimension which could either favour or work against comprehensiveness of programmes and inclusiveness of students, depending on geographical context and evolving pressures within the school system and external to it.

4.1 Public expenditure on education

The double objective of democratic schooling through democratic self-government enjoys a strong measure of commitment in Spain. In 2002, public expenditure on education represented 4.5% of Gross Domestic Product. This effort has been sustained throughout the late 1990s (MEC, 2004b: 54). However, in a longer term perspective, it represents a decline. For in the early 1990s public spending was consistently between 4.8% and 4.9% of GDP. A combination of tighter government spending and continued growth in GDP underlies this trend (Calero, 2005: 10). The result has been a slowing of progress towards European Union norms. In 1995, Spain’s public authorities spent 0.5% of GDP less than the 15-country European mean, while in 2001 this had grown to 0.7% less of GDP (MEC, 2005: Table 10.2a).

Within Spain, there are wide variations in public expenditure on education when compared to GDP in the Autonomous Communities. Regional self-government enables the Communities to set their own spending priorities. In some communities, expenditure on education reaches very high levels. This is the case with Extremadura. Spending by the Autonomous Community there represents 6.18% of GDP compared to 3.9% across all Communities. Extremadura is a comparatively poor region of Spain, with income per capita well below the national average. High relative spending on education reflects the priorities set by the Autonomous Community. Other Communities may face a different range of demands on public expenditure. They may be more wealthy, but set different priorities. The Community of Madrid, for example, has more than twice the income per capita of Extremadura, but spends only 2.64% of GDP on public education (MEC, 2004b; Calero, 2005: 60).

Given that the demands on regional budgets may vary considerably across the whole range of government services, there remains the question of whether public spending on education across Autonomous Communities can vary by as much as 3.66% of GDP without limiting progress towards national objectives of equity.

4.2 Pre-school education

Spain has made a commitment to a comprehensive and inclusive compulsory schooling between the ages of 6 and 16. Important steps have been taken to build a platform for this in universal pre-school education. Today nearly all four and five year-old children in Spain attend pre-school. Substantial progress has been made in the participation of three year-olds as well. Over the decade 1994-95 to 2004-05, this rose from around 57% to over 96% (Calero, 2005: 72, table a.4.14).
Access to the platform of pre-primary education nevertheless remains uneven. This is true both socially and geographically. Pre-school education for the youngest children is not free, and families are limited in their access to it by income. Only about 7 in 100 households in the lowest band of income use paid childcare compared to 34 in 100 of households in the highest income band (Calero, 2005: 61). This is indicative of the financial constraints on participation in pre-primary education.

Across Autonomous Communities the likelihood of a three year-old child attending pre-school ranges from a low of about 80% in Andalusia to universal participation in Catalonia and the Basque Country (Calero, 2005: 72). These gaps mean that children in different parts of the country enter primary school with somewhat different levels of preparation. The platform represented by pre-school education may be significantly weaker for some groups of children than for others.

4.3 Compulsory education—primary school

Turning to compulsory schooling, while universal participation in primary school has been achieved, Spain is tackling a number of important issues relating to quality and equity. In the early 1990s as many as 1 in 4 children did not successfully complete primary school. These children were required to repeat a year (MEC, 2004a: 31-32, 153, Table A7). Within a decade, this had been greatly reduced. However, in 2001-02 as many as 14 in 100 children still did not successfully complete this phase of compulsory school ‘on time’.

There remain significant difficulties in translating participation into successful achievement, and in doing this across the whole spectrum of the population. For all age-groups, the decade to 2001-02 saw increasing proportions of children reaching expected standards of achievement in primary education as judged by age-for-year level patterns (MEC, 2004a: 153). But the persistence of learning difficulties for groups of children—as many as 11.6% for primary education as a whole—points to the need for continuous improvement of the education system.

Achievement differences tend to widen during primary school as measured by increasing rates of grade-repeating. Only about 5% of eight year-olds repeat a year, but this rises to 8% amongst ten year-olds and nearly 14% of twelve year-olds (MEC, 2004a: 95).

The achievement gap varies in size, depending on region. In some Autonomous Communities, the proportion of twelve year-olds who have repeated a year is as high as 21% in the Balearic Islands, while in others the proportion is as low as 9.5% (Navarre) or 8.2% (Catalonia).

Across Spain, the achievement gap as reflected in grade repeating tends to widen between the ages of 8 and 12. Regional variation, as measured by standard deviations, grows from 1.8% (eight year-olds) to 2.9% (ten year-olds) to 4.2% (twelve year-olds). The gap tends to be wider for boys than for girls.

4.4 Compulsory secondary education

In considering compulsory secondary education, it should be kept in mind that Spain’s decision to increase compulsory schooling from 14 to 16 years is a recent one. While the law enacting this requirement dates from 1990, implementation only occurred in the mid to late-1990s. Some Autonomous Communities proceeded more quickly. However, in general, the recency of this provision means that a wide range of adjustments are still in progress and it will be some time before indicators of equity fully reflect the objectives of the law. It is also important to stress that Spain’s commitment is to a comprehensive and inclusive compulsory schooling. This means that, like other OECD countries which have chosen a non-streamed pattern of junior secondary education, there will be a major challenge to raise standards for the whole age-group. This is evident in the high proportions of 14 and 15 year-olds who have repeated a year. While rates of grade-repeating have declined over the decade to 2001-02, they are still very high—26.3%
of fourteen year-olds and 37.9% of 15 year-olds (MEC, 2004a: 153). They are even higher for male students. For in 2001-02, only 55.5% of boys aged fifteen had reached the modal year-level of study for their age.

The uneven progress of children through compulsory secondary education (*educación secundaria obligatoria*, ESO) is evident in the regional patterns of grade-repeating or relative age-for-year level ‘retardation’. In Autonomous Communities such as Murcia, the Balearic Islands, Extremadura, and the Canaries, fewer than 1 in 2 fifteen year-old boys are ‘on time’ in their progress through ESO (MEC, 2004a: 95). There are also wide differences amongst girls. In Murcia, for example, only 63.3% of fifteen year-old girls have reached the modal year-level for their age compared to 87% in Catalonia.

Unresolved learning difficulties in primary school mean that a significant minority of children enter ESO at a disadvantage. Many of these children do not catch up. Low initial levels of achievement make children more susceptible to negative influences on learning coming from neighbourhood and peers. The transition to secondary education brings with it a more academic emphasis in schoolwork, a pedagogical relationship which is ‘dispersed’ over a range of subject teachers, and a greater emphasis on private study and individual responsibility for learning. Children from low socio-economic status backgrounds and from some minority groups are more likely than others to experience transition tensions and to fall still further behind (see the discussion in MEC, 2004a: 50-51).

A key issue in compulsory secondary education is quality of learning for all. This is the test of whether the provision of a comprehensive and inclusive schooling does translate into equitable outcomes of a high standard. PISA results (based on tests of 15 year-olds) suggest that Spain has someway to go to achieve standards which are both high and equitable.

Spain is one of the OECD countries where, in 2003, at least 20% of students achieved at Level 1 or below in reading. Other countries in this category included Italy, Portugal, Germany, Austria, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Turkey and Mexico (OECD, 2004b: 277). To quote the OECD, “Students proficient (at Level 1) are capable of completing only the simplest reading tasks developed for PISA, such as locating a single piece of information, identifying the main theme of a text or making a simple connection with everyday knowledge.” (OECD, 2004b: 279). Comparison of results with 2000 findings suggests that the overall standard of reading for 15 year-olds in Spain has fallen between 2000 and 2003 (OECD, 2004b: 282). In mathematics, Spain is also located in that band of countries where at least 20% of 15 year-olds are at Level 1 or below (OECD, 2004b: 57).

The PISA 2003 results in mathematics suggest that there is greater equity in attainment within Spain than is true of OECD countries generally. Comparing results between schools indicates that there is only about half as much variation in Spain as in the OECD on average (Calero, 2005: 21). However, there is about as much variation between individuals in schools as is found in the OECD. This implies that the comparatively weaker standard in Spain is fairly widely distributed across the country (Calero, 2005: 21). On the one hand, there is no sharp institutional differentiation of standards—which in a way confirms equity—but on the other hand the overall standard is not high, and this suggests that progress still needs to be made to base equity on quality learning.

### 4.5 Completion of compulsory secondary education

Spain has recorded a notable increase in the proportion of young people successfully completing compulsory secondary education. Before the LOGSE reforms, only about 63% of students completed either the academic programme or the basic vocational programme. By 2001, this had reached 74.4% (MEC 2004a: 48). However, this does call for a major continuing effort at improvement. For more than 1 in 4 young people still do not successfully complete compulsory secondary education, despite the
implementation of ‘diversification’ programmes and the success of these programmes in helping young people reach satisfactory standards of achievement. It is worth recalling that the raising of the period of compulsory schooling to 16 years is barely ten years old in terms of full national implementation.

One of the consequences of poor achievement in compulsory secondary education is an outflow into the workforce of young people who do not have a school leaving certificate and who have limited vocational skills. They experience a higher likelihood of unemployment, especially young women. In 2004, the unemployment rate for women who had reached only lower secondary education was 17.6%, twice the rate for men with the same educational level (8.5%) (Calero, 2005: 68).

While across Spain approximately 1 in 4 young people do not successfully complete compulsory secondary education, the figure is much higher in some Autonomous Communities. Examples include Murcia (32.2%), Extremadura (33.2%), Canary Islands (35.8%), Balearic Islands (32.8%), and Valencia (31%) (Calero, 2005: 69). These rates of low achievement and non-qualification emphasize the challenges of converting participation in compulsory secondary education into successful learning for all students.

4.6 Upper secondary education--vocational

Many young people enter vocational training at the end of compulsory secondary education. To undertake vocational education and training at an intermediate level (grado medio) requires successful completion of the compulsory secondary education certificate (school leaving certificate) or passing a special entrance examination administered by the Autonomous Communities (MEC, 2002: 43, 50). To be eligible to sit for this exam, a young person must be at least eighteen years of age and to have had at least one year’s relevant work experience or to have successfully completed a Social Guarantee programme.

While intermediate vocational training represents a valuable alternative to academic secondary education through the bachillerato, access to this alternative is constrained by complex requirements which are apparently intended to assure quality of awards. From an equity perspective, failure in compulsory secondary education results in a double exclusion—firstly from the bachillerato, secondly from intermediate vocational training.

Although there is a safety-net for low achievers in the form of Social Guarantee programmes, this does not generate an award and does not in itself allow access to intermediate vocational training (only to the qualifying exam) (Calero, 2005: 29-30).

4.7 Upper secondary education--bachillerato

Learning difficulties in compulsory secondary education followed by high failure rates reduce access to upper secondary education. However, despite high fail rates in ESO, the proportion of young people reaching the bachillerato and graduating has climbed by nearly ten percentage points in the decade to 2000-01. The rate of change was especially marked for girls, just over half of whom reached and successfully completed their bachillerato in 2001-02. For boys, on the other hand, an improvement of only about 7% was recorded over the same period. In total, 43.3% of the modal age-group reached the bachillerato and graduated. A further 13% were awarded intermediate vocational qualifications (Técnico auxiliar/Técnico) (MEC, 2005: Table 4.2).

Overall the level of access of young people in Spain to upper secondary education is low by European standards (MEC, 2005: Table 4.1). In part this is because of high rates of unsuccessful completion of compulsory secondary education, in part because of learning difficulties within the bachillerato programme itself or maybe because of a lack of attractive educational choices for this level of education (Calero, 2005: 16). Many young people never reach upper secondary education, and many do not
successfully complete. There are strong links between these negative outcomes and low socio-economic status. Some migrant and minority groups are also more likely to experience these negative outcomes.

Looking only at baccalaureate programmes, graduates in 2000-01 represented 46.2% of the modal age-group. Certain Autonomous Communities recorded much higher rates—the Basque Country (64.3%), Asturias (62.6%), Madrid (54.7%), while others recorded much lower rates—Balearic Islands (35.6%), Canary Islands (37.3%), and Extremadura (36.2%) (MEC, 2004b: 141).

While participation in upper secondary education (academic and vocational) is lower in Spain than for Europe as a whole (MEC, 2005: Table 4.1), the LOGSE reforms created a platform for long-term growth which has subsequently translated into higher rates of participation in university.

4.8 Tertiary education

In the early 1990s, only 1 in 3 young people gained access to university. In some Autonomous Communities, access was much lower. For example, in Castille-La Mancha only about 23% of young people reached university, and in Galicia only 25% (MEC, 2004b: 169). Considerable growth occurred over the decade to 2002, thanks to the framework of compulsory secondary education laid down by the LOGSE. By 2002, overall rates of access had increased to 40.9%.

However, it should be noted that almost all of this growth took place in the mid-1990s, and there was very little change in the period 1997-2002. Moreover, growth was very slanted in gender terms. Young women increased their access to university by around 12 percentage points. Their progress accounted for almost all of the growth in access to higher education over the decade. Access for young men increased by only 3.2%, and in 2002 stood at the overall level reached by men and women in 1992.

The comparatively low participation of men in higher education does not appear to be balanced by higher rates of participation in advanced technical education (grado superior). For across all fields of vocational education and training at this level, there is a close gender balance (MEC, 2004b: 153). Rather, young men are more likely than young women to enter the labour market on completion of upper secondary education. In 2003, 67.6% of men graduating with their baccalaureate entered the labour market compared to only 50.6% of women (see Calero, 2005: Indicator 14). There has been a large increase in the proportions of young people graduating with their baccalaureate and entering the labour market, and the gender gap on this indicator has remained stable over the decade or so to 2003. However, there is today a much higher overall level of labour market transition, and this change has occurred only since the mid-1990s. In other words, it appears that a higher proportion of baccalaureate holders have been turning to employment rather than higher education.

It may be that today’s higher rates of labour market transition reflect uncertainty over the economic advantages of a university degree (at least in the short term) (OECD, 2005a) or over the high drop-out rates in Spanish higher education. In 2001, an estimated 1 in 3 university students failed to complete their programme of studies (Calero, 2005: Indicator 7).

Indicators of overall access to higher education do not reveal social and minority differences in access. However, the evidence of labour market transition following the baccalaureate suggests that the majority of young people from manual working-class backgrounds who do complete upper secondary education in an academic stream do not enter university. As many as 59% of graduates from the lowest fifth band of income go to work (Calero, 2005: Indicator 14).
4.9 Immigrant Children

The rapid growth in immigration to Spain together with the national complexity of the sources of growth has occurred at a critical phase in the history of education in Spain—the extension of compulsory secondary education and increasing participation in upper secondary education and to a lesser extent tertiary education. In other words, Spain has experienced major population influxes just at the time major reforms to education were being implemented.

There has been an impressive response to the challenge of rapid and large-scale immigration. Reception classes have been established, additional teaching resources and specialist language and social support services have been provided, and professional development programmes have been developed to enable teachers to manage the demands of increasingly mixed classes and multiple pedagogical challenges. The rapid inflow of immigrants in recent years has been a priority in education policy. Different initiatives have been developed for their effective integration into the classrooms. Special integration classrooms have been developed in autonomous communities who have had the highest proportion of immigration such as Catalonia, Madrid or Andalusia. These reception or welcome classrooms are special support classes that are based on the principle of promoting an effective transition into regular schooling for those who might not understand the language initially or who cannot keep up with the curriculum. The aim is that the students remain in these classrooms temporarily, while providing psychological, social, language and educational support (Aulas de acogida, aulas de bienvenida, aulas de transición). While clear efforts have been made to address the multiple challenges due to rapid and complex immigration, not all efforts have been equally effective or necessarily well-targeted, and problems of integration and inclusiveness persist.

Additional funding for immigration highlights the fact that the integration of immigrants has received high political priority. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs has recently provided 120 million euros to the reception, integration and education of migrants for a 4 year period (2005-2008). 40% of this fund (48 million euros) will be devoted to education and the rest to general integration measures. The Autonomous Communities will manage this fund through agreements with the Ministry of Labour.

Funding for education measures will focus on strengthening the participation of immigrants in the education system through:

1. Strengthening services and assistance in education such as compensatory programmes, social guarantee and adult learning programmes, scholarships and grants, transport and text books.

2. Promotion of materials, resources and education innovation practices that promote intercultural issues.

3. Assistance to the development of programmes of introduction and information to migrant families, development of information point, participation in schools of parents, interpretation and translation services.

4. Early childhood scholarisation.

5. Mother tongue language for immigrants.

6. Adult learning for immigrants.

While recognizing the strenuous efforts that have been made by the Spanish authorities, a number of concerns remain. Firstly, teachers are not well-prepared through their initial education courses to deal with the challenges of immigration.
Secondly, the targeting of resources needs to be more sensitive to significant differences in the nature of immigrant groups. For example, the language barriers experienced by Asian immigrants are greater than those encountered by some Eastern European groups, such as Rumanians. Both, however, are treated equally as non-Spanish speaking.

Thirdly, it is not only language barriers as such which the children of immigrants experience. In the case of some groups, such as Ecuadorians, it is the educational level of children that is frequently the issue, not language as such. Yet schools may not receive supplementary support for these Spanish-speaking migrant children, even though they may present with significant issues of under-achievement for their age.

Other groups present other difficulties, including social adaptation to school, which compound language problems. In general, a more selective, targeted and scaled approach appears to be desirable to manage multiple and variable needs.

4.10 Lifelong learning

Initial education needs to be supplemented by lifelong learning. There are four sets of influences in the Spanish environment which give lifelong learning particular importance (For a review of adult learning in Spain, see OECD, 2003).

Firstly, the school system does not work equally well for all social groups, thanks to a combination of family background, geographical and institutional factors (including curriculum, teaching, and resource levels). This unequal action makes low socio-economic status and minority groups vulnerable to unemployment and poverty and prevents them from playing a full role in Spanish society. The integration of immigrant children in Spanish schools is a major challenge, but this has to be addressed at the same time as the challenge of equity for children who are disadvantaged by their poverty or low socio-economic status. This second (or social) challenge pre-exists the immigration pattern, but makes integration of immigrants more difficult.

Secondly, there are economic changes arising from the integration of Spain within the European and global economy and which require continuous adjustment to skill levels, flexibility on the part of individuals, and innovation, efficiency and responsiveness from firms.

Thirdly, Spain has experienced high rates of unemployment, especially during the 90s, and many workers are long-term unemployed. Some regions are particularly affected by a combination of high unemployment, long periods of unemployment for the jobless, and precarious employment for many workers. Long term unemployment stood at 28.5% of the unemployed, around 11% of the labour force in 2004. Andalucia and Extremadura had more than 17% unemployment rates.

Fourthly, Spain has experienced a fairly rapid process of immigration, involving many different source of populations whose needs and capacities relative to the Spanish context differ widely. Within the education system at least 53 out of every 1000 students did not have Spanish nationality in 2003-4 compared to 5.9 out of every 1000 students 10 years ago, and 19 out of every 1000 only 5 years ago. Half of these new students are from Central and South America and 20% are from Africa. Furthermore, there are four times as many foreign students in public than in private schools (MEC, 2005). The implications for the education system as a whole and for the classrooms and the teachers can be quite challenging in terms of children’s previous level of education, their level of comprehension of Spanish language, and the new culture into which they are being introduced. Furthermore, many arrive in the middle of the school year, presenting significant difficulties in integrating into the classrooms.

Spain has responded vigorously to the challenges that these changes in structure and conjuncture pose. For those individuals who do not complete school or who arrive in Spain without adequate schooling, there
exist many opportunities for “second chance” education. Over 400,000 adults were enrolled in basic education courses in 2000 (Calero, 2005: 22). This should be seen in the context of the estimated 1 million people in Spain who are illiterate, and the 4.5 million people with no formal education (Calero, 2005: 22). This large-scale effort is addressing both the systemic influence of low achievement in school (reaching back over several generations) and the conjunctural influence of immigration.

To tackle unemployment, around 300,000 unemployed people received vocational training in 2000 (Calero, 2005: 22, 63). Despite the scale of this effort, there remain significant regional gaps. Some Autonomous Communities have very high rates of unemployment, but a relatively low training effort for the unemployed (Calero, 2005: 26-7, 65). For example, in Andalusia the rate of unemployment in 2001 was 18.8%. This represents about 30% of all unemployed persons in Spain. But only 8% of the unemployed in Andalusia received vocational training. This represented only 14% of all unemployed people receiving training across Spain—less than half the level that would be expected where participation to be regionally equitable. By contrast, Valencia had an unemployment rate of 9.3% in 2001 and enrolled nearly 20% of its unemployed in vocational programmes. Its share of total unemployed workers was 9.4%, while its share of those in training was 10.6%, somewhat higher than expected.

In Spain participation in continuous education is average by OECD standards (OECD, 2005b). However, as in other OECD countries, the likelihood of participation tends to rise with prior level of education and occupational status. For example, only about 7 in 100 adults who had only reached lower secondary education attended a general or vocational education course in 2000 compared to between 40 and 47 in 100 adults with a university degree (Calero, 2005: 69). Similarly agricultural workers had a 5 in 100 chance of participation in continuous education, semi-skilled and unskilled manual workers a 10 in 100 chance, and higher professionals and senior managers about a 38 in 100 chance.

These social gradients in the likelihood of undertaking continuous education indicate that this area of adult education is serving those individuals who are most well-equipped and able to respond to structural change in the Spanish economy and also to social changes, such as immigration, and to a far lesser extent those whose level of education and position in the workforce provide them with the fewest opportunities and the least flexibility.

4.11 Teacher education

Democratic schooling implies a commitment to close the achievement gap that emerges in early primary school and widens throughout secondary education. This is a very different project to the task of elite selection which dominated European and other systems of secondary education up until the 1960s. At that time, only a minority of young people completed school, they studied an exclusively academic programme, and they represented the student corps from which the next generation of teachers would be drawn. To which epoch does teacher training belong today?

In Spain, initial teacher training is under reform (see Cros et al., 2004). However, in its current form it is like other European systems and reflects the dual structure of school education that existed before the arrival of mass secondary education.

Primary school teachers are trained through an undergraduate degree programme which incorporates practical experience. It is focussed on the child, but the child conceived in general rather than in contextual terms (which child? where?). Secondary school teachers are essentially university graduates in various disciplines who have completed an ‘add on’ course, including a practicum, and who have passed the Pedagogical Aptitude Certificate (CAP) (see Vallejo, Gordo and Prieto, 2003). Secondary teacher training is focussed on the subject or academic discipline, conceived as a hierarchical body of knowledge, the social context of whose acquisition is irrelevant. As has been observed by the OECD review, Attracting,
developing and retaining effective teachers (Cros et al., 2004: §24-25), “Spain maintains two distinct systems of initial training, and attempts are currently being made to improve them: these two systems produce, respectively, _maestros_ for primary education and _profesores_ for secondary schools…For most of the partners involved in this training it is clear…that these two approaches to initial education are inadequate in different ways: while the training of _maestros_ falls short in terms of practical experience and academic knowledge, training for _profesores_ at the secondary level concentrates more on the knowledge needed to pursue a scientific career than on knowledge and competencies needed to be an effective secondary teacher.”

This traditional division works against the unitary ideal of a compulsory schooling which is comprehensive and inclusive. Secondary school teachers are placed in a situation in which they must manage the needs of young people from whom they separated socially and academically in their time as students when they progressed through to university. They have returned to school as subject experts, as bearers of the academic culture in which they were steeped, but which is foreign to a great many young people now seeking to complete school today.

There is great stability in the Spanish teaching force in terms of longevity of careers and low overall rates of turnover (Vallejo, Gordo and Prieto, 2003: 76). While this means that there is a deep pool of professional experience, it also underlines the risk of cultural inertia through poorly adapted teacher education. The corollaries of this poor institutional adaptation are malaise in older teachers and disenchantment amongst the young.

Every fourth teacher in a Spanish public school seeks a transfer, though only 2-7% actually get new places (Vallejo, Gordo and Prieto, 2003: 54). There is a widely held view amongst secondary school teachers that their initial pedagogical training for the CAP was of very limited use (Vallejo, Gordo and Prieto 2003: 19). Their undergraduate studies are seen as being oriented more to producing future scientists and scholars than teachers (Cros et al., 2004: 8). There is also a perception that while promotion requires participation in professional development courses, secondary teachers are less committed to continuous training than their primary counterparts. This is consistent with a pattern of disappointed hopes which may translate into reduced expectations for pupils in contexts where the sense of cultural dissonance is greatest.

The academic conservatism of secondary teacher education—knowledge-centred, context-insensitive, teacher-centred—favours classroom practice which is equally conservative. The teacher has been trained in his or her undergraduate years to focus on concepts, principles, theory and rules, and to study in a relatively unsupervised and independent fashion (Calero, 2005: 31; Teese and Polesel, 2003: 95-117). The emphasis on abstract and private learning enters classrooms which today accommodate the whole of the age-group. Moreover, the high level of social selection which operates through this system of cultural transmission ensures that most students in compulsory secondary education will be taught by men and women with limited understanding of student home background and culture.

While there are high quality professional development programmes in Spain and high demand for them (Vallejo _et al._, 2003: 88; Cros _et al._, 2004: 10-11), the six-year routine of in-service training will not in itself reduce the formidable barriers to equity in student achievement posed by a cultural model of educational transmission that predates the reforms of school education.

This is a tension which teachers themselves experience. For they feel that the gift of learning which they bring is too often rejected. They are ambivalent about their own role in adverse social settings in which their gift is rejected and where they in turn reject the gift that children learning should be to them. But they have not had the opportunity to confront and resolve this tension during their university years and there are too few links between university and professional development programmes to manage the tension ‘on the job’. The visitor to a Spanish classroom will often see many different faces and will hear
many different languages. The teacher has to bring all these children together in a common programme and with high expectations about where the programme will lead. But the teachers have been educated along older lines, on the assumption of a much more homogeneous classroom, and have not been specifically prepared to manage the complexity of issues which mixed comprehensive classrooms introduced during the 90s by the LOGSE present, especially in compulsory secondary education.

4.12 Conclusion

This chapter of our report has been concerned to identify the major equity challenges faced by the Spanish education system, while noting the significant progress registered on many fronts. A framework of comprehensive and inclusive compulsory education has been created. Spain has taken the challenging option of educating its children in an undifferentiated, untracked compulsory system. Schools have responded well to this challenge. Achievement levels have risen. Hundreds of thousands of immigrant children have been welcomed by Spanish schools.

But constructing a democratic schooling through democratic self-government is an ongoing task. There remain issues of a widening achievement gap in primary and compulsory secondary education, high failure rates for some groups, a level of unsuccessful completion of compulsory secondary education which is too high, problems of access to intermediate-level vocational training for low achievers, and learning difficulties within the academic programme of upper secondary education. Adult and continuous education offers a ‘second chance’ for many people who did not complete school or who have been disadvantaged by labour market and industry change or who have migrated to Spain in search of better opportunities. But here, too, further improvement is needed to address the compounding influences of social and economic change in a large and vibrant nation.
5. EQUITY: THE POLICY LEVERS IN SPAIN

The education authorities in Spain currently employ a range of ‘policy levers’ to achieve equitable outcomes. Some policy instruments are built into the organic laws governing Spanish education, while others represent initiatives which have been adopted to fulfil the educational objectives enshrined in Spanish law.

The Organic Law for the General Organisation of the Education System (LOGSE) is explicit about the right, not just to free education, but to uniformly high standards of provision: ‘The extension of the right to education and its exercise by a greater number of Spanish people in homogeneously increasing conditions of quality are in themselves the best instruments to fight against inequality’ (in Calero, 2005: 13).

5.1 Free compulsory education

Most fundamentally, compulsory education in Spain is free. This means that every child between the ages of 6 and 16 is entitled to instruction free of charge. The Organic Law 8/2000 extended the benefit of free education to all foreign pupils. The evidence regarding the use of paid childcare underlines the importance of free education. For many poor families cannot afford pre-primary education, and without free provision of primary education it is likely that significant social differences would emerge in participation at this level of schooling as well. Similarly, the financial pressure on families would also affect participation in compulsory secondary education, and it is likely that a combination of low achievement and financial hardship would undermine the access of children from the poorest families to this higher level of schooling.

Pre-school education for children 3-5 years was made cost-free by the Organic Law on Quality in Education (LOCE) in 2002. The impact of this important measure can be seen in the rising and near universal rates of participation in pre-school for these age-groups. However, for younger children the situation remains problematic. There are too few childcare places to accommodate demand, with the result that poorer families are unable to access quality provision for their children (Calero, 2005: 27).

5.2 Subsidizing non-tuition costs in compulsory school

For compulsory schooling, the education authorities in Spain cover the costs of meals, transport and boarding for children from disadvantaged backgrounds (MEC, 2002: 60). However, there are additional costs which are either not covered by grants or are not covered in every region. These include the costs of excursions and other extra-curricular activities, and school books.

In some Autonomous Communities, local government supplements the activities of schools through extension activities under policies of social solidarity. This is the case, for example, with the City Educational Project (PEC) in Barcelona (Box 1).
The city of Barcelona has been quite active in the establishment of educational networks. The City Educational Project (PEC) in Barcelona is a strategic education plan that promotes the idea of social co-responsibility in education. It brings together representatives of civil society and public institutions to promote an integrated education network. Projects range from those focusing on recovering school gardens, to the establishment of an education and immigration forum. The Plan of Action for 2004-2007 aims to: Reduce educational inequities; promote education for responsibility, respect and autonomy; avoid exclusion and promote socioeconomic development.

A specific project which focuses on providing educational activities to school children, merits further coverage:

The Barcelona Educational Coordination Board (1991) was intended to coordinate educational activities for schools. Its mission has broadened, and it now brings together institutions and civic organisations that offer educational activities for schoolchildren with a view to optimize the city as an educational agent. Activities include music, museums, involvement and solidarity, films and art, public transport, science and technology, etc, and are organized through grants or free admission to programmes organized by public institutions, foundations, NGOs and other companies who are members of this Coordination Board. Every school year, over a million pupils take part in at least one of these activities.


5.3 The grants system

Educational costs borne by families are partly offset by a system of grants and loans. These are administered centrally (except for the Basque Country), though are now being decentralized. Most of the grant funds are targeted to students in university. They receive about two-thirds of the total resources available under the system (Calero, 2005: 39).

This presents a number of issues. Firstly, most of the potential beneficiaries of a grants system are in schools. Yet they receive at most only about a third of the total grants. Secondly, the grants paid to university students are spread too thinly and reach only a small (and declining) proportion of all these students (Calero, 2005: 39, 75).

As a policy instrument, the grants system mainly compensates a small proportion of the minority of young people who reach the end of secondary school and advance to university. While access to the grants is tied to financial need, the question is at what level of the education system should financial need be tackled as a priority? It may be more equitable to address the impact of poverty at those stages of schooling when all or most poor children are still in education and when early and sustained progress is threatened by low income, poor nutrition, and lack of books, equipment and other resources.

5.4 Public expenditure on education

The commitment to free compulsory schooling, to quality achievement during this phase, and to rising participation levels in the post-compulsory phases are national policy objectives. However, they are translated into action primarily through the financial capacity and budget priorities of the seventeen Autonomous Communities.
There are very wide variations in public expenditure across Spain. Expenditure on non-university (mainly school) education by the Autonomous Communities represents 3.14% of GDP (Calero, 2005: 60). But this ranges from a low of 1.87% in Madrid to a high of 5.53% in Extremadura.

Figure 2 compares spending by the Autonomous Communities on non-university education. This is represented in terms of deviations from the national figure (for Autonomous Community spending only) of 3.14%.

The gap between these regional extremes is all the more striking in view of the fact that the lowest spending Autonomous Community (Madrid) has twice the income per capita of the highest spending Community (Extremadura) (MEC, 2004b: 6).

The expenditure gap in school education is not due to differences in the size of the populations in school in the different Autonomous Communities. For spending per student shows an equally wide range. In Madrid, public outlays per student in 2002 were 2,454 euros. In Extremadura, they were 38% higher at 3,392 euros, and in the Basque Country nearly double the Madrid figure at 4,766 euros (Calero, 2005: 60). Deviations across the mean of 3,161 euros are graphed in Figure 3.
Figure 3 Spending per student on non-university education: regional deviations from national level (3,161 per student)

It is questionable whether national policy objectives with respect to equity can be met when there are such large differences in public expenditure on school education. There appears to be no agreed expectation about the level of commitment which should be made, for example, a minimum or a range within which all budgets should fall. The fundamental point is a concept of the minimum acceptable level of resources which should be available to all children when they enter school, whatever their location or home background. Secondly is there a commitment to solidarity across Autonomous Communities, for example through fiscal equalization measures, to ensure that spending on public education does not fall below a national minimum?

5.5 Comprehensive and non-selective schooling

Compulsory schooling in Spain is not differentiated into programme tracks. All children have access to the same opportunities for learning, which range over formally specified curriculum areas (see Chapter Two for a description). This means that the same high level of expectations is made on all children, at least in principle.

The setting of uniformly high expectations in very diverse social contexts creates pedagogical tensions. But, on the other hand, it asserts a democratic ideal and communicates this ideal across the school system. Every child has a chance, although the concept of equivalence in different educational levels could be better developed.

In some other European systems, a process of tracking or streaming is introduced at some point within the compulsory phase of schooling, and leads to experiences of relegation, lowered expectations, a
reduction in pedagogical challenge, and patterns of social selection. Spain has taken the more demanding road of comprehensive schooling, at least in respect of the compulsory years.

5.6 Choice of school

Within this framework of comprehensiveness and inclusiveness, schooling is also unsegregated in social terms. Choice of school is guaranteed under the Constitution. But to ensure that the exercise of choice is freely and realistically available to all families, almost all private schools are fully subsidized by the public authorities.

In theory, freedom of choice should provide an element of flexibility to parents to identify the schools most suited to the particular needs of their children. As a result, there is an added incentive to support the work of the school through appropriate parenting and home educational activities.

However, while free tuition does prevent fully subsidized private schools from being social enclaves, inaccessible to most families, tensions have developed in the way these establishments operate. Progress towards comprehensive schooling (extended to age 16) is accompanied by concerns amongst some parents about the impact of social mixity in public schools. Since these schools are non-selective and widely established geographically, they are also the sites where mixity is likely to be greatest. There will be higher proportions of ‘non-traditional’ groups staying on to age 16. These groups include children from poor and low socio-economic status households, children from minority groups, and children of foreign residents. Each of these groups, depending on specific cultural and linguistic factors, will contribute to the pedagogical and cultural stresses that all modern systems of education experience. Some parents will choose to remove their children from mixed settings, and the tendency for private schools to be located in more middle-class neighbourhoods provides a ‘refuge’ role (Calero, 2005: 36).

Additionally, fully subsidized private schools may impose charges on parents for certain activities beyond basic tuition costs, whether this is legal or not. There may also be circumvention of formal admissions criteria, enabling fully-subsidized private schools to pick and choose children (Calero, 2005: 36; Vallejo, Gordo and Prieto, 2003: 36).

Concern over the potential weakening of comprehensive schooling through segregation based on unequal real choice has led at least one Autonomous Community to develop a policy of co-ordinated, area-based provision, centred on educational zones (MUCE, 2005). In Barcelona, regional and local governments have formed an Education Consortium (approved in 2002, but only recently brought into operation). From 2006 the consortium will be responsible for registration, programmes and territorial distribution of schools within Barcelona, amongst other tasks.

5.7 Support for students with special needs

Inclusive education extends to children with special needs. The Constitution lays down a requirement that all such children will receive special support, and a royal decree of 1985 began a process of mainstream integration to ensure this support within unsegregated settings. The LOGSE reinforced the provision of support within integrated settings, requiring the employment of specially qualified staff (see Carro, 1997).

Spanish education authorities employ a range of specialist staff to assist schools in developing appropriate learning programmes for children with special needs. Schools are supported by psychopedagogical teams which offer specialist assessment and advice on learning plans. Specialist teams include speech therapists, audiologists, psychologists, social workers, pedagogical consultants, and guidance counsellors. They are maintained by the regional education authorities and support clusters of schools.
5.8 Compensatory education programmes

Spanish education authorities fund a range of programmes which target disadvantages experienced by different groups of the school population. The programmes tackle socio-cultural disadvantage in urban areas, problems of rurality and isolation, immigration, cultural minority experiences, transience (in the case of children of itinerant workers), issues for children in judicial or health institutional care, truancy, and retardation (see Calero, 2005: 77).

Given the different sources or forms of disadvantage addressed by these programmes, they are of varying relevance and emphasis across the Autonomous Communities. However, there is also wide variation in funding of them which appears to be unrelated to the intensity of disadvantage.

For example, Extremadura is a region with low per capita income, a fairly high proportion of the population living in rural towns or villages, and high rates of under-achievement in compulsory secondary education (MEC, 2004b: 6; Calero, 2005: 69). However, the Autonomous Community does not make specific funding provision for compensatory programmes, possibly relying on funds for this purpose through the Ministry of Education and Science. By contrast, Andalusia, which has greater income per capita—but still well below the national average—spends 1.15% of its GDP on these programmes.

No doubt these two Autonomous Communities face a different range of challenges to compensate for disadvantage (e.g., rurality in Extremadura, immigration in Andalusia). But if student attainment were the sole guide to expected levels of compensatory funding, then the specific expenditure commitment of the Autonomous Communities would look very different. This assumes that there are equitable fiscal transfers from central to regional government to support low-income communities and ensure that regional government can make an effort proportional to the equity challenge.

5.9 Curricular diversification programmes

The LOGSE recognized that increasing the phase of compulsory schooling to 16 years of age would require flexibility in school programmes and more intensive use of teaching resources to combat low achievement. Programmes of curriculum diversification (Programas de Diversificación Curricular, PDC) operate over the final two years of compulsory secondary education. These are designed by schools themselves and are intended to improve basic attainment against mainstream educational objectives.

In 2001, an estimated 25.6% of students across Spain did not attain the objectives of compulsory secondary education (Calero, 2005: 30). In some Autonomous Communities, under-achievers represented a still larger group, e.g., Valencia (31%), Extremadura (33.2%), Murcia (32.2%) (Calero, 2005: 69). There is thus considerable scope for school-based intervention programmes, such as the PDC. For these adapt the curriculum to individual needs and provide a high concentration of teaching support through smaller classes (PDC classes are set at a maximum of 15 pupils).

Curriculum diversification programmes have proved to be a successful equity tool. For almost three in four students who participate in them do successfully attain the learning objectives set down for compulsory secondary education (MEC, 2004a: 53). Successful students receive the school leaving certificate, which in turn enables them to continue in post-compulsory secondary education. However, programmes involving partial withdrawal from mainstream classes should in the long term be replaced by more integrated curricula and differentiated teaching approaches to ensure that all students are exposed to the same high level of objectives.

While there is substantial scope for PDC programmes, participation in them is limited to levels well below the estimated level of under-achievement. Moreover, the participation rates do not align well with the relative rates of low achievement in the Autonomous Communities. For example, while Valencia has a
fail rate in compulsory secondary education of 31%, only 4.6% of its students participated in diversity programmes in 2001-02 (MEC, 2004b: 130). This was well below the national level of 6.4%. In Asturias, by contrast, only 14.2% of students failed the objectives of ESO in 2001, but 10.6% of students participated in diversity programmes.

5.10 Social Guarantee programmes

Unlike diversity programmes—which aim to restore students to learning standards set for compulsory secondary education—Social Guarantee programmes provide a safety-net for low achievement in the way of basic education and vocational training. Students receive intensive teaching support through reduced class sizes and a higher allocation of teachers (Calero, 2005: 29).

There were 48,000 16-21 year-olds in Social Guarantee programmes in 2002-03, which represented a doubling of enrolments over the previous five years (MEC, 2004a: 54). Programmes vary in emphasis over areas such as pre-vocational training, vocational training linked to employment contracts, and workshop-based vocational training. It is mainly young people from working-class families who receive support through these programmes. They represent about 70% of participants (Calero, 2005: 30).

While the take-up of Social Guarantee programmes has been strong—due partly to the range of agencies which receive funding to provide them—there are several limitations in their current operation. Firstly, they do not lead to a formal qualification. This means that students who succeed in them remain excluded from the vocational programmes in post-compulsory secondary education. Secondly, there is no bridge back to the learning objectives of ESO, possibly through additional programmes or modules. This risks stigmatizing participation as a low status option, a kind of ‘dead end’, and may work against employment transition, thanks to negative perceptions, as well as limiting access to further education. Specific bridging or programme integration measures are needed both to open the way to continued formal learning and to ensure respect for the successful efforts made by students in the programme.

5.11 Conclusion

The policy tools discussed in this chapter include public funding of compulsory school (and pre-school for 3-5 year-olds), expenditure on social needs (meals, transport, boarding), funding support for low-income families (the grants system), comprehensive and non-selective schooling, parental freedom of choice, specialist services for students with disabilities, and programmes in the final years of ESO (or for older students) which deliver more intensive teaching support towards mainstream objectives or provide compensation for low achievement through basic education and vocational training. In addition to compensatory programmes, there is a variety of lifelong learning options which prevent inadequate basic education from turning into a “dead end”. Such opportunities have been provided by the Spanish authorities for over a decade. Basic and vocational education are available for free for those who might require it, with a broad range of institutions responsible for this, such as special adult education centers or in ICT based modules. Spanish for Immigrants is also available in different Autonomous Communities.

The take up has remained constant in the past years, with more than 400,000 adults benefiting annually from this type of education. Furthermore, in line with other OECD countries, adults have the possibility of recognition of informal and non formal learning: They can take an exam to obtain their secondary education degree without having to undergo the whole course of study.

Both school-based and post-school programmes represent a very significant commitment to equity in Spanish education and show a strong determination to achieve quality outcomes for all children and young people. There is scope for improvements in the application of these policy instruments and also for
additional measures which will reinforce efforts towards equity built on quality. These are discussed in the next chapter.
6. A STOCKTAKE AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GREATER EQUITY IN SPANISH EDUCATION

This chapter offers some reflections on future directions of change with a view to improving equity outcomes. The reflections are based on wide-ranging discussions with teachers, students, principals, inspectors, and administrative officers in Spain as well as with leaders of school councils (state and provincial), teacher unions, community groups, and representatives of school sectors. The background research presented in the Thematic Review, Equity in Education, Spain (Calero, 2005) has been a rich and illuminating source of insights into the complexity of education in Spain. This has been supplemented by consulting policy documents and statistical digests prepared by the Ministry of Education and Science and by the education authorities in the Autonomous Communities of Andalusia, Catalonia and Madrid.

6.1 Curriculum as a tool of equity

“our hands are to an important extend tied; to innovate, you would have to untie our hands...the curriculum is too closed”

(Madrid, principal of a public secondary school)

Teachers and principals are wary of differentiating the curriculum to accommodate under-achieving children. This is because they see this as an “excuse to segregate students”, to quote one Madrid principal. They know that they could reduce tensions in their schools—overcome the “cultural shock” of new and diverse populations in secondary education—if they introduced early streaming and relegation into second-choice options. But they also know that this old-fashioned practice offers no long-term solution to under-achievement and is also socially unjust. The comprehensive view has been promoted in the Constitution and in successive laws passed in the post-Franco period, and is not only the view of teachers and other educators.

The point of the curriculum is to raise standards, not lower them. So good teachers accept the inevitable stress that this imposes on them in mixed comprehensive classes where attainment, attitudes and aspirations may vary widely.

Equally, however, it is clear that the high standards enshrined in the curriculum cannot be realized in practice without significant pedagogical interpretation and adaptation. The curriculum is a source of cognitive and implicit cultural demands which assume that certain generic qualities have matured in students, such as capacity to work together, to pay attention, to respect teachers and other learners, to want to succeed at school, to be proficient in language skills and to be self-confident. Such qualities are not uniformly present in all pupils at the same age or time, and there is therefore a gap between what the curriculum assumes and the reality of the students in any given classroom. The challenge for the teacher is to act as a cultural mediator between curriculum and classroom. The teacher has to close the gap.

Closing the gap is not simply a matter of teaching skills. Nor is it simply a matter for the individual teachers, working in isolation behind the closed door of the class. The curriculum needs to be adapted, and this is a whole-school responsibility under Spanish law. Teachers also need to work in teams—to reinforce their efforts, to help each other, to gain a global view of each child. One area in which a co-operative approach is clearly important—this time across school levels—is in the transition from primary to compulsory secondary education. At a local level, this can be addressed through exchanges of staff on short periods, so that secondary teachers get to understand at a practical level the challenges which primary
school teachers face, and so that primary teachers can have a practical appreciation of the demands which children will encounter when they enter secondary school.

Interviews with some teachers and parents suggest that at present there is either too little flexibility available to schools to adapt the curriculum or there is a lack of willingness or at least of confidence on the part of teachers in using the flexibility that is legally available to them.

An example of legal inflexibility is the inability of schools to offer programmes of cultural diversity in the second year of compulsory secondary education (example raised by a school principal). Another example are the compulsory requirements of a second foreign language option throughout ESO and classical culture for at least two years in the second cycle (Eurydice, 2003: 19). These requirements have significant implications regarding which teachers are employed by a school and how they are employed. Although such requirements may be eminently defensible in terms of the high standards that the curriculum should contain, there is a question whether in all social settings they can be effectively pursued at the same time and at the same pace and whether they represent a justifiable commitment of resources in the context of other learning objectives, particularly when basic learning is uneven. The significance of this can be seen in the fact that students who fail their ESO have no choice but the Social Guarantee programme. This does not generate an award. The risks associated with curriculum inflexibility are high, given that some 25% of young people will fail compulsory secondary education.

### Box 2. Promoting vocational aspirations for disadvantaged students: UFIL Puerta Bonita

Social guarantee programmes aim at promoting the professional development of disadvantaged at-risk youth through the acquisition of basic skills, specific vocational training and the improvement of general knowledge and behaviour. Programmes focus on training and insertion into the labour market and may last from 11 months to 2 years. The UFIL Puerta Bonita in Madrid focuses on vocational training for cooking assistants, gardeners and carpenters. Students receive basic skills training in language, maths, science, or other subjects with direct relevance to their jobs, and receive mentoring and guidance towards employment and behaviour. They receive a monthly stipend (3,79 euros daily) and the second year includes intensive internships in companies. Most of the students we met during the visit to this UFIL had employment offers even before having finalized the course. The employer in which many were doing their internship highlighted the fact that they were extremely well trained and he would hire most of the students who would come out of the gardening programme. The biggest problem of these programmes is the fact that they don't receive a formal degree and thus may have difficulty integrating in the labour market over the long run.

*Source: Visit to UFIL Puerta Bonita, Madrid, June 2005.*

A further example is the limited place of vocational education in the ESO curriculum. Schools do not want to retreat to the decades before the LOGSE when there was early streaming into a vocational track. But they are concerned that programme rules prevent them from making greater use of vocational learning. For vocational learning, through their practical focus and social approach to learning, have important psycho-cultural benefits. They can engage student interest, improve motivation for more academic subjects, and raise student self-esteem. They can give students experiences of success on the basis of which more academic demands can be made on them.

To make the curriculum a tool of equity—a means of raising cognitive demands on *all* children—much greater confidence must be placed in schools to vary the content of classroom instruction, to change approaches, to alter the pace, to experiment with learning outside the traditional style classroom, and in general to respond to the two key aspects of learning style most valued by adolescents—meaning through practicality, learning through sharing (Teese and Polesel, 2003: 95-117).
Current schools can only manage the challenge of cultural diversity in ESO by grouping practices. They do not have curriculum solutions or other equivalent alternatives available to them, only the capacity to filter the demands of the curriculum by placing strong students with strong, and weak with weak.

The practice of grade-repeating needs to be seen in this context. There is less need for grade-repeating when there is greater school autonomy in curriculum. For students who are learning at different rates and whose interests vary have more differentiated opportunities to achieve success and teachers have more program tools to manage diversity. The evidence cited earlier in this report shows that while overall rates of grade-repeating remain high during the compulsory secondary education years, they have been falling. International research supports the policy perception underlying this trend that grade-repeating in itself does not increase student readiness to learn or raise academic achievement (see Norton, 1990; Walters and Borgers, 1995). Research studies suggest, on the contrary, that grade-repeating increases the probability of early leaving or abandonment of education rather than restoring chances (Perrot and Orivel, 1989).

“our programmes are too abstract”

(Seville, senior teacher in a secondary school serving a poor area)

Comprehensiveness and inclusiveness are viewed in Spain as attributes of compulsory schooling. The legal requirement to attend school till 16 acts as a conceptual and a policy bar on how the post-compulsory years are viewed. But should equity stop at the end of compulsory school? And isn’t it the case that by renouncing equity in the post-compulsory years, the cognitive demands of the most prestigious strands of those years—the bachillerato—will extend downwards into the compulsory years in search of sound preparation and weaken equity in those years, too?

The curriculum of the post-compulsory years is split into the bachillerato, with its four main divisions, and middle-level vocational training, with a suite of options. The academic side is heavily prescribed. It offers schools very little flexibility. It is also fairly narrow for an academic curriculum in the twenty-first century. It is largely theoretical. It does not contain significant strands of applied learning which would open it up to a wider range of students.

Significantly it places an emphasis on cultural conservation (e.g., in the teaching of Latin) in the context of widespread social and economic changes which would stress intellectual growth through other equally demanding options, including living languages, where the pursuit of uniformly high standards should be a priority. Spain runs the risk of disadvantaging its young people if more attention is not given to the teaching of modern languages, and specifically of creating disadvantages for those young people who do not have tertiary-educated parents who speak English and other foreign languages. See the “Common Framework of Reference for Languages” and the European Union Council Resolution of November 2001 for validation of language competencies (Council of Europe, 2002).

Middle-level vocational training is considered by practitioners to be of a high standard. But its perception amongst families is apparently weaker and it does not enjoy equal esteem with academic upper secondary education. It is possible, too, that in schools and amongst teachers, there is a view that vocational training is mainly relevant for weaker students and that its methods and content and not relevant to the organization or content of baccalaureat studies. Such a view ignores potential links between academic and vocational studies and the possibility of improving quality of achievement and access to academic streams by exploiting these links. For example, the study of electronics leads into sub-atomic physics, which in turn is fundamental to understanding chemical reactions. The study of food leads into biochemistry, sport leads into human physiology, metal fabrication into physics, carpentry into mathematics, etc. Through these links, more students could gain access to baccalaureate studies and more
could succeed well in them. Conversely, more baccalaureate students could gain the benefits of vocational studies.

Links between academic and vocational studies have great pedagogical importance. But a rigid separation between ‘academic’ and ‘vocational’ prevents them from being exploited, and contributes to higher rates of failure. In effect, the decision to maintain a rigid separation instead of developing links in content and teaching emphasis is a decision about who, in social terms, can realistically undertake the baccalaureate because a narrow content and theoretical emphasis drives a conservative teaching style and drives out many students from school.

The separation of students into two tracks—academic and vocational—is based on academic performance in ESO. As a large number of young people enter the vocational track, less pressure is placed on the academic structure and culture of the bachillerato to adjust to population and economic change, and the view may be reinforced that the main way to adjust to change is through vocational provision rather than renovation of academic programs.

In this respect, it would be appropriate to look carefully at the progress of all groups of students who begin baccalaureate studies. Statistics published by the Ministry of Education and Science show that not all students are successful in their program. What the published statistics do not show is who succeeds and who fails, which groups succeed and which do not? This invisibility of differences in success rates makes it easier to sustain the image of a high standard. But it blunts the incentive to strive for quality for all students, and thus to explore all possible approaches to inclusiveness in subject design, curriculum structure and instructional strategies.

The neglect of equity in post-compulsory education leads to some negative effects which should be a wake-up call. Many baccalaureate graduates drop out of university—as many as 1 in 3. Is this because they become disenchanted with basically the same approach to curriculum and teaching as they experienced during the bachillerato, which is conceived and administered as a preparatory phase of university? Or is it because they lose faith in the economic or cultural value of university? Or is it because the baccalaureate years have in fact failed to prepare them for independent and self-directed learning at university? Is it possible that university attrition would fall if baccalaureate programmes were renovated in content, structure and teaching? And could this happen without looking over our shoulder at what is happening in vocational programmes, at both intermediate and advanced levels?

Many national systems of education are coming to accept that highly stratified programmes of upper secondary education react adversely on programmes, expectations and teaching approaches in compulsory secondary education, and that there is no way of culturally insulating one stage from another, especially when the same teachers may cover both stages in the same school. How the baccalaureate is organized and taught exercises great influence over ESO, even though teachers complain about a large gap between the two stages of secondary education. This means that renovation cannot stop at the legal line in the sand called the statutory leaving age. Failure to recognize this is to put in jeopardy the years of effort that have been poured into achieving equity in the compulsory years.

**Recommendation 1**

That the Spanish education authorities consult widely with schools to identify areas where there is a need for greater curriculum flexibility to tackle under-achievement and cultural diversity. This might include (a) making greater use of vocational options within ESO as a means of boosting student interest, engagement and achievement (not as a form of relegation), (b) forging links between academic and vocational programmes in upper secondary education to support a wider range of learning objectives and cognitive styles and to open upper secondary education to as many young people as possible (no “dead
end” or terminal tracks); (c) approaches to programme design and delivery aimed at achieving greater inter-cultural orientation and effectiveness, complemented by support for languages, culture, and religion of origin and by reforms to teacher training (as discussed further below).

**Recommendation 2**

That consideration be given to increasing the optional content of compulsory secondary education to allow schools to place greater emphasis on basic learning, where required, and to make fuller use of vocational modules to promote student engagement in learning.

**Recommendation 3**

That tests for admission to intermediate vocational courses taken by students who have not satisfactorily completed ESO be replaced by an award-bearing programme of preparatory general and vocational studies to ensure minimum necessary competencies. The programme should cover the essential objectives of compulsory schooling—and therefore complete that phase of education satisfactorily—but be delivered in contexts which are more supportive of students ‘at risk’ and involve more activities to which low achievers and unmotivated learners better respond. In effect, this would extend to all young people a statutory right to two years of upper secondary education (academic or vocational) by creating a platform of successful learning permitting all to advance.

**Recommendation 4**

That consideration be given to including applied learning options in the baccalaureate with a view to improving student achievement, reducing attrition, and widening social access to theoretical disciplines.

**Recommendation 5**

That education authorities closely monitor differences in baccalaureate participation and achievement on the part of different student sub-groups with a view to smoothing the transition from ESO, improving programme design, and implementing professional development activities for greater teaching effectiveness.

6.2 Teaching culture, teacher education

“regulations governing the curriculum close off possibilities; they deprive you of the freedom you need; greater autonomy is needed and a change in the mindset of teachers”

(Seville, teacher with twenty-five years experience in a public secondary school)

Greater flexibility in the curriculum will not necessarily deliver an important equity dividend. Much depends on the attitudes of teachers, and in the first place their training and selection. Legally there may be more flexibility in the curriculum of ESO than is recognized. But teachers may lack the training and the professional support that would give them confidence to exploit this flexibility.

The impression from interviews with teachers and principals is that initial teacher education should have a much stronger focus on the need to be adaptive and to make flexible use of the curriculum. Schools serving disadvantaged communities need teachers who can initiate and manage “dynamic activities”, to quote one principal. In schools whose pupils are drawn from 25 different nationalities and where 8 to 10 languages can be heard in the corridors, the question is not the academic standard of a new secondary teacher (for this should be a given), but whether that teacher is able to package his or her knowledge into
flexible programmes that recognize diversity in students. The teacher needs to modify the ways in which cognitive demands are expressed to students, without on the other hand reducing those demands.

Besides weaknesses in initial teacher education, it also appears that secondary teachers are less committed than primary teachers to professional development. Their level of participation in some areas of professional development, such as information technology, is lower than in the OECD as a whole, and also lower in other professional development activities (Cros et al., 2004: 12).

Given the pressures of student diversity, it would be desirable to increase levels of participation in professional development, particularly amongst secondary school teachers, and to help ensure through this that there is greater adaptiveness of teaching approaches and of the curriculum in terms of content, pace of learning, relative weight of different components or concepts, and the timing of their introduction.

At the baccalaureate level, where prescription of programmes appears to be stronger, there is even less scope for individual or team initiative and less flexibility for the school to manage diversity.

For learning objectives to be successfully achieved, the curriculum must be sufficiently flexible to ‘release’ or liberate the pedagogical powers of the individual teachers and to harness the energy of teachers working in teams.

“we need good classroom teachers who accompany kids in their itineraries, not just good subject specialists”

(Barcelona secondary school teacher)

In Spain, as in other OECD countries, selection of secondary school teachers rests basically on academic success. Candidates for the Pedagogical Aptitude Certificate (CAP) have had a long history of success—they completed their school leaving certificate, undertook the baccalaureate, obtained their award, entered university, and successfully pursued four years of study in higher education. Their decision to enter teaching may be influenced by a range of personal factors, but the one common element in the tens of thousands of decisions made every year to undertake the CAP is success in learning from books, attending classes, and sitting exams.

This experience sets up a different orientation to teaching on the part of the profesor than the maestro, who will take charge of primary school children. The contrast between a knowledge emphasis and a child emphasis was frequently noted in interviews.

“it’s very curious here in Spain: primary teaching is a vocation, secondary teaching is for subject experts”

(Seville, an experienced senior teacher)

The lack of a stronger pedagogical orientation through the almost exclusively academic training of secondary school teachers puts them at risk when they enter schools serving culturally diverse communities. They have not had a sustained practicum to prepare them. They haven’t had theoretical training in issues of cultural diversity. Their own success as pupils, then university students, predisposes them to expect highly motivated students in the schools where they are assigned. Their models of instructional experience are book-based and lecture-based. They have had no contact with vocational learning. They could “mistake the curriculum for textbooks” (Barcelona, consultant in a teaching resource centre).
Moreover, they are recruited as civil servants. The career and employment benefits which accompany this status are a major source of attractiveness to individuals and also of stability in the teaching force overall. The motive of career security and advancement based on longevity is a strong conservative influence, not necessarily favourable to innovation and adaptation in the workplace. As respondents in Barcelona remarked, “teachers are civil servants in a centralized employment system: they find it hard to adapt”. Their orientation towards professional development activities may have more to do with statutory promotion requirements than with a will to change teaching practice or relate more effectively to students.

“regarding professional development, the school as a whole has to move, take the initiative”

(Barcelona, consultant in a Pedagogical Reform Association)

Career orientation to civil service rules reinforces one of the problems with professional development in Spanish education. It is not school-based, but teacher-based. Teachers choose activities in accordance with their own perceptions of what they need—including the training which, on paper, will help them move out of the school where they are currently located. This makes it difficult to operate a whole-school improvement plan based on common issues, with professional development working in a strategic fashion to change teaching culture. But in any case does it offer much protection from stress?

“teachers feel paralysed by a reality they haven’t been trained for”

(Seville, secondary teacher with several decades experience, school in poor district)

The pragmatic and individually-oriented nature of professional development is not an ideal solution to weaknesses in the initial education of teachers. Too many teachers feel ill-prepared for the role of cultural mediation which they are called upon to play. They are caught between a centrally-prescribed curriculum, which rightly demands high standards from every child, and a local context which presents a daunting range of challenges and which, with equal justice, demands sensitivity, responsiveness, adaptiveness and effectiveness.

While schools need more flexibility with respect to programmes, they also need more flexibility with respect to staffing. The less ‘room’ there is to move in curriculum terms, the more flexibility is needed in staffing terms. That implies more choice regarding which teachers are allocated to schools, and more control over the orientation of professional development activities in schools. But behind this is the need to renovate initial teacher training. Here the education authorities and universities should consider entering into contracts to determine the range of theoretical and practical work required in commencing teachers, taking account of the varied contexts in which teachers will be employed.

Education authorities should not be passive recipients of teacher training, but active shapers of content and emphasis, and they should work towards nationally supported evaluations of both pre-service and in-service training. Initiatives of this kind become so much more important in the context of the low mobility or circulation of teachers which is found in Spain.

Recommendation 6

That the Spanish education authorities give consideration to the recommendations in the OECD review, Attracting, developing and selecting effective teachers for Spain (Cros et al., 2004). Amongst concrete measures for reform, they should consider overhauling education programmes for secondary teachers to provide sustained pedagogical training over a two-year period—one year on-campus study, with substantial school placements in different school settings and a strong focus on teaching and social context, and one year as an internship in a school with a reduced teaching allotment and continuing methodological and theoretical studies.
Recommendation 7

That the content of initial teacher education for secondary school teachers be carefully reviewed by regional education authorities in consultation with schools to ensure a more practical and context-sensitive emphasis, aligned to the developmental needs of adolescents and the cultural setting of schools.

Recommendation 8

That regional education authorities negotiate with universities contracts for the provision of renovated teacher education programmes and for the evaluation of the effectiveness of these programmes. The possibility of negotiating contracts of this kind could be included in future legislation governing higher education in Spain to ensure an appropriate legal basis and also to stimulate public debate about prerequisites for teacher training in the twenty-first century.

Recommendation 9

That consideration be given to allocating teachers to schools within a framework of strategic resource management and priorities and differential need as identified by schools in consultation with the regional authorities. Schools should be able to seek particular teaching strengths to manage their needs.

6.3 Parental involvement

“some students fail because the family neglects them; parents should tell them to study, help them; teachers can’t be there all the time”

(Madrid, ESO student in a high migrant-density, Catholic school)

Interviews with educators in Madrid, Barcelona and Seville indicated that one of the major barriers to successful learning in schools lies in the culture of many parents. The stories revealed a familiar pattern of declining involvement in schools as children grow older and their schoolwork becomes more complex and remote from the education of the parents themselves. There were also many stories of parents not showing sufficient interest or care, parents not valuing education, or not recognizing the fundamental role they should play.

In some cases, the passivity or apparent indifference of parents stems from a low level of education and poverty or low income, with parents working long hours in menial jobs. It is difficult to keep open the lines of communication between teachers and parents when working hours make the parents uncontactable and when working conditions tire them out and make special efforts in education more difficult.

Parents may have high aspirations for their children, as representatives of Moroccan immigrants stressed in interviews, but their understanding of children’s educational needs and their day-to-day capacity to assist may be very limited.

“in Catalonia, the stress is on co-responsibility; families shouldn’t use school as somewhere just to park their kids; schooling is a global project”

(Barcelona, Pedagogical Reform Association)

Educational and cultural activities which bring parents into contact with the teachers of their children and with the work of children in their schools are a vital medium of communication and solidarity between school and home.
Parents often feel ill at ease, particularly in secondary schools, and especially when they themselves were unsuccessful as students and left school early. The activities organized by local government, such as in Barcelona, provide a bridge to ease apprehensions, build confidence, and communicate expectations to parents about the importance of their role (see Box 1).

For children from minority groups, especially those whose children are stigmatized as “lazy”, it is vital that the achievements of children are relayed to parents and that communication is balanced. If the only information to reach home is invariably bad news, there is little chance of winning support from the family for the efforts being made at school.

Moreover, the style of communication needs to be less ‘scholastic’ and formal. Given the educational level and working hours of parents, shouldn’t a different range of tools be used than the traditional report-card and newsletter? Tools could include multi-media videos/DVDs which ‘film’ the school at work, including the children individually. Children at school have to be a source of pride to parents if parents are to nurture the schooling of their children.

Even the way parents are contacted when there are problems to be discussed needs careful attention. Telephone calls to shift workers during normal business hours will not be answered, letters sent home may not be read or understood, or they may have the status of a ‘bill’ to be paid, a threat.

Finally, support needs to be enlisted from employers to show a lead and help out. Will they give time off for their workers to visit the school when there is an issue or simply to keep in touch and show that, as parents, they do care? Will they encourage workers to get involved in school, will they lead by example? Without their involvement, it is difficult to create a community culture which supports school. Education authorities could encourage employer support for working parents through a series of awards for community development or possibly through tax relief for firms which provide verified employer support over a designated period of time.

**Recommendation 10**

That regional authorities in consultation with schools develop model communication and reporting methods to enhance home-school relations.

**Recommendation 11**

That municipal authorities widen the range of cultural activities they sponsor with a view to strengthening community involvement and cohesion and a greater commitment of parents to the cultural growth of their children.

**Recommendation 12**

That regional education authorities enter into discussion with the social partners (employer and worker organisations) to develop provisions for periodic time-release of parents to visit schools and discuss their children’s needs and progress.

6.4 Schools as networks of providers

“increasingly results are coming to depend on what school you attend”

(Barcelona, research manager)
Interviews with school principals and other educators as well as policy-makers and researchers elicited a range of views about the operation of subsidized private schools in Spain. Representatives of private schools themselves complained of excessive rules and inadequate subsidies. But from within the public system, fears were expressed about a growing divide, favouring the private system and based on a range of segregative practices, including rule breaking. Representatives of Catholic schools were also conscious of a potential problem emerging between ‘enclaves’ and ‘ghettoes’. For some of the poorest schools are confessional establishments, located in inner city areas of high migrant density and deserted by the Spanish middle classes. For, in some cases, the poorest schools can be confessional establishments, such as the school we visited in Madrid, Santa Isabel, located in inner city areas with high migrant density and deserted by the Spanish middle classes.

Spain scores high on equity as measured by PISA results. This is because variation between schools in terms of student achievement is only about half the level of the OECD average. However, the tensions created by social and economic change may weaken equity by fostering family strategies of competitive advantage and school strategies of market positioning. Since these strategies unfold within a fully-subsidized sector of schooling—the non-subsidized sector is very small—this raises fundamental issues of equity. If schools are fully funded, what is the range of their responsibilities, and how can this differ significantly from the tasks facing public schools?

If the impact of family strategies and of school ‘market’ strategies is not to split the public system as a whole, policy approaches are needed which strengthen the underlying shared task of all public and publicly-subsidized schools. Differences in administrative status should not be used to achieve positional advantages in a context in which public funds are applied to relieve income inequalities between families and to guarantee universal choice amongst quality establishments.

Policy approaches could include area-based planning and co-ordination, as envisaged in the Barcelona metropolitan area. These plans recognize that there are community-wide interests in publicly-funded schools, whatever their administrative status, and that responsiveness to these interests should be reflected in indicators such as pupil-mix, programme provision, and complete financial accessibility.

To strengthen a culture of shared effort, it would be important for all schools—public and publicly subsidized—to have an equity plan. This establishes goals and strategies to improve equitable learning outcomes and to ensure that the total ‘equity load’ is equitably carried by all schools in a local area. Equity plans would need to be drawn up in consultation with the regional authority so as to ensure that community needs are fully reflected in each school’s commitment.

In return, publicly-subsidized private schools could reasonably expect full parity in access to public authority support services and grants.

Equity plans or ‘pacts’ would provide a more rational and less mechanical or rule-driven approach to filling places in subsidized private schools than the present, widely-questioned regime which is the target of unrelenting family tactics and equally persistent public complaints.

**Recommendation 13**

That all schools, whether public or publicly-subsidized private, in consultation with the regional education authorities formulate equity objectives as part of their strategic improvement activities and as a vehicle for contributing to community needs in the locality they serve. The regional authorities should take into account, on a local basis, the extent to which schools have power to select their students formally or informally, the extent to which place of residence determines access to schools, and the extent to which funding per student relates to relative educational need.
Recommendation 14

That regional authorities co-ordinate educational provision across public and publicly-subsidized private schools serving particular communities or localities through ‘pacts’ which identify the community service that schools propose in terms of pupil-mix, programmes and activities with a view to ensuring equity in the demands placed on schools participating in the public education system and choice of quality provision for all children. In formulating pacts for public service, education authorities could offer private schools incentives in the form of (a) higher per capita payments for enrolling children from disadvantaged backgrounds, and (b) financial support for any services not currently remunerated. However, any such incentives would need to be balanced by how public schools are funded, e.g., higher allocations of teachers to schools serving mainly disadvantaged communities.

6.5 Raising aspirations

“in Spain we need to raise the academic level, increase the challenge...make children more aware of the importance of study”

(Madrid, a girl in ESO in a high migrant-density school)

It is a paradox that inside a system of comprehensive and compulsory schooling, teachers should wield the instruments of selection and segregation. For while there is a national expectation that all children should have a successful experience of school, at the end teachers hand out red and yellow cards. Those children with the red cards represent the 25.6% who fail to meet the learning objectives of ESO (many of whom have repeated a year). Those who receive yellow cards have been counselled or encouraged to enter middle-level vocational programmes and to give up ideas for university, if ever they or their families entertained them.

Either the programmes or the quality of teaching are not strong enough to retain the interest of many children and to lift their horizons. They lose interest. Their aspirations fail (or never form). They no longer see school as the path by which they will fulfil their aspirations (in whatever field).

“most kids want to start work, get money, get out and get a job”

(Barcelona, senior secondary teacher, many years experience in school much changed)

Part of the problem of low aspirations is due to students not seeing meaning or relevance in their schoolwork. If the external influences that favour abandoning school, even before they have officially left—for absenteeism in the final year of ESO can “decimate classes”—the question is why aren’t the internal influences of school and teachers stronger? And why is it that some children, including from very poor families, immigrant families, rural families, do not lower their sights, do not give up?

“for weaker students, there has to be some margin of hope”

(Barcelona, consultant, Pedagogical Reform Association)

One issue to be resolved is the cultural discordance between the curriculum which some schools “mistake for a textbook” (Barcelona, consultant, Pedagogical Resource Centre) and the standpoint of adolescent learning which insists on practicality and sharing of exercises and activities.

In compulsory secondary education (ESO), programme implementation and differentiated teaching approaches are needed to restore a relationship which is established in primary school and which bases
learning on practicality and sharing. Academic approaches to teaching, founded on a curriculum which is “very intellectual, conceptual”, undermines this relationship and cuts off many students. There then follows a “mechanical application” of the rules regarding failure and grade-repeating and the end of the “margin of hope”.

Aspirations rise when students taste success. So there needs to be a range of opportunities for success, not all of which are textbook-based, but which in one way or another maintain confidence and enable children to manage less interesting and more demanding work as well as more attractive and engaging tasks.

Aspirations also need to be supported by peers. This is one of the most important reasons why tendencies towards segregation, either by curriculum stream or by school (public/private), should be resisted. Weaker students need models of stronger students.

Furthermore, curricular diversification programmes as they stand can too be operated as mechanisms for segregation and ability grouping. Curricular diversification should be integrated in the ordinary classroom activities as a measure to prevent social, cultural and motivational barriers to equity and thus improve comprehensive schooling and provide equal opportunity for students from different social and cultural background.

Peer support can be fostered by collaborative learning strategies, such as ‘study circles’ and ‘peer tutors’, which schools should strongly encourage. For these approaches enable students to share the load of learning and provide mutual help. They are measures of solidarity in an academic world which throws the emphasis on private learning—a model which is more a rationalization than a true reflection of the liberal education of yesteryear.

Spanish schools should continue to reduce the practice of grade-repeating and to focus more on program flexibility and pedagogical innovation to expand opportunities for successful learning and thus to lay the foundation for higher student aspirations.

**Recommendation 15**

That schools actively explore models of collaborative learning practices such as ‘study circles’ and ‘peer tutors’ to enhance student learning and improve social integration in school.

**Recommendation 16**

That secondary schools place greater emphasis on differential teaching approaches in which “meaning through practicality and learning by sharing” are central.

**Recommendation 17**

That as far as possible schools widen the range of opportunities in which students can experience success and take pride in learning, whether through extra-curricular activities, community involvement or through the arts, sports, leisure and other cultural enrichment activities.

**Recommendation 18**

That the Spanish authorities continue to monitor rates of grade-repeating and support research into ‘best practice’ in schools to facilitate the further reduction of this practice, where complementary program development and pedagogical innovation obviate the need for it.
6.6 Decentralization and regional education authorities

Regional self-government is the primary instrument of equity in Spanish education. This is because most public funding comes through the budgets of the Autonomous Communities. But across Spain a child entering school can expect to be supported by very different levels of resources.

Some of the lowest spending Communities have both high proportions of disadvantaged groups and high per capita income. It is hard to escape the conclusion that there is only a limited commitment to equity and solidarity in such Communities, though it is important to stress that social change through immigration has come quickly and presented major challenges of adaptation.

A national commitment to a minimum level of public expenditure per student would improve the resource position of the most disadvantaged groups. The role of national government might be to ensure equity at a national level by preventing large differences from emerging across Autonomous Communities. Beyond a basic national entitlement, supplementary funding is needed to compensate for the out-of-school factors which impede quality learning in disadvantaged schools. While the Autonomous Communities do provide supplementary funding—in the forms of additional teacher allocations, regional support services, and some financial aid—there is no national agreement about the levels of support that this should represent.

Making national commitments to basic resource entitlements and supplementary support is partly a matter of assuring that no Spanish child is left behind. But there is an important implication for quality. This is because the efforts made for the most vulnerable children translate into higher aggregate levels of quality through the emphasis in classrooms and in programmes on all children reaching key learning objectives. Equity, in short, is the most potent means of achieving quality throughout an education system. PISA results indicate, on the contrary, that equity in Spain has been achieved with comparatively low levels of quality.

To sustain the commitment to equity (and through this to quality for all children) means that regional governments need to set goals and possibly targets for improvement as well. This will lack credibility if it is not founded on clear national agreements regarding the minimum basic resource entitlement of children and an agreed level of supplementary funding specifically for equity. But once these agreements are in place, regional governments need to articulate public expectations about the quality impact which should flow from expenditure commitments.

Educational goals have to be broadly expressed because they relate to diverse settings and groups within regional political boundaries. But they have to be definite enough to send the right kinds of signals about what the community as a whole is seeking from its schools. The ten-point frame of reference developed by the Spanish government illustrates the level at which goals are set (see MEC, 2005).

Democratic schooling through democratic self-government within the context of national agreements about goals and resource levels implies an evolution in the role of regional education authorities towards more strategic management and evaluation. There are areas of management which are more routine and could be shed (giving schools much greater control over day-to-day issues), and other areas which should grow because they represent a more appropriate and effective use of planning and organisational resources.

Seeking to achieve educational goals involves a measuring and monitoring effort on the part of regional administrations and the regional school councils. Goals for a region as a whole might include raising attainment levels in primary school, improving the success rate in ESO, creating more opportunities for student progress between different strands of upper secondary education (including certification and
‘second-chance’ options for Social Guarantee students), improving social access to the baccalaureate, and having greater equity in access to university and progress to completion.

But within the frame of reference which goals and targets represent, the progress of different groups of the population should be measured and evaluated. It is not enough, for example, to compare grade-repeating rates for boys and girls as two broad groups. The question is also ‘which boys, which girls?’ There should be reporting and analysis of participation and performance of major sub-groups—socio-economic status category, migrant and minority group, rural and urban children.

Moreover, reporting of outcomes should be viewed as a precursor to evaluation of programmes and intervention with support, where necessary.

Through their monitoring and evaluation services, regional education authorities should be well-placed to formulate requirements on the initial teacher education that would be of most benefit to their schools and to negotiate training contracts with universities. They should also be able to evaluate with universities the effectiveness of different approaches to initial teacher education.

Similarly the provision of professional development activities which are school-focussed rather than career-focussed should be a priority of regional education authorities if they are to assist schools to develop the best resource profile for their respective communities. This is the emphasis placed on professional development by the pedagogical support teams in Barcelona, and it warrants wide application.

Monitoring and evaluating school programmes—including specific equity components—also serves as a basis for developing or overseeing the development of local ‘pacts’ between public and publicly-subsidized private schools and the ‘equity plans’ that each school and each pact needs to address.

Finally the sharing of experience across the boundaries of the Autonomous Communities—for example, through the State School Council or the financial and other planning committees or special conferences—represents a major step towards achieving equity at a national level.

All these activities will tend to make schooling a more open and visible process, and submit it to the ultimate test of its worth—how well does school work for the weakest child?

**Recommendation 19**

That the education authorities of Spain examine the question of establishing a minimum national level of per pupil expenditure on non-university education to be reached by every Autonomous Community. One approach would be to link expenditure to the average level in the European Union. The link could take the form of an agreed percentage of the European Union average (e.g., 85%, 90%, etc.), set to be achieved over a defined planning period. An external standard, such as average EU spending per pupil on non-university education, avoids the problems of using a national average and also ensures that Spain’s educational investment at least keeps pace with the European trend.

**Recommendation 20**

That the education authorities examine the question of a common approach to supplementary funding for equity programmes with a view to ensuring a shared high level of commitment to schools serving disadvantaged communities.
**Recommendation 21**

That all regional education authorities set goals and improvement targets on key performance indicators with a view to assuring national progress on these measures.

**Recommendation 22**

That the role of regional education administrations be refocussed on performance monitoring, evaluation, and support through specialist services, with schools acquiring much greater autonomy in matters of staffing and programmes within the framework of negotiated improvement plans.

**Recommendation 23**

That monitoring of educational participation and performance recognize the needs of key sub-groups of the population and function to highlight these needs and facilitate effective targeting of resources and strategies to address them.

**6.7 Conclusion**

This stocktake of equity in Spain has revealed a very strong commitment to inclusiveness and value at all levels of education, translated into a range of excellent practices. We are witnessing several decades of continuous reform to construct an education system which delivers two essential goals—equity based on quality. The achievements of Spanish education deserve full recognition. That there is a case for further improvement would readily be accepted by the Spanish authorities, and hopefully some of the lines of approach suggested in this report will contribute positively to that. These suggestions are based on the views of Spanish educators themselves, but they also reflect the international environment and the commonality of the major tasks faced by all education systems committed to genuine inclusiveness and solidarity. In particular, the OECD team notes the important commitment to equity reflected in the bill for a new Organic Education Law currently before the Spanish Parliament, which carries a strong emphasis on inclusiveness, compensatory measures to address disadvantage, and a recognition of the need to target support to schools in which the stresses of diversity are most acute. Spanish educators have highlighted all of the issues of equity which this country note has explored and are addressing them in an evolving international environment in which the values of quality, inclusiveness and solidarity have acquired increasing importance.
7. SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

Curriculum as a tool of equity

Recommendation 1: That the Spanish education authorities consult widely with schools to identify areas where there is a need for greater curriculum flexibility to tackle under-achievement and cultural diversity. Within this context, one of the options is to develop more links between the different levels of upper secondary education so that there are no dead ends in the system. Other alternatives should specifically consider approaches to programme design and delivery to achieve a greater inter-cultural orientation and effectiveness, complemented by support for languages, culture, and religion of origin and by reforms to teacher training.

Recommendation 2: That consideration be given to increasing the optional content of compulsory secondary education to allow schools to place greater emphasis on basic learning, where required, and to make fuller use of vocational modules to promote student engagement in learning.

Recommendation 3: That tests for admission to intermediate vocational courses taken by students who have not satisfactorily completed ESO be replaced by an award-bearing programme of preparatory general and vocational studies to ensure minimum necessary competencies. The programme should cover the essential objectives of compulsory schooling—and therefore complete that phase of education satisfactorily—but be delivered in contexts which are more supportive of students ‘at risk’ and involve more activities to which low achievers and unmotivated learners better respond. In effect, this would extend to all young people a statutory right to two years of upper secondary education (academic or vocational) by creating a platform of successful learning permitting all to advance.

Recommendation 4: That consideration be given to including applied learning options in the baccalaureate with a view to improving student achievement, reducing attrition, and widening social access to theoretical disciplines.

Recommendation 5: That education authorities closely monitor differences in baccalaureate participation and achievement on the part of different student sub-groups with a view to smoothing the transition from ESO, improving programme design, and implementing professional development activities for greater teaching effectiveness.

Teaching culture, teacher education

Recommendation 6: That the Spanish education authorities give consideration to the recommendations in the OECD review, Attracting, developing and selecting effective teachers. Amongst concrete measures for reform, they should consider overhauling education programmes for secondary teachers to provide sustained pedagogical training over a two-year period—one year on-campus study, with substantial school placements in different school settings and a strong focus on teaching and social context, and one year as an internship in a school with a reduced teaching allotment and continuing methodological and theoretical studies.

Recommendation 7: That the content of initial teacher education for secondary school teachers be carefully reviewed by regional education authorities in consultation with schools to ensure a more practical and context-sensitive emphasis, aligned to the developmental needs of adolescents and the cultural setting of schools.
Recommendation 8: That regional education authorities negotiate with universities contracts for the provision of renovated teacher education programmes and for the evaluation of the effectiveness of these programmes. The possibility of negotiating contracts of this kind could be included in future legislation governing higher education in Spain to ensure an appropriate legal basis and also to stimulate public debate about prerequisites for teacher training in the twenty-first century.

Recommendation 9: That consideration be given to allocating teachers to schools within a framework of strategic resource management and priorities and differential need as identified by schools in consultation with the regional authorities. Schools should be able to seek particular teaching strengths to manage their needs.

Parental involvement

Recommendation 10: That regional authorities in consultation with schools develop model communication and reporting methods to enhance home-school relations.

Recommendation 11: That municipal authorities widen the range of cultural activities they sponsor with a view to strengthening community involvement and cohesion and a greater commitment of parents to the cultural growth of their children.

Recommendation 12: That regional education authorities enter into discussion with the social partners (employer and worker organisations) to develop provisions for periodic time-release of parents to visit schools and discuss their children’s needs and progress.

Schools as networks of providers

Recommendation 13: That all schools, whether public or publicly-subsidized private, in consultation with the regional education authorities formulate equity objectives as part of their strategic improvement activities and as a vehicle for contributing to community needs in the locality they serve. The regional authorities should take into account, on a local basis, the extent to which schools have power to select their students formally or informally, the extent to which place of residence determines access to schools, and the extent to which funding per student relates to relative educational need.

Recommendation 14: That regional authorities co-ordinate educational provision across public and publicly-subsidized private schools serving particular communities or localities through ‘pacts’ which identify the community service that schools propose in terms of pupil-mix, programmes and activities with a view to ensuring equity in the demands placed on schools participating in the public education system and choice of quality provision for all children. In formulating pacts for public service, education authorities could offer private schools incentives in the form of (a) higher per capita payments for enrolling children from disadvantaged backgrounds, and (b) financial support for any services not currently remunerated. However, any such incentives would need to be balanced by how public schools are funded, e.g., higher allocations of teachers to schools serving mainly disadvantaged communities.

Raising aspirations

Recommendation 15: That schools actively explore models of collaborative learning practices such as ‘study circles’ and ‘peer tutors’ to enhance student learning and improve social integration in school.
**Recommendation 16:** That secondary schools place greater emphasis on differential teaching approaches in which “meaning through practicality and learning by sharing” are central.

**Recommendation 17:** That as far as possible schools widen the range of opportunities in which students can experience success and take pride in learning, whether through extra-curricular activities, community involvement or through the arts, sports, leisure and other cultural enrichment activities.

**Recommendation 18:** That the Spanish authorities continue to monitor rates of grade-repeating and support research into ‘best practice’ in schools to facilitate the further reduction of this practice, where complementary program development and pedagogical innovation obviate the need for it.

**Decentralization and regional education authorities**

**Recommendation 19:** That the education authorities of Spain examine the question of establishing a minimum national level of per pupil expenditure on non-university education to be reached by every Autonomous Community. One approach would be to link expenditure to the average level in the European Union. The link could take the form of an agreed percentage of the European Union average (e.g., 85%, 90%, etc.), set to be achieved over a defined planning period. An external standard, such as average EU spending per pupil on non-university education, avoids the problems of using a national average and also ensures that Spain’s educational investment at least keeps pace with the European trend.

**Recommendation 20:** That the education authorities examine the question of a common approach to supplementary funding for equity programmes with a view to ensuring a shared high level of commitment to schools serving disadvantaged communities.

**Recommendation 21:** That all regional education authorities set goals and improvement targets on key performance indicators with a view to assuring national progress on these measures.

**Recommendation 22:** That the role of regional education administrations be refocussed on performance monitoring, evaluation, and support through an evaluation service aimed at strategic improvement (rather than legal compliance) and specialist services, with schools acquiring much greater autonomy in matters of staffing and programmes within the framework of negotiated improvement plans.

**Recommendation 23:** That monitoring of educational participation and performance recognize the needs of key sub-groups of the population and function to highlight these needs and facilitate effective targeting of resources and strategies to address them.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Chislett, William. nd. The Internationalization of the Spanish Economy (Real Instituto Elcano).


MEC (2004b), Les cifras de la educación en España, Madrid.

MUCE (2005), Un compromís per l’educació a Catalunya (Barcelona: Marc Unitari de la Comunitat Educativa).


Perrot, J. and Orivel, F., (1989), Promotion, abandon et redoublement dans les systèmes éducatifs africains (Caen: Journées d’Économie Sociale)


Figure 2. Figure 4. Spain: population, students in education other than university and students in university by autonomous community

Key
- Autonomous Community
- Total population
- Education other than university
- University education

Source: MEC (2004), Las cifras de la educación en España. Figures relate to the 2001-2002 school year)
Figure 5  Post-compulsory qualification rates of the active population by Autonomous Community, 2001-02

Source: MEC (2004), Las cifras de la educación en España.
Figure 7  Foreign students per 1,000 students in non-university education by Autonomous Community, 2003-04

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Per 000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baleares (Illes)</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madrid (Comunidad de)</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rioja (La)</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murcia (Región de)</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comunidad Valenciana</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castilla</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navarra (Comunidad Foral de)</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melilla</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canarias</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aragón</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castilla-La Mancha</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andalucía</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castilla y León</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantabria</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asturias (Principado de)</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>País Vasco</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremadura</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galicia</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceuta</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MEC unpublished.
Figure 8  Proportion of foreign students in Andalucia by educational level, 1995-2002


Figure 9  Industry sectors of the Spanish economy: per cent contribution to GDP, 1954-1998

Source: Molero 2001
Figure 10  Industry structure of employment, Spain and European Union, 2000

Public service
Financial services, business activity
Trade, transport, communications
Construction
Manufacturing
Agriculture

Per cent

European Union
Spain
ANNEX 2: NATIONAL STEERING COMMITTEE, BACKGROUND REPORT AUTHORS, COORDINATION

Spain National Coordinator
José Perez Iruela, Director, CIDE, Center for Educational Research and Development

Background Report Author
Jorge Calero, Universidad Central of Barcelona

National Steering Committee
Alejandro Tiana Ferrer, General Secretary of Education.
José Luis Pérez Iriarte, General Director of Education, Vocational Training and Educational Innovation.
Mª Antonia Ozcariz Rubio, General Director of Territorial Cooperation and High Inspectorate.
Vicente Rivière Gómez, General Deputy Director of Relations with Territorial Administrations.
Pedro Mª Uruñuela Nájera, General Deputy Director of High Inspectorate.
Juan López Martínez, General Deputy Director of Academic Organisation.
Mariano Labarta Aizpún, General Deputy Director of Establishments, Programmes and Educational Inspection.
Soledad Iglesias Jiménez, General Deputy Director of Vocational Training.
Carmen Maestro Martín, Director of INECSE.
Amalia Gómez Rodríguez, General Deputy Director of Grants and Educational Promotion.
Antonio Moreno González, Director of the Higher Institute for Teacher Training.
José Pérez Iruela, Director of CIDE.
Jesús Cerdán, Technical Adviser of CIDE.
ANNEX 3: OECD REVIEW TEAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Richard Teese</td>
<td>Professor of Post-Compulsory Education and Training in the University of Melbourne, Australia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Petter Aasen</td>
<td>Director and senior researcher at Norwegian Institute for Studies in Research and Education - Centre for Innovation Studies (NIFU STEP), Oslo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Simon Field</td>
<td>Education and Training Policy Division, Directorate for Education (EDU), OECD, Paris, France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Beatriz Pont</td>
<td>Education and Training Policy Division, Directorate for Education (EDU), OECD, Paris, France</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANNEX 4: PROGRAMME OF THE VISIT

24 May to 2 June 2005

Tuesday 24 May – Madrid

09.00 – 09.30  Presentation of the OECD team to the Directive Committee of the Ministry of Education and Science (MEC):

Alejandro Tiana Ferrer, General Secretary of Education.
José Luis Pérez Iriarte, General Director of Education, Vocational Training and Educational Innovation.
Mª Antonia Ozcariz Rubio, General Director of Territorial Cooperation and Senior Inspection.
Vicente Rivière Gómez, General Deputy Director of Relations with Territorial Administrations.
Pedro Mª Uruñuela Nájera, General Deputy Director of Senior Inspection.
Juan López Martínez, General Deputy Director of Academic Organisation.
Mariano Labarta Aizpún, General Deputy Director of Centres, Programmes and Educational Inspection.
Soledad Iglesias Jiménez, General Deputy Director of Vocational Training.
Carmen Maestro Martín, Director of INECSE.
Amalia Gómez Rodríguez, General Deputy Director of Grants and Educational Promotion.
Antonio Moreno González, Director of the Institute for Teacher Training.
Francisca María Arbizu Echávarri, Director of the National Institute for Qualifications (INCUAL).
José Pérez Iruela, Director of CIDE.
Jesús Cerdán, Technical Adviser of CIDE.

9.45 – 10.15  Meeting with those responsible for teacher training and evaluation of MEC:

Carmen Maestro Martín, Director of INECSE.
Antonio Moreno González, Director of the Institute for Teachers’ Training.

10.30 – 11.00  Meeting with responsible for grants at MEC:

Amalia Gómez Roldíguez, General Deputy Director of Grants and Educational Promotion.

11.15 – 11.45  Meeting with those responsible for educational stages of MEC:

Juan López Martínez, General Deputy Director of Academic Organisation.
Mariano Labarta Aizpún, General Deputy Director of Centres, Programmes and Educational Inspection.
Alicia Zamora, Deputy Director of Educational Inspection.

12.30 – 13.00  Meeting with the responsible for vocational training at MEC

Soledad Iglesias Jiménez, General Deputy Director of Vocational Training.
Meeting with those responsible of territorial coordination of MEC
Vicente Rivière Gómez, General Deputy Director of Relationships with Territorial Administrations.
Pedro Mª Uruñuela Nájera, General Deputy Director of Senior Inspection.

Meeting with Jorge Calero, author of Analytical Report (CAR)

Meeting with Juan López Martínez: Education Bill

Wednesday 25 May – Madrid
Meeting with representatives of the State School Council
Marta Mata i Garriga, President.
Patricio de Blas Zabaleta, Vice-President.
José Luis de la Monja Fajardo, General Secretary.
Elena Juárez, Technical Adviser.
Antonio Frías, Technical Adviser.

Meetings with representatives of owners of teaching establishments:
Gregorio Romera Ramos, Association of Autonomous Teaching Establishments (ACADE).
José Díaz Arnau, Spanish Confederation of Teaching Establishments (CECE).
Carlos Díaz Muñiz, Confederation of Establishments Education and Management (E y G).

Visit to “Santa Isabel”: Publicly subsidised private establishment of pre-Primary, primary and secondary education.

Meeting with the management board:
Felisa Ferro, Principal.
Mª Jesús Múgica, Pedagogic. Director
Ángela Plaza, Pastoral Representative.
Mª Elisa Gómez, Head of Studies

Meeting with Teachers
Mª de los Ángeles Manzano (Primary Education teacher).
Natividad García (Secondary Education teacher).
Pilar Palacios (Primary Education teacher).
Luciana Alcalá (Secondary Education teacher).
Virginia Redondo (Compensatory Education teacher).
Isabel de Benito (Counsellor).

Meeting with pupils

Visit to the establishment
14.45 – 15.45  Meeting with immigrant associations

Meeting with representatives of the Association of Moroccan Immigrant Workers in Spain (ATIME).

Marian Bejuki.
Ahmed Ben Amin Alami.

16.00 – 17.00  Meetings with representatives of the parents’ associations

Lola Abelló President of CEAPA.
Fernando Vélez, Treasurer and member of the Board of Directors of CEAPA.
Eduardo García (CONCAPA)
Carmen Castells (CONCAPA)

Thursday 26 May – Barcelona

09.00 – 10.00  Meeting with authorities of the Departament d’Educaçió (Department of Education):

Blai Gasol i Roda, General Director of Educational Organisation and Innovation.
Josefa Corominas Baulenas, Deputy Director of Curricular Organisation and Educational Programmes
Mª Cristina Pellisé Pascual, Head of the Special Education Service and Educational Programmes.
Josep Vallcorba Cot, General Deputy Director of Language and Social Cohesion.
Josep Mª Viaplana Leonart, Head of the Grants and Aids Management Service.
Marta Duñach Masjuan, Head of the Programming, Evaluation and Pedagogic Resources Service.
Jaume Pallarols, Deputy Director of the Territorial Services of the city of Barcelona.

10.15 – 10.45  Meetings with representatives of the Catalonian School Council

Pere Darder i Vidal, President of the School Council.
Teresa Pijuan i Balcells, Secretary.

Visit to the Pre-Primary and Primary Education establishment “Pau Vila”:

12.00 – 12.30  Interview with the management board and representatives of the Organisation of the Local Institute of Education (IMEB) of Barcelona.

Inma Estruch, Director.
Mariona Roig, Head of Studies
Trini Font, Secretary.
Miquel Ferret, IMEB.
Rosa Bellés, IMEB.

12.30 – 13.00  Interview with Teachers

Roser Pich.
Meritxell Joan.

13.00 – 13.30  Interview with pupils

13.30 – 13.50  Visit to the establishment
14.15 – 15.15 *Lunch*  
With Miquel Ferret and Toni Martorell (Director Educational Services of IMEB).

16.30 – 17.30 *Meeting with representatives of Jaume Bofill Foundation (Equality and Education for Diversity)*  
Jordi Sánchez, Director.  
Mercedes Chacón, Coordinator of the Education Programme.

**Friday 27 May – Barcelona**

09.00 – 10.00 *Meeting with the Rosa Sensat Pre-Primary and Primary Teachers’ Association and with representatives of the Catalan Federation of Pedagogic Renewal Movements:*  
Quim Lázaro (president of the Rosa Sensat Pre-Primary and Primary Teachers’ Association)  
Ricard Aymerich (president of the Catalan Federation of Pedagogic Renewal Movements)

10.30 – 11.30 *Visit to the Pedagogical Resources Centre (Teacher Training) at Horta-Guinardó*  
Interview with Benjamín Vidiella (Director and Coordinator of the Integrated Education Service of Horta-Guinardó).

*Interview with advisers*  
Teresa Abril, Director of the Psychopedagogic Counselling Team of Horta Guinardó.  
Neus Serrahima, Coordinator of the Language and Social Cohesion Team of Horta-Guinardó.  
Mª Cinta Armengol, Technician of the Pedagogical Resources Centre of Horta-Guinardó.

*Visit to the “La Guineueta” Secondary Education Institute:*  

12.00 – 12.30 *Interview with Management Team*  
Ferrán Aragón i Minguell, Director.  
Josep Noguera Solé, Head of Studies.  
Esther Giró i Tàpia, Deputy Director of Vocational Training

12.30 – 13.00 *Interview with Teachers*  
Ramón Arcas Boher, teacher of Mathematics in ESO and Technological Baccalaureate.  
Silvia Torralba i Clusa, teacher of Catalan, responsible for the coordination of diversity teachers (first cycle of ESO).  
Margarida Calsina, teacher in ESO, Head of the Department of the Occupational Family of Maintenance of Motor Vehicles.  
Yolanda Pérez Riera, teacher in ESO, Head of the Health Occupational Family.

13.00 – 13.30 *Interview with pupils*  
13.30 – 13.50 *Visit to the establishment*  
15.45 – 16.45 *Interviews with Francesc Carbonell, expert on intercultural education, University of Girona.*
Monday 30 May – Sevilla

09.00 – 10.00 Meeting with the authorities of the Education Department of the Board

Mª José Vázquez Morillo, General Director of Vocational Training and life-long learning.
Francisco Martos Crespo, General Director of Participation and Solidarity in Education.
Rosario Gil Delgado, Head of the Service for the Development of the Andalusian Plan of Vocational Training.
Manuela Avilés Coronel, Director of the Teacher Training Centre of Bollullos/Valverde.
Antonio Benítez Herrera, Head of the General Directorate Service of Educational Organisation and Evaluation.
Eladio Bodas González, Head of the Service for Educational Counselling and Attention to Diversity.

Visit to the “San Pablo” Secondary Education Institute

10.30 – 11.00 Interview with Management Team

Julio Jiménez Molina, Headteacher.
Pilar Sarmiento León, Deputy Director.
Antonio Borrego Cobos, Head of Studies.
Mª Carmen Castro Rodríguez, Assistant of the Head of Studies

11.00 – 11.30 Meeting with Teachers

Soledad Pérez Vivas, Head of the Department of Sport-Cultural Activities.
Margarita Castillo, Counsellor.

11.30 – 12.00 Meeting with pupils

12.00 – 12.30 Visit to the establishment

13.00 – 14.00 Meeting with the representative of the group of intercultural education: Juan Gómez Lara (AMANI group)

Tuesday 31 May – Madrid

09.00 – 09.30 Meeting with the Authorities of the Department of Education of the Autonomous Community of Madrid:

Alicia Delibes, General Director of Academic Organisation
Mª Antonia Casanova, General Director of Educational Promotion
Daniel Sáez, Cabinet of the Vice-Department of Education.

09.45 – 10.15 Meeting with representatives of the School Council of the Autonomous Community of Madrid

Jose Luis Carbonell Fernández, Head of the School Council of the Autonomous Community of Madrid
María Ruiz Trapero, Vice-president of the School Council of the Autonomous Community of Madrid

Visit to the Instituto de Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria San Isidro
11.30 – 12.00 *Interview with the management team and the Inspector of the establishment*

Isabel Piñar, Headteacher (teacher of Physics and Chemistry)
Rafael Martín Villa, Head of Studies (teacher of Technology)
Juan Román Rojas, Associate Head of Studies (teacher of Physical Education).
José Carlos Delgado Gómez, Associate Head of Studies (teacher of Geography and History).
Carmen Pascual Hernangómez Associate Head of Studies (teacher of Latin). Gerardo Muñoz, Inspector.

12.00 – 12.30 *Meeting with teachers*

Jesús García Fernández (teacher of Latin, Head of the Department of Extra-curriculum Activities).
Mª José Gómez Redondo (teacher of Plastic and Visual Education, Head of the Drawing Department, teacher representative at the School Council).
Isabel Meléndez Hevia (teacher of Spanish Language and Literature, Head of the Department of Language and Literature).
José María Rodríguez Núñez (teacher of German, Head of the Department of German, teacher representative at the School).
Cristina Vallejo Pena (teacher of Compensatory Education).

12.30 – 13.00 *Meeting with students*

13.00 – 13.30 *Visit to the establishment*

15.15 – 15.45 *Meeting with representatives of students’ associations*

Naiara Imedio, President of the State Confederation of Student’s Associations (CANAE)

16.00 – 17.00 *Meeting with representatives of teachers’ trade unions:*

Carmen Vieites, FETE-UGT
Nuria Torrado CC.OO Teaching Federation
Francisco Javier Carrascal, ANPE
Marco Antonio Romero, CSI-CSIF
Begoña Suárez, STES-I
José Luis Fernández, USO

17.00 – 18.00 *Meeting with representatives of the Foundation General Gipsy Secretariat and the Association of Teachers working with Gipsy Pupils/Students*

Mª Teresa Andrés (Foundation General Gipsy Secretariat).
Mª Teresa Pina (Association of Teachers working with Gipsy Pupils/Students).
Blanca González (Association of Teachers working with Gipsy Pupils/Students).
Wednesday 1 June – Madrid

09.00 – 10.00 Meeting with members of the Regional Office for Immigration of the Autonomous Community of Madrid (OFRIM), and representatives of the Social Mediator School for Immigration (EMSI) belonging to the General Directorate of Immigration, Development Cooperation and Voluntary Service of the Department of Family and Social Affairs

Alicia Campos (EMSI).
Teresa Vázquez (OFRIM).
Lola Alcelay (General Directorate of Immigration).
Manuel Pérez (General Deputy Director).
Concepción Fernández (Head of Service, in charge of immigration).

Visit to the Pre-primary and Primary public educational establishment “Menéndez-Pelayo”:

10.30 – 11.00 Meeting with the management team and the Inspector of the establishment

María Egea Ruano, Headteacher.
Elvira Álvarez Otero, Head of Studies.
Gregorio Guijarro Martínez, Secretary.
Mª. Asunción Vicente, Inspector

11.00 – 11.30 Meeting with teachers

Manuela Tena Gómez (coordinator of Pre-Primary Education cycle).
Rosa Cristina Lorenzo González (coordinator of 1st cycle of Pre-Primary Education).
María Teresa Palop Tapiador (coordinator of 1st cycle of Pre-Primary Education).
Pedro Moreno Alcalde (coordinator of 3rd cycle of Primary Education)

12.00 – 12.20 Meeting with pupils

12.20 – 12.40 Visit to the establishment

Visit to the Training and Labour Insertion Unit (UFIL) “Puerta Bonita”:

13.15 – 13.45 Meeting with the management team and the teachers:

José Luis Gordo, Director.
Ángeles del Brío, Secretary and teacher of Job Counselling and Training.
Pedro Álvarez, teacher of the Operator of Wood Machining Workshop.
Mercedes Arquero, teacher of Job Counselling and Training and tutor of socio-laboral insertion.

13.45 – 14.15 Meeting with pupils, businessmen and ex-students

14.15 – 15.30 Visit to the establishment

16.00 – 16.45 Meeting with members of the Women’s Institute

Ana Mañeru, Director of the Education Programme

17.00 – 18.00 Meeting with the General Directorate for the Integration of Immigrants (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs):

Irene García, General Deputy Director of Institutional Relations
Thursday 2 June – Madrid

09.00 – 10.00  Final Meeting with the Management Committee

José Luis Pérez Iriarte, General Director of Education, Vocational Training and Educational Innovation
Mª Antonia Ozcariz Rubio, General Director of Territorial Cooperation and Senior Inspection
Vicente Riviére Gómez, General Deputy Director of Relationships with Territorial Administrations
Pedro Mª Uruñuela Nájera, General Deputy Director of Senior Inspection
Mariano Labarta Aizpún, General Deputy Director of Centres, Programmes and Educational Inspection
Soledad Iglesias Jiménez, General Deputy Director of Vocational Training
Carmen Maestro Martín, Director of the INCESE
Amalia Gómez Rodríguez, General Deputy Director of Grants and Educational Promotion
Antonio Moreno González, Director of the Institute for Teacher Training
José Pérez Iruela, Director of the CIDE
Jesús Cerdán, Technical Advisor of the CIDE