

EQUITY IN EDUCATION THEMATIC REVIEW

COUNTRY ANALYTICAL REPORT

SPAIN

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Thematic Review. Equity in Education:

Country Analytical Report - Spain

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. This report reviews and discusses a set of factors related to inequity in the Spanish educational system and policies to combat inequity that have so far been implemented. The report also covers various proposals to improve these policies.

2. The areas that have been identified as most problematical in relation to inequity are the following:

- Access to pre-primary education in the 0-3 year-old range. This appears to depend greatly on the level of income due to the feeble supply of quality public institutions. There are no specific programmes of support for access to this level of education that seems to be crucial in relation to the opportunities for equitable educational achievement.
- Low levels of participation in post-compulsory secondary education. The aggregate rate of participation is only 56.9%; this rate is particularly low as much for pupils from backgrounds with a low socio-cultural level as for immigrant pupils.
- High level of educational failure. Even though this has descended in recent years, it is at a figure above the average for the European Union.
- Problems in the educational integration of immigrant groups. This group has grown very rapidly in recent years, being a very high percentage of pupils in Autonomous Communities such as Madrid (24.3% of the total) or Catalonia (19.3 of the total). This group is schooled mainly in public institutions. The gypsy community also presents significant problems with regard to its educational integration.
- Intensification of inequities between public institutions and private subsidised institutions. Both types of institution have similar regulations with regard to the cost-free access of pupils (anti-selection rule). Nevertheless private subsidised institutions have managed to efficiently select their clients; in this way they have acted as a refuge for the middle-class faced with, for example, the recent entrance of immigrants into the educational system.
- Weakness and lack of quality in vocational education. More precisely, vocational studies at the secondary level do not constitute an attractive alternative, either because of their quality or because of the economic benefits to be obtained from them. They continue to be “second-best”, with little prestige, and to a great extent their clients come from low-income social groups.
- The limited coverage and low redistributive efficiency of the grants system.
- Asymmetrical public expenditure on education per pupil that affects the various Autonomous Communities. The levels of quality in the educational processes are also unequal. This situation is inherent in any decentralised system (the Spanish system is so with regard to administrative responsibilities), given that the regions can make their own educational policies. Nevertheless it

seems recommendable to establish a common minimum at least, based on agreements between the Central Administration and the Autonomous Communities.

3. As can be seen, inequities in scores obtained in cognitive tests (such as PISA) have not been mentioned among the most problematic points: the Spanish results point to a low level of inequity that is more centred on differences within the institutions than between institutions. Neither has any point related to gender differences been included as, at least within the educational system, the position of women has improved substantially, their participation being clearly higher than that of men at all post-compulsory levels. There persist, however, inequities as much in the stereotyped choice of types of study as in the formation of wages in the labour market.

4. Since the transition to democracy general policies (referring to those that affect all users) related to equity in education have been marked by a combination of universality together with some principles that consolidate the right to choose of the users. The most important elements in these policies are the following:

- Comprehensiveness: the Spanish system establishes a division between an academic and a vocational branch at 16 years, with few options at 14 and 15 years.
- Cost-free status: compulsory education (6-16) and, despite its not being compulsory, pre-primary education from 3-5 years (since 2002) are governed by this principle. The fees for university services are highly subsidised, the user covering only around 17% of their cost.
- The regulations concerning the cost-free status and the access of pupils are, as has been mentioned, identical for public and private institutions. The will of the legislative body was to set up a single system of institutions financed from public funds in which a balance was established in the combination of egalitarianism and freedom of choice. In spite of this, the result of the practical application of this system has inclined more towards freedom of choice than towards egalitarianism.

5. With regard to specific policies, directed towards definite areas of the population, the report reviews and discusses the following groups of programmes:

- “Second opportunity” programmes, such as the *Programas de Garantía Social* (Social Guarantee Programme) or the *Programas de Diversificación Curricular* (Curricular Diversification Programme). One of the principal weaknesses of the Social Guarantee Programme is that it does not lead to a qualification that allows re-entry into the educational system.
- Programme of grants and loans. There is very low coverage (especially at the non-university level); through an analysis of the impact of expenditure a low level of effectiveness can also be found in the fulfilment of its distributive objectives.
- Compensatory educational programmes and programmes specifically directed towards the immigrant population. This concerns programmes with a high level of regional decentralisation. A lack of fit appears in the relation between objectives and resources, especially in Autonomous Communities that are receiving large numbers of immigrants.

SECTION I: CONTEXT

CHAPTER 1: COUNTRY'S CONTEXT AND CURRENT EQUITY SITUATION

1.1. General aspects: the education system within the welfare state in Spain

6. The current Spanish education system is the result of a set of rapid transformations that, since the 1960s and, with greater intensity, since the transition to democracy (since 1976, after the end of Franco's dictatorship), Spanish society, and more specifically the institutions of its welfare state, have undergone. Mass schooling has developed in this period, tardily in relation to the countries in our surroundings, and access to post-compulsory levels of education has been opened up considerably. Starting with an education directed towards the reproduction of elites, with a predominance of private institutions (belonging to the Catholic Church), a situation has been currently reached in which the presence of the public sector is much greater (with regard to regulation, finance and provision), although still comparatively less than that of the rest of the countries of the European Union.

7. Parallel to what has occurred in other areas of the Spanish welfare state (the health system, for example), trends towards universality and trends that have made the system dependent on the market or subordinate in relation to the family have mingled in the education system. Important among the first of these is the progressive extension of free compulsory education (to 14 years in 1970, to 16 years in 1990); among the second the maintenance, and in some cases the reinforcement, of families' freedom of choice when entering an education institution.

8. The Spanish education system, as well as the Spanish public sector as a whole, has undergone a process of regional decentralisation since the beginning of the 1980s: The Autonomous Communities currently administer the greater part of public expenditure on education, even though the basic regulatory powers continue to reside in the Central Administration. This situation has meant that, in some facets of educational policy, it is not possible to speak of a single system without some qualification. Similar regional decentralisation processes have been carried out in the majority of sectors that affect levels of inequity most directly (such as health, social services, housing and some income maintenance policies), the economic provisions of Social Security remaining centralised (retirement pensions, pensions for surviving relatives and unemployment).

1.2. The presence of the public sector and the private sector

9. Currently the Spanish education system is essentially made up of institutions financed with public funds (See Table a.1.1)¹. These may be public, administered by the Autonomous Communities, or private subsidised institutions, administered privately but that should comply with regulations aimed to

¹ I refer to the tables in the Annex 2 to this report with a numeration that begins with "a" to distinguish them from the tables corresponding to the set of indicators in the "Data Annex", that will be referred to directly with the numeration of the indicator.

guarantee the cost-free status of the teaching and to equalise the conditions of entry of the students with those existing in public institutions. The system of subsidies has been applied in its present form since the middle of the 1980s, though the public sector previously granted subsidies without any systematic regulation of the obligations of the subsidised institutions. Initially conceived for the primary and secondary levels, the subsidised system has also been extended in recent years, especially in some Autonomous Communities, to the level of pre-primary education (from 3 to 5 years). It is foreseeable that, after defining this level as cost-free (though not compulsory) in the LOCE (Organic Law on Quality in Education, 2002) financing through direct grant will increase.

10. The system of subsidies is not applied at the university level: private institutions can only receive public finance indirectly through, for example, the public grants that their students receive. In spite of this, there has been very fast growth in the presence of the private sector in recent years. This sector only provided services to 4% of students in 1996, a figure which rose to 8% of students in 2001-2002 (8.9% in 2003-2004 according to preliminary data). This expansion has also occurred in a context of greater competition due to a substantial reduction in the age groups that are potentially users of universities, in turn caused by the severe fall in the birth rate that has occurred since the middle of the 1970s.

11. As can be seen in Table a.1.1 the private sector without subsidy is very small, especially in primary and secondary compulsory education. Its importance is greater, however, in two cases: at the level of pre-primary education, with 16.2% of pupils, and in upper secondary (academic) education (Baccalaureate), where it reaches 16.4% of the pupils.

1.3. General aspects with regard to the financing of the education system

12. The aggregate indicator of public expenditure on education (as a percentage of GDP) is 4.5 in Spain (see Table a.1.2), a percentage point below the average for the EU-15 countries. This indicator reached a maximum of 5.16% in 1992. From then onwards a combination of more restrictive budget policies and, since 1995, sustained growth in GDP, at first reduced, to later stabilise, the values for the indicator. This evolution has meant the interruption of the process of convergence with regard to European countries -which had accelerated from 1985 onwards, of the indicators of public expenditure on education. (See Calero and Bonal, 1999).

13. In the same table (a.1.2), other basic indicators of expenditure on education in Spain can be seen. Among these the growth of the financing per unit stands out, a result of the lower number of students. This affected primary education from the 1990s, secondary education especially from the 1990s onwards and higher education from 2000 onwards. The evolution of Indicator 5 is also significant. This indicator covers the proportion of public resources destined to financing the private subsidised institutions. It can be seen that its value has increased notably in the brief period considered, reaching 16.02%. Finally, Indicator 6 shows the low level of the Spanish grant system (specifically, that destined for higher education, which is the largest in quantity) and the reduction it has suffered in recent years.

14. The disparities with regard to the patterns of financing between the various Autonomous Communities are notable: some of these have decided to carry out (and have been able to finance) a greater budgetary effort in the area of education. This has meant that expenditure per unit is very diverse at all levels of education (as can be seen in Table a.1.3). This situation has led those responsible in the MEC (Ministry of Education and Science) of the new government formed in 2004 to sustain the need to reach an agreement with the Autonomous Communities directed towards increasing public expenditure on education in a coordinated manner.

15. Private expenditure on education is a substitute for public expenditure. It therefore seems logical that there is a high level of private expenditure on education in Spain. In the year 2000, in fact, the final

household consumption of education as a percentage of total final household consumption was 1.7%, while the average for the EU-15 was 1% (source: OECD). Table a.1.4 provides information about a similar indicator obtained from an alternative source (the Spanish average is 1.33%). Here can be seen the implications that the effect of private expenditure on education has for equity. As is to be expected, private expenditure on education is concentrated in the upper income levels (the first line of the table). However, at the lower levels of income, the effort that making a lower expenditure on education means is actually *greater* (the second line of the table).

1.4. The process of regional decentralisation in the Spanish education system

16. The process of the regional decentralisation of the Spanish education system has been carried out in two phases: in the first phase (in the middle of the 1980s) seven Autonomous Communities acquired administrative powers², while the rest of the Autonomous Communities continued to be administered by the MEC. Towards the end of the 1990s this remaining group of Autonomous Communities also acquired administrative powers. In the system that resulted the greater part of administrative powers reside in the Autonomous Communities. In 2002 these managed 84.7% of public expenditure on education; the expenditure of the MEC was only 3.84% of the total, over half of this (2.23% of the total) being directed to the grant and support system, the administration of which is also in the process of being decentralised.

17. The situation is not the same with regard to legislative powers, as a large part of the legislative power is centralised; organic laws have determined the essential orientation of the education systems of the Autonomous Communities. The opposition between these different levels of decentralisation of the administrative and of the legislative powers has often generated conflict. An example of this can be found in the negative reactions that arose among various Autonomous Communities caused by the reform, through three basic laws (LOU - Organic Law of Universities, LCFP - Organic Law of Qualifications in Vocational Training, and LOCE - Organic Law on Quality in Education), of all the levels of the Spanish education system. These laws, promoted by the government of the Popular Party, were approved during 2001 and 2002 with a low level of consensus. In fact, this situation has meant that two of the priorities in the political agenda of the new government have been the reform, consecutively, of the LOCE and the LOU. It is also necessary to point out that a part of the conflict generated by the distribution of legislative and administrative powers appeared when, in exercising its legislative powers, the central administration acted with a certain level of "fiscal irresponsibility", by making the budgetary consequences of the legislative developments fall on the Autonomous Communities. The establishment of the cost-free status of pre-primary education in the LOCE is a good example of this.

18. The panorama of the decentralisation of education in Spain is also marked, on the other hand, by the very low level of the responsibilities of local government, while in a large part of decentralised countries it is local governments that have administrative responsibilities at the pre-primary, primary and secondary levels (see Castells and Ruiz-Huerta, dirs., 2004). This is not so in Spain, where on occasions local governments assume responsibilities that in principle do not belong to them (for example, in the area of pre-primary education).

1.5. Elements related to equity in the development of education policy in Spain

19. The history of Spanish education policy since the 1970s has been marked by tension between the egalitarian and liberal ideologies that at different moments have managed to impose themselves with greater or lesser force on the design and execution of policy. In fact, the combination of elements of the

² These Communities were Andalusia, Canary Islands, Catalonia, Galicia, Navarre, Community of Valencia and the Basque Country.

two ideologies is characteristic of the “pluralist” option that defined a large part of the legislative developments that took place during the 1990s. In the words of Álvaro Marchesi:

“The pluralist option has four basic principles: 1. The public institutions may be institutions of proven quality, with a high level of efficiency in their management. 2. The public institutions must have enough autonomy to develop their own educational projects in which they establish the signs of their identity, but at the same time compensatory measures should be established for the institutions situated in socially disadvantaged areas. 3. Parents can choose the institution, but within the limits of the plans made by the public authorities. 4. The assessment of the institutions must not only be made on the basis of results, but principally on the basis of educational processes. The pluralist ideology presents a balance between freedom of choice and equality of opportunities.” (Marchesi, 1995: 34).

20. The LGE (General Law of Education), of 1970, represented a significant advance in the consolidation of mass schooling in Spain. Inspired by meritocratic principles, it established compulsory cost-free basic education until 14 years, and placed the responsibility for its provision, primarily, on the public sector³. The LGE established a sharp division between tracks (academic and vocational) at 14 years and developed a system of Vocational Training that had very little prestige and sparse financing. The LGE also projected the system of agreements with private institutions that had no regulatory development later.

21. The LODE (Regulatory Organic Law of the Right to Education), of 1985, was the first basic regulation effectively implemented after the transition to democracy. Presented by the first socialist government, its orientation was essentially egalitarian. The responsibility of the public sector in the provision of educational services was emphasised in the law and, even though the existence of a dual network was recognised, in which the private subsidised institutions were also included, the priority was public provision. A short extract from the law allows its spirit to be captured:

“It is the responsibility of the State and the Autonomous Communities, through the general programming of education, to ensure the coverage of educational requirements, providing an adequate supply of places in schools, dignifying a public education insufficiently attended for many years and promoting the equality of opportunities.”

22. With the following basic educational regulation, the LOGSE (Organic Law of the General Organisation of the Education System), of 1990, the education system was reformed in depth: compulsory education was extended to 16 years through the ESO (Compulsory Secondary Education), an educational character was given to the stage between 0 and 5 years and Vocational Training was reformed, attempting to improve its status (to avoid its “secondary route” character). Special emphasis was given to combating inequity: comprehensiveness was an essential element in this struggle, but measures of a compensatory nature were also included and the PGS (Social Guarantee Programme) was established, directed towards pupils who at 16 years had not reached the objectives of the ESO. This emphasis on the reduction of inequity can be appreciated in the following extract from the LOGSE.

“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. But the law, as well as containing in its articles numerous equally useful provisions for this, specifically dedicates its Fifth Title to compensation for inequality in education. Through the compensatory actions and measures, through the sufficient provision of

³ Strictly speaking, the LGE established a band between 14 and 16 years that was also compulsory, although in reality no measures were taken to reinforce this obligation, for which reason and during all the years in which the LGE was in force the proportion of boys and girls that stopped studying at 14 years was around a third.

school places in post-compulsory education, through policy on grants and support for studies, that ensure that access to these is only related to the capacity and the performance of the pupil, the education system will contribute to the reduction of unjust social inequality.”

23. The LOPEG (Organic Law on Participation, Assessment and the Governance of Institutions of Education), of 1995, enacted during the fourth legislation of the Socialist Party (1993-1996), advanced along pluralist lines, regulating the autonomy of the institutions, and this was necessarily accompanied by their assessment.

24. After a first legislation without a sufficient majority, in its second legislation (2000-2004) the Popular Party presented a basic regulation that introduced important changes in education policy. In the LOCE (Organic Law on Quality in Education, 2002) the need to improve the average level of knowledge was emphasised and, parallel to this, an attempt was made to develop a “culture of effort” by, for example, increasing the number of repeat years allowed. In addition, tracks at the age between 15 and 16 years were introduced with the object of providing greater flexibility, adapted to individual needs. This therefore reduced the level of comprehensiveness implicit in the LOGSE. The following extract from the LOCE has been selected in order to illustrate this point:

“Our system of education and training should resemble a dense network of opportunities that allow each individual to pass through reaching their own training objectives. The education system should acquire a flexible configuration, that adapts to the individual differences in aptitudes, requirements, interests and rhythm of development in people, precisely in order not to renounce the achievement of quality results for all. The diversity of the pupils themselves advises a certain variety in tracks”.

25. The new socialist government formed in 2004 has established a moratorium for the greater part of the articles of the LOCE⁴. In its document *Quality Education for Everybody and among Everybody (Una educación de calidad para todos y entre todos)* (MEC, 2004f) it noted various elements of education policy that it wanted to implement. Among those related directly with equity the three following are important: the emphasis on pre-primary education as an element in the prevention of inequities (reintegrating the 0-3 years period into the education system); the substitution of the tracks in the second stage of ESO (15 and 16 years) with a more flexible model of curriculum diversification, probably based on a credit system and, finally, the promotion of “integral educational compensation programmes in areas or institutions of preferential attention, designed to prevent school failure and to support effective work with pupils at great social disadvantage”.

1.6. Various perspectives on equity in debates on Spanish education policy

26. The differing positions concerning equity in Spanish education will be summarised by pointing to the basic elements of the liberal-conservative approach on the one hand, and the social democratic one on the other. From the liberal-conservative point of view, represented politically in the country as a whole by the Popular Party, the basic elements relating to equity are “equity by choice” and the “culture of effort”. The first element has been manifested, for example, by introducing tracks in the second stage of ESO in the LOCE (the introduction of a “technology” track that separates pupils between a vocational and an academic branch, breaking sharply with the principle of comprehensiveness) and also by the importance given to the ability of families to choose between public and private institutions. The second element was also clearly reflected in the LOCE, that introduced repeat years with more than two failed subjects and also the PGB (General Baccalaureate Test). This test meant doubling the filtering of access to higher education because, as well as the PGB, students had to pass specific entrance tests for each institution.

⁴ Royal Decree 1318/2004, of 28 May.

27. From the social democratic standpoint, represented in the country as a whole by the PSOE (Spanish Socialist Worker's Party), the elements relating to equity that are strengthened in the design of its policies tend more towards egalitarianism, without forgetting the presence of freedom of choice. The "pluralist option" which was referred to in 1.5 is that currently supported by social democracy. In this option the freedom to choose the institution is qualified by the principle of programming, and the private subsidised institutions are considered, at least in theory, to belong to a single integrated network of institutions maintained by public funds, that should follow identical regulations. For this reason, the process of dualisation that deepened the divide between public and private institutions is looked upon with special concern from the social democratic standpoint. The different impact of immigration on the two types of institution (and how the middle-classes seek refuge in the private subsidised institutions) has aggravated this process, considered to be one of the principal obstacles to equity from the social democratic point of view.

28. The problem of school failure is dealt with from the social democratic position by paying more attention to the socioeconomic conditions in the environment of the pupil than to the individual effort that the pupil can make. In addition, the principle of comprehensiveness, that was very strong in the LOGSE, has been slightly relaxed in the latest contributions to education policy produced from social democratic positions (see MEC, 2004f).

29. Logically examples related to specific aspects of more recent education policy cannot do justice to the complexity of a dynamic debate of changing dimensions (as the dimensions of inequity are also changing). Nevertheless, the location of the various positions along a continuum limited by two extremes, one representing freedom of choice and the other equality could be, with all the qualifications to this accepted, a useful instrument.

SECTION II: OPPORTUNITIES AND OUTCOMES

CHAPTER 2: PROFILE OF EQUITY IN EDUCATION

2.1. Participation rates

30. With regard to participation rates in pre-primary education, it can be seen from the tables corresponding to Indicator 1 that practically 100% schooling has been achieved from the age of four years. Nevertheless, in the 0 to 3 years age range the levels are still low (55.1% at two years, for example), with notable differences between Autonomous Communities, and an even lower rate in the case of the immigrant population. To see the differences between social groups in access to pre-primary education in the 0 to 2 years age range a table is used (a.2.1) compiled by González (2005) in which can be seen the direct proportional relation between income levels and access⁵.

31. Access to post-compulsory secondary education (see Indicator 2) is, in relation to European countries, considerably limited. The rate is only 56.9%, which creates an important bottleneck in the Spanish education system and a source of inequity. Here very significant differences can also be found between Autonomous Communities (the range is between 47.9% in the Balearic Islands to 70% in the Basque Country). The differences between social groups, which are shown in the tables for Indicator 2, are very acute: while for group 1 of SEC (Higher-grade professionals) the rate is 85.3%, for groups IV and V (Skilled manual workers and Semi- and unskilled manual workers) these are 52.2% and 27.5%. A difference of almost thirty percentage points between the rate in group V and the average rate should be underscored. The double cause of this, to be found as much in the low academic performance of this group as in the anti-academic bias of its choices, should be studied more closely. The low participation rate of the immigrant group is also striking (only 33.9%)⁶.

32. Similar patterns can be found in access to higher education (Indicator 4): large differences between Autonomous Communities and also very pronounced disparities between the rates according to SEC. The position of groups IV and V are again worthy of attention and, in this case, also that of group VIII (agricultural workers), the latter due to a great extent to distance from institutions of higher education. Apart from this, the probability that an immigrant enters higher education is one third of that for a Spanish national. These acute inequities are partly explained by the limited presence of the non-university higher education sector that in 2002 absorbed only 11.7% of the total registrations in higher education (see Indicator 5). This particularity of Spanish higher education was even more noticeable a few years ago, when the vocational higher education (CFGS, Higher Grade Training Courses) sector was non-existent.

⁵ It should also be pointed out that the quality levels of the services are, probably, also directly proportional to the income of the users.

⁶ In Section 2.3 reference will be made to differences that exist according to gender.

2.2. Graduation rates and performance

33. The various indicators with which the performance of Spanish students can be measured point to the existence of a problem that should be tackled tenaciously in coming years. Retentions accumulate in primary and secondary compulsory education (see Table a.2.2), with the result that, at 15 years, only 62.1% of the pupils are studying the course year corresponding to their age. This indicator has improved since 1992, in which year its value was 59.62%. For higher ages, Indicator 10 provides information about the graduation rate for the academic branch of post-compulsory secondary education (baccalaureate). It can be seen that the average rate is very low (33.1%)⁷. Here once again great differences can be found according to socioeconomic group (SEC and income quintiles); inequities in this indicator are influenced by the participation rate as much as by the performance of students at the corresponding level of education.

34. The combined effect of the participation rate in post-compulsory secondary education, performance at this level and participation in other training programmes is shown in Table a.2.3, referring to the percentage of early school leavers. In this table it is possible to compare the situation in Spain with other countries in the European context. In 2002, while 18.5% of students between 18 and 24 years in the EU-15 neither had completed post-compulsory secondary studies nor were receiving training, in Spain this indicator reached 29%, a figure only surpassed in Europe by Portugal, with 45.5%.

35. Finally, for higher education, Indicator 7 provides information relating to performance. On average, two-thirds⁸ of the students in higher education in Spain graduated in the appropriate year. This low performance has perhaps been the most pressing problem of higher education in Spain. During the last ten years it has improved gradually and it is foreseeable that it will continue to do so in coming years.

2.3. The gender factor

36. After the level of compulsory education, women have a higher participation rate at every level and higher performance than men. As regards participation, the difference in favour of women is 9.5 percentage points in post-compulsory secondary education and 9.9 percentage points in higher education. In secondary education, women tend more to choose the academic branch than men. This situation is only qualified by the lower rate of feminine participation in secondary education in the case of immigrants (specifically, North Africans)

37. The performance of women is higher from the primary level, where their rates of correspondence between course-years being studied and actual ages are higher (Table a.2.2). The graduation rates for women in post-compulsory secondary education (Indicator 10) are almost 12 percentage points above those for men. The percentage of early school leavers (Table a.2.3) is substantially lower for women: more than 13 percentage points, while for the EU-15 as a whole the difference does not reach 5 percentage points. As regards the results of PISA, female pupils in Spain obtain, as in all of the countries of the OECD, better scores in reading comprehension and problem-solving than male pupils. However the opposite result can be seen in mathematics and the understanding of scientific texts.

38. High participation rates and better performance are partially counter-balanced, within the education system, by a stereotyped choice of study. This choice is already manifest in post-compulsory secondary education, where girls tend to evade the vocational branch (CFGM, Middle Grade Training Courses), as can be seen in Indicator 3. In higher education the gender bias in the choice of study manifests

⁷ Although it is necessary to remember that the indicator refers to graduates at the typical graduation age; the rate for graduates at any age is, logically, higher.

⁸ Used here are values provided by the MEC, which are different to those that appear in the on-line figures of the OECD (Corporate Data Environment).

itself, above all, in low female participation in technical and engineering studies. This situation is caused, to a great extent, by the discrimination suffered by women in the corresponding areas of the labour market.

39. Improvements with regard to gender equality *within* the education system have not been completely transferred to the area of the labour market. In spite of the substantial increases of recent years, the female activity rate in Spain is still slightly below the average of the EU-15. As well as this, the salaries of women (including when the analysis allows the isolation of all the variables that affect the formation of their salaries) continue to be lower than the salaries of men.

2.4. Evidence obtained from tests of cognitive skills

40. Spain occupies one of the last places among the EU-15 countries in the results of the PISA-2003, which were slightly worse than those of PISA-2000. In Table a.2.4 it can be seen how the average results are slightly below the results of the three Autonomous Communities that participated in 2003 with an expanded sample (Castile and Leon, Catalonia and the Basque Country). In Spain there is a greater percentage of pupils than is the average in the OECD at the lower levels of scores in reading comprehension and mathematics. Nevertheless, as Carabaña (2004b) points out, the scores of the Spanish pupils are very close to the average for the countries of the EU-15. There is really little dispersion of the scores among the European countries despite the great diversity of education systems and teaching methods.

41. In the following points some of the factors will be briefly discussed that permit an explanation of the level and the distribution of the results of the PISA tests in Spain.

Expenditure on education

42. In Marchesi (2003b) as well as in INECSE (2004) the existence is pointed to of a positive relation between public expenditure per pupil and the results obtained in the PISA-2000. Marchesi (2003b) indicates that the expenditure per pupil explains 17% of the variation between the countries in the scores of pupils. This partly accounts for the lower scores of the Spanish pupils.

Number of hours of class

43. The number of hours of class for Spanish pupils is lower than the average for the OECD (see Pedró, 2004 and Marchesi, 2003b). This is another factor that partly explains the differences in the scores of Spanish pupils in PISA-2000. It also partly explains the unequal results between public and private institutions (the latter usually have a greater number of hours of class). As Marchesi (2003b) also explains, the smaller number of hours of class of Spanish pupils is compensated for with a greater number of hours of study outside the classroom, as well as with more attendance of additional or support courses outside the school, which has obvious implications for levels of equity.

Socio-economic and cultural differences

44. The socio-economic and cultural status of parents is positively correlated with the scores obtained by pupils. According to INECSE (2004), the socio-economic level of parents explains 13% of the variation in scores for mathematical comprehension in Spain (17% for all the countries analysed in PISA-2000). This is, probably, the factor that best allows an understanding of the modest results of the Spanish pupils: looking at Table a.2.5 it seems apparent that the levels of education of previous generations in Spain are well below those of the rest of the EU-15 countries and the average for the countries of the OECD as well. For all age groups, including the youngest, the percentage of the population with an upper secondary education is in all the countries (except Portugal) above that of Spain. More precisely, for the 35 to 44 age group, where there is a high probability that the parents of children tested by PISA are located,

the indicator has the value 46, which is 23 points below the average value for the OECD. In the 34 to 54 age group the difference is greater, at 30 points.

45. In the same way as occurs in almost all the countries analysed in PISA-2003 (see OECD, 2004a), the effect of the socio-economic and cultural background of the school is greater than the effect of the direct socio-economic and cultural background of the pupils, although the differences between the effects of both backgrounds in Spain is comparatively small.

46. With regard to the relations between immigration and scores in the PISA-2003, in the case of Spain the scores in mathematics of pupils who are the children of Spanish nationals are 45 points above the group of pupils who are either foreigners or the children of foreigners (OECD, 2004a). This difference is reduced to 36 points if the socio-economic origin of the pupil is controlled for. The disparities that have been mentioned, with reference to Spain, are greater than those existing in the set of countries analysed in PISA-2003, where the difference is 29 points and 16 when the socio-economic origin of the pupil is controlled for. These results point towards the presence in Spain of a problem of performance derived from immigration that is more acute than in the rest of the countries. This could have several causes, among which three stand out: that in Spain a greater proportion of immigrants come from linguistic backgrounds that are different; that the very rapid rate of arrival has made the process of integration difficult; that educational integration policies are not efficacious enough. Probably the three causes are having their effect, to a greater or lesser degree, simultaneously.

Differences in relation to the ownership of the institution

47. In Table a.2.6 it can be seen that the results in PISA-2003 are always better in the private education institutions than in the public ones; except for the scores in mathematical comprehension the differences are greater in Spain than in the OECD as a whole.

48. With regard to the results in mathematical comprehension, in INECSE (2004) it was pointed out that the greater effectiveness of the private institutions was in good part due to the fact that they predominantly attend to a school population from a higher socio-economic and cultural level. If this factor is controlled for, the difference between private and public institutions (initially 35 points in Spain) is reduced to 26. If the average for the socio-economic and cultural factor (that indicates the type of community and the social background in which the teaching institution is located) is also detracted the difference is reduced to only 1 point, this not being statistically significant.

49. The most recent analyses are able to isolate the real reasons for differences in performance between private and public institutions more and more efficiently. Once the effects of the different types of user and the interaction among them are isolated the “net” differences tend to cancel out. This is shown by the conclusions of a study applied to private and public schools in Latin American countries (Sommers et al., 2001), from which the following lines are significant:

“There are substantial and consistent differences in the achievement of private and public schools, usually around one-half of a standard deviation [...]. A small portion of these differences is accounted for by the higher SES of students in private schools [...]. A quite substantial portion is explained by the varying peer group characteristics in private and public schools [...]. After accounting for the peer group characteristics, the average private school effect across all 10 countries is zero, though with some variance around this mean (typically ranging between -0.2 and 0.2 standard deviations). [...] The consistency of the findings is striking, especially given the heterogeneity in the size and composition of the private school sector across countries. An important question is whether these results provide guidance on the impact of policies, such as vouchers, that encourage private school attendance. [...] Families may care little whether their

child's achievement is enhanced by schools or peers. From a government's perspective, however, the answer may be different. Arguments for vouchers rely on the notion that private schools are more effective because of their private governance but not because of spillover benefits from privileged students that they happen to enrol. This is especially so in the case of large-scale voucher programs that would extend eligibility to most students. If private effects are largely peer effects, then it becomes problematic to assess the potential impact of large-scale voucher programs, if only because the stock of good peers is finite." (Sommers et al., 2001: 44).

Differences between institutions and within institutions

50. In PISA-2003, Spain is one of the countries where the dispersion of the results (in the tests of mathematics) *between* institutions is least at 17.2%, whereas the average for the OECD is 33.6%. The dispersion *within* the institutions is much higher, at 70%, which is similar to the average for the OECD. Therefore it can be said that in spite of the quality of the system (at least measured by its cognitive aspects) being below average it is homogeneously distributed over all the territory.

Differences in relation to differentiated curricula

51. The differentiation between tracks and the age at which a choice is made between tracks does not significantly influence the scores in mathematics achieved by the countries. Nevertheless (OECD, 2004a), these variables do permit a partial explanation of the disparities between pupils and between institutions: the greater the curricular differentiation, and the earlier this differentiation occurs, the greater the dispersion of results⁹. Spain is one of the OECD countries where there is the least differentiation in the curriculum; this is one of the factors that explains the low level of dispersion that there is between institutions. Spain therefore constitutes a good example in support of the position expressed in the OECD (2004a) regarding the favourable effects of comprehensiveness on inequalities in performance.

2.5. Adult education in Spain

52. The contents of Chapter 3 of the report corresponding to Spain of the Thematic Review of Adult Education (OECD, 2003) are summarised in this section. The footnotes are updates of the information.

53. The Spanish adult educational system is structured in three large blocks: basic education (regulatory), occupational training and continuous training. On a global level, and in spite of -according to Eurostat (2002)- the fact that participation in these programmes has doubled during the last decade, the participation rate (in the 4 weeks before the survey) – see table a.2.7- continued to represent only 5% of the population between 25 and 64 years old, far from that in countries such as the United Kingdom or Holland (above 15%). The need to improve the level of education of older adults, the high unemployment rate or demographical changes are some of the factors that allow it to be said that there remains a wide margin for increasing this participation.

54. However the participation rate of adults in training programmes presents unequal patterns of distribution. More educated adults (secondary and higher) as well as younger adults tend to take part in training programmes for adults in a greater proportion than people without training or with only primary education, and than more mature adults. Women participate more than men (this fact is accentuated in the case of the unemployed and the inactive) and it is remarkable that the participation rate of the Spanish unemployed in training programmes for adults is the highest in the OECD. On the other hand, immigrants,

⁹ Also, the greater the curricular differentiation, and the earlier this differentiation occurs, the greater the influence of the socio-cultural background of the children on their academic results.

workers in small and medium-sized companies and unskilled workers have low participation rates. Spain has opted for an intensive model of training (the provision of a high level of training to few individuals).

55. The basic education services (regulatory) trained 400,000 adults in the year 2000. The population groups that most benefited from these “second opportunity” services were women and young people. There are about 1 million illiterate people in Spain and more than 4,5 million people without a formal education, for which reason the potential demand for these types of services exceeds the supply. Taking the heterogeneity of the demand into account, the Autonomous Communities set up basic educational services -general and vocational- for adults covering all levels of education (from primary to higher). The transfer of the administration of these programmes to the Autonomous Communities allows them to be executed in diverse ways, the private sector cornering a good part of the supply of basic education for adults.

56. Occupational training services, on the other hand, seek to facilitate entry into the labour market for the unemployed; logically a great part of the workload on their courses is practical, and a professional certification is granted to the students on completing the course. 300,000 unemployed people participated in these programmes in the year 2000. The INEM cooperates with the Autonomous Communities in the development of the courses and allows the participation of the private sector in the provision of these services through collaborating centres. The fact that the main users of occupational training programmes are better-trained adults and the unemployed between 20 and 29 years suggests that neither university nor the modules of vocational training prepare young people adequately for the demands of the labour market.

57. With regard to the continuous training programmes, the participation rates are relatively high in relation to the OECD, with 1.5 million workers participating in the year 2000¹⁰. Since 1993 employers dedicate 0.7% of salaries to the financing of FORCEM¹¹. Companies, as well as self-employed workers, rural workers, intermittent workers, etc. can present training plans or applications for subsidies to this Foundation. Also in the case of continuous training programmes it is the better-educated workers who tend to participate more, although, notably, there is a lower participation rate of women than in the other modes of education for adults. The granting of subsidies on the basis of the criteria of participation in the labour market rather than citizenship means that there are individuals who remain outside these programmes. A greater adaptation of the supply of courses to the demands of workers would possibly increase the participation rates.

58. The efforts made to alleviate the deficiencies that have been mentioned previously have been reflected mainly in the LOCFP, of 2002. The LOCFP has advanced in the definition of points that were not specified in the LOGSE. For example, the LOCFP decrees the creation of specific training for marginal groups, creates INCUAL to establish equivalences for the recognition of all training -formal or not-, and applies the Basic Qualifications fixed in the Council of Lisbon to all the country - thereby facilitating adaptation to the criteria of the European Union.

2.6. Recent dynamics of inequality in Spain

59. If we ask what the evolution of aggregate levels of inequality in Spain has been in recent years we can first obtain an answer by looking at the evolution of the Gini indices with regard to the distribution

¹⁰ According to the Commission of the European Community (2005), the percentage of the active population between 25 and 64 years that participated in continuous training programmes in Spain in 2004 was 5.2% (the benchmark fixed by the European Council in 2003 being 12.5%).

¹¹ The third agreement on Continuous Training (2001-2004) was not administered by the FORCEM, but by the Tripartite Foundation, in which the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (that already administered this type of training before the appearance of the FORCEM), and trade union and employers organisations participate.

of equivalent disposable income per household. In the 1980s this index descended from 0.31 (1980) to 0.299 (1990), to return to grow in the 1990s to reach a value of 0.33 in 2000.¹²

60. The slight increase in inequality in income to which reference is made in the previous paragraph is the result of a considerable increase in inequalities in wages (and, specifically, wage inequalities attributable to differences in returns from educational investment) partially mitigated by the equalising effect of the redistributive policies of the public sector (see Calero, 2002). In effect, the educational wage premium (additional levels of wage generated by differences in levels of education) has grown substantially in Spain, at least between 1980 and 1995. Tables a.2.8 and a.2.9 allow this trend to be seen. It is particularly acute when wages are corrected with the probability of being occupied. In both tables, the values of the premium¹³ refer to additional salary in relation to that achieved by workers with a “primary or below” level of education. It can be seen that the growth of the premium between 1980 and 1995 appears particularly at the university levels.

¹² The source of the values for 1980 and 1990 is Cowell et al. (1990); the value for 2000 was obtained from ECHP-2000.

¹³ The educational wage premium was obtained for these tables from multivariate procedures, from a calculation of rates of return (see Calero, 2004)

SECTION III: CAUSES AND EXPLANATIONS

CHAPTER 3. LONGITUDINAL TRANSMISSION OF INEQUALITY

61. This chapter is intended, according to the guidelines set for the CAR, to “summarise empirical evidence for your country of equity issues in education in a life cycle perspective”. This area of research, however, has hardly been carried out in Spain, for which reason the empirical evidence that can be contributed is practically inexistent. In the section for conclusions this area will be mentioned as one of those that deserve special attention in the future. Perhaps the use of the new European household panel (EU-SILC) could be useful in coming years although, as is logical, the availability of an *ad hoc* study, with a specific sample that could be monitored during a very long period of time (along the lines of the *Beginning School Study*) would be more convenient.

62. Considering the above-mentioned lack of information, this section will be used to refer to the area of social and educational mobility between generations, which even though it does not exactly correspond with the objectives of the section, at least will introduce the longitudinal dimension into this review. A first approach to the phenomenon of educational mobility can be obtained through the correlation coefficient between years of study of parents and the years of study of sons and daughters. Using ECHP (European Community Household Panel) data, in its wave for 2000¹⁴, results are presented in Table a.3.1 by Autonomous Community. The average level of correlation is 0.43. Carabaña (1999) obtained a correlation of 0.42 for 1990 and Sánchez (2004) a correlation of 0.45, also for 1990.

63. Comi (2003), from a study based on the ECHP, pointed out that Spain is among the countries of the European Union with the least educational mobility (understood as it is defined in the previous paragraph), together with Ireland, Italy and Portugal. The various estimations show that Spain is, as far as educational mobility is concerned, in ninth place (of a total of 12 countries) for sons and in eleventh place for daughters. Also, in Spain, Ireland, and Portugal, family income plays a more important role than the education of parents in determining the educational level of children.

64. Beyond the concept of educational mobility it is possible to refer to the more general phenomenon of social mobility and how it is influenced by the education system. Along these lines, the studies of reference in Spain are those carried out by Carabaña. Carabaña (2004a) begins with the CASMIN (*Comparative Analysis of Social Mobility in Industrial Nations*)¹⁵ study and the case of Spain is added and compared. The possibilities of entering the SEC I and II (Professionals and Routine non-manual) oscillates, in Spain, between 50.2% (for male children whose father belongs to the same categories) and 2.7% for male children of agricultural workers. The same range oscillates for the rest of the

¹⁴ This wave seems especially relevant in the case of Spain, as the expanded sample that is used is significant at the level of Autonomous Communities.

¹⁵ In this study the situation with regard to social mobility was examined in Australia, Great Britain, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Japan, Poland, Sweden and the United States, studying the population that between 1970 and 1975 was between 30 and 64 years.

countries analysed between 60.6% and 5.4%. Mobility towards SEC I and II for children belonging to categories IV and V is greater in countries like the United States, Sweden and Australia than in Great Britain or France (Spain being below the latter). The pattern of mobility seems to have remained constant inside countries, with the exception of changes produced by socialist revolutions in the peasantry and petty bourgeois (Erikson y Goldthorpe, 1992).

65. According to Carabaña, there has been an increasing percentage of arrival to the SEC I and II from whichever of the other categories. From those born before 1930 to those born between 1931 and 1955 this goes from 10% to 21%, although after this the percentage stagnates and descends to 15% for those born 1961-1965. In this overall increase between 10% and 15%, mobility towards university professions (groups of professions belonging to SEC I and II that require a university qualification) had considerable weight. Also according to Carabaña, entrance to SEC I and II has been restricted, in the case of men, by the lack of increase in the equality of opportunities of the baccalaureate and university education, more than because of patterns of conservatism in the labour market. Effectively, comparing the probabilities of access to baccalaureate for men born between 1971 and 1975 with the probabilities of access for men born between 1981 and 1985, it can be seen that they have not varied or have worsened slightly. The case of women is quite different, in as far as for them improvement in access to baccalaureate has continued for all the SEC and especially for the manual labour SEC (with the exception of those belonging to SEC VII - agricultural workers).

CHAPTER 4: UNDERSTANDING THE CAUSES OF INEQUITY

4.1. Barriers related to motivation

66. Low participation in post-compulsory secondary education is related, in Spain, with the demotivation of certain social groups. This demotivation already begins before ESO is finished and has led on occasions to high levels of truancy and conflict in the institutions. This has been one of the criticisms from conservative positions of the LOGSE that has been made most frequently. Why keep young people in the education system who, from 14 years on, are demotivated and want to enter the labour market? The demotivation is related, logically, with previous low academic performance, but in a more general manner with a lack of being in tune with the school world and, more exactly, with its academic area. This lack of being tuned in is very extensive (especially among men) in families with parents who are manual workers, and is often transformed into a rejection of the education system. The processes of the formation of this rejection have been studied from the sociological standpoint (see, for example, the ethnographic study carried out by Bonal, dir., 2003). The arrival of immigrants, in recent years, in areas where a good part of the problems of demotivation and rejection of the education system have already accumulated has contributed towards aggravating the situation.

67. Another factor in diminishing motivation in the education system in recent years has been the deficient implementation of the LOGSE since 1996. In spite of its ambitious character, the Law was applied in a context that was often hostile (especially in the Autonomous Communities governed by conservative parties), which caused a lack of financing, as well as a failure to apply complementary measures of attention to diversity and the lack of a system of rigorous evaluation of their results.

68. The education system itself can contribute to making the continuation of studies more attractive. Along these lines tutorials seem useful, where, among other things, it could be possible to reinforce the idea that education generates important individual benefits. Also the reduction of the effects of opportunity costs¹⁶ (through, for example, a reinforcement of the system of grants) would be positive in terms of individual motivation. Moving the content of education closer to the “real world” would also be a good tool in this sense.

69. Lack of motivation also appears as low participation in occupational training (directed towards the unemployed) and in continuous training. With regard to occupational training, it can be seen from Table a.4.1 that only 17.61% of the Spanish unemployed attend occupational training courses. It is remarkable when reviewing the figures for the Autonomous Communities that in many Communities where the unemployment rate is high the rate of participation in training courses is low. As regards continuous training (directed towards workers who are employed), the rate of participation of salaried workers is, according to Table a.4.2, at 22.9% with very considerable differences between Autonomous Communities.

¹⁶ It should be pointed out that participation in post-compulsory levels of education in Spain depends on the probabilities that the students will find work. The participation rates vary considerably between Autonomous Communities and present an association, in many cases, that is inverse with regard to the probability of younger people finding work.

4.2. Institutional barriers

70. The main barrier to access to pre-primary education, until its cost-free status (between 3 and 5 years) established by the LOCE (2002), was economic. Institutional barriers to pre-primary education have not had significant effects: access practices to public or subsidised institutions (although these differ to a great extent between Autonomous Communities and between municipalities) have tended to favour low income groups. In coming years, with the extension of cost-free status to institutions for 3 to 5 year-olds, the economic barriers will continue to be determining for the 0 to 3 years stage. It has already been seen, in section 2.1, and specifically in Table a.2.1, how economic differences greatly affect access to infant care (for children from 0 to 2 years). This inequity in access means a serious difficulty for participation in the labour market for mothers with lower incomes, who are exactly those who most need to obtain a wage. The weakness of the public network of quality institutions for children between 0 and 3 years constitutes, therefore, a relevant point in the patterns of educational inequity in Spain.

71. There do not exist in Spain any specific programmes to facilitate access to pre-primary education for children from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds. This would be an especially effective educational investment, in as far as schooling at an early age (0-3 years) stimulates cognitive skills and tends to reduce school failure later (Heckman, 2000). In this regard, it can be seen in PISA-2003 that those pupils who had attended more than one year of pre-primary education obtained better results in mathematics than those who had not attended (the effect is maintained, although slightly weaker, if the socio-economic background of the pupils is considered)¹⁷. However, this positive difference in the results is not observed for those pupils who have only attended pre-primary education for a maximum of one year (OECD, 2004a).

72. Institutional barriers begin to have an effect, in the current Spanish education sector, from 16 years onwards, at the end of the ESO. During the years of the ESO there is, at the moment, a moderate amount of choice that is concentrated in the fourth year, but pupils do not have to choose between a general and a vocational branch. The LOCE (approved in 2002, the greater part of the articles of which are the subject of a moratorium since 2004) envisaged the establishment, in the third year of ESO (14 years), of a Technology track and a Science-Humanities track, going on to three tracks in the fourth year, a Technology, a Science and a Humanities track. This reform, as Sweet (2003) indicates, was the opposite of the current trend in the greater part of OECD countries, in which the trend is to delay the age at which pupils should decide their specialisation.

73. The division of pupils into groups depending on their skills or knowledge is not contemplated in the Spanish educational regulations, although indications exist that this is done in some cases, especially at the secondary level in private institutions. At the primary level the official figures (see MECD, 2000) indicate that practically all groupings are made according to alphabetical order or to compensate for unequal numbers of girls and boys. On the other hand, in ESO, as can be seen in Table a.4.3, the percentage of private institutions that use the grouping criteria "balanced integration and homogeneity of the pupils" is significantly higher than in the public institutions. These criteria are sufficiently ambiguous to be able to cover streaming according to levels of skills and knowledge.

74. The limitations to streaming within the institutions are, in any event, greater than the limitations to streaming *between* institutions. Even though the regulation of the agreements prevents institutions selecting their pupils according to criteria different from those established in the regulations¹⁸, it seems

¹⁷ In nine of the OECD countries this effect was particularly strong (between a half and one level of proficiency in mathematics - from 30 to 73 points). See OECD (2004a: 267).

¹⁸ The priority criteria are family income, proximity of residence or place of work and the presence of siblings registered at the same institution. Complementary criteria can be membership of a large family, the recognised

apparent that the private subsidised institutions (and, perhaps, some public institutions located in high income areas) manage to carry out a particularly effective selection of their users (see Villarroya, 2001).

75. Post-compulsory secondary education is organised into two branches, one general/academic (baccalaureate) and another that is vocational, the CFGM. In the current system it is necessary to have a certificate of Graduate of Secondary Education to enter either of the two branches (before the reform carried out by the LOGSE it was possible to enter the vocational branch without the certificate of Graduate of Secondary Education). It is also possible to enter the CFGM after passing some specific examinations.

76. Access to higher education is organised in the following way: to enter university it is necessary to pass the PAAU (Examination of Aptitude for University Entrance). A high proportion of pupils (79% in the year 2004) pass the PAAU, although the relevance of the mark obtained in the PAAU consists in that once averaged with marks obtained in the Baccalaureate it establishes the order of entrance to the institutions and degrees that the student has previously chosen in the preregistration process. In a situation like the current one, in which the population that is potentially a user of higher education is decreasing considerably, the effect of the marks in deciding access to a determined course and institution is not general; in many courses the mark demanded is only a pass mark (50%).

77. The vocational branch of higher education, the CFGS, also starts at 18 years of age and has one or two years duration. Currently, to enter this branch it is necessary to have the certificate of baccalaureate (post-compulsory secondary academic education); nevertheless, as it is with the CFGM, it is possible to join the CFGS after passing specific examinations. Since the year 2000 the Central Administration has also allowed the Autonomous Communities to authorise transfers from the CFGM to the CFGS for those pupils that pass some complementary training modules (a “bridging course”). This possibility was not considered in the LOGSE and, in fact, is contrary to the original design, in which the continuity between Baccalaureate and CFGS is emphasised.

78. There has been a very rapid expansion of the CFGS courses in recent years. As can be seen from Indicator 5, students of CFGS represented only 2% of the total number of students in higher education in 1996: in 2002 this percentage had become 11.7%. It is still a comparatively small proportion but it is foreseeable that it will continue to grow in coming years. It is also foreseeable that this growth will have favourable effects on the participation of lower income groups.

79. The distribution by type of study of CFGM and CFGS students can be observed in table a.4.4. Significant gender differences persist in the type of study chosen. In CFGM, for example, some studies have a very low percentage of women -such as vehicle maintenance (1.5%), production maintenance and services (2.2%), mechanical manufacture (3.4%), electrical installation and electronics (3.5%)-, while in others there is high participation: personal image (96%), socio-cultural and community services (90.7%), health (83.9%), and textiles, garments and leather (75.2%) -MEC (2004b)-

80. Issues relating to the “second chance” programmes in Spain will now be described and evaluated. Specifically, the PGS (Social Guarantee Programmes) and the PDC (Curricular Diversification Programmes) will be considered.

81. The PGS were created by the LOGSE (1990). These are programmes (of between 6 and 18 months) directed towards young people over 16 years and under 21 years that have not acquired the qualification of Graduate of Secondary Education and who do not possess any vocational training

physical, psychological or sensory handicap of the parents, siblings of the pupil or the pupil’s guardian and, finally, any other relevant circumstance justifiably considered by the competent body of the institution according to objective criteria.

qualification. Their objective is to improve the general training of the students and equip them to carry out certain trades and jobs, and to comply with certain vocational profiles. Their general features are:

- The programmes are provided in secondary schools and other educational institutions maintained with public funds (68.6% of students in PGS attend public institutions, see Table a.4.5) and, as well as the Autonomous Communities, local governments and non-profit private entities can provide them.
- At the end of the programme the student does not receive a qualification, but a certificate. This prevents the students of PGS from entering the CFGM.
- Some modes of PGS are compatible with a work contract.
- The number of students per group is less than that of ESO. Each group of students is attended by two teachers.
- The study plan is concentrated on vocational aspects.

82. It can be seen in Table a.4.5 that in the academic year 2001-2002 the number of students in PGS was 43,916; its importance in relation to the education system varies considerably between Autonomous Communities (see Table a.4.6). There has been a rapid increase in the number of students in the PGS in recent years: in 1995 there were only 13,996 students registered. Seventy percent of the students of PGS, according to a study by Comisiones Obreras (2001), come from working families with few skills.

83. The PGS are often criticised because of their lack of integration with the rest of the education system, and more precisely because they do not allow access to the CFGM, which would contribute to the prestige of these programmes and make them more attractive to students. The report of the Consejo Escolar del Estado (2004) points in this direction, in the same way as a study by Comisiones Obreras (2001). The latter report is especially critical, describing the PGS as a “third branch” (separated from the Baccalaureate and the CFGM) that trains for low skills and precarious employment¹⁹. Comisiones Obreras (2001) defends the reform of the PGS and its orientation towards the Danish model in which the “second chance” programmes allow recognised qualifications to be obtained and are focused on returning young people to the education system. Vélaz de Medrano (2004) also supports the requirement that the PGS grant qualifications that are valid for introduction to work that do not stigmatise their bearers.

84. The PDC (Curricular Diversification Programmes) are oriented by the LOGSE and its complete regulation was in 1996²⁰. They are programmes of one or (preferably) two years that lead to the qualification of Graduate of ESO (unlike the PGS). The population to which it is directed is composed of pupils of 16 or more years, who have not obtained the objectives of the ESO in their previous courses. On the proposal of the group of teachers and the Department of Orientation of the institution, a specific curriculum is prepared for these pupils, that is different in each institution. The size of the groups in PDC cannot exceed 15 pupils.

85. The LOCE (2002) substituted the PGS and the PDC with the PIP (Vocational Initiation Programmes). In spite of this the moratorium on the majority of the articles of the LOCE has meant the continuity of the PGS and the PDC. The Vocational Initiation Programmes, as they are defined in the

¹⁹ It can be seen in Table a.4.7 that, effectively, the situation on the labour market of students who have passed through the PGS is not good: their unemployment rate, for example, is above that of any other level of education for both sexes.

²⁰ Resolution April 12th, 1996 (BOE May, 3rd).

LOCE, would allow students to gain the qualification of Graduate of ESO and, in that way, to continue studying in Baccalaureate or in the CFGM.

86. The high levels of school failure in ESO are what justify special attention to “second chance” programmes. According to the data provided by Marchesi (2003a), the percentage of students that did not reach the objectives of compulsory education or its equivalent at 16 years was 25.6% in 2001 (the equivalent figures were 37% in 1989 and 26.7% in 1996). This percentage is greater than the average for the EU-15, which was 22% in 1996 (Marchesi and Hernández, 2003). The percentage of school failure in Spain is significantly greater in men than in women, and great differences exist between Autonomous Communities (see Table a.4.8).

87. Among the factors that influence school failure there are a significant group of socio-economic factors (as much of the institution as of the family of the student - see Tiana 2002a -). In Marchesi and Lucena (2003) and Marchesi et al. (forthcoming) the low school performance can be confirmed of pupils in ESO belonging to low level socio-cultural contexts, as well as their greater presence in the PGS. In addition the school failure of ethnic gypsy pupils is very high, reaching figures between 60% and 70% (see CNICE, 2004).

88. Information about the education system, its possibilities and its benefits are not distributed homogeneously among different social groups. This situation, which appears in a generalised form in all countries, is perhaps especially serious in Spain with regard to post-compulsory education. Significant sectors of society do not have adequate information to take decisions about their continuing or not in post-compulsory education; stereotypes and the lack of visibility of the benefits of education cause early leaving.

89. To understand school failure it is necessary not to lose sight of factors related to the type of educational process that takes place inside the institutions. The main style of teaching in Spain, characterised by theoretical explanations and the acquisition of concepts seems less appropriate for the reduction of school failure than functional, applied education, where learning procedures are also taught (see Marchesi, 2003a). In addition, the proliferation of tasks assigned to the teachers (monitoring of the students, orientation of the parents, sharing experiences with other institutions - joint networks - , relations with social institutions, etc.) has meant that an excessive workload has weakened the teaching work.

90. The public institutions have especially suffered from the tensions caused by the reform of secondary education during the 1990s. Generally, the private institutions have had comparative advantages (with regard to the type of user and resources available) in the reform process. For secondary institutions, the entrance of pupils at 12 years (that attended EGB institutions before) has meant important changes.

91. The training profile of teachers in the secondary institutions has been demonstrated to be unsuitable in the face of the changes in the users, due to its excessively academic nature; the training of teachers has not been effective enough in solving this problem. And, as was pointed out in the Metropolitan Strategic Plan of Barcelona (2004), one of the difficulties of the secondary institutions was their lack of management: no professional career of school management has been developed and neither have the most efficient school heads been incentivated professionally or through their working conditions.

92. The quality of the centres varies considerably in different parts of the country. It has been pointed out previously (sections 1.3 and 1.4) how public expenditure per unit is very variable between Autonomous Communities. This means that the results also vary, although they do not do so to the same degree as expenditure. The slight difference can be seen in Table a.2.4 in scores in PISA between the average for the whole state and the scores in the three Autonomous Communities with an expanded sample. An additional

factor that increases inequalities between Autonomous Communities is the supplementary resources that these provide for grant programmes (see section 5.2.1 of this report).

93. This section will be completed by referring to the distribution of opportunities for learning for adults. The level of previous studies and socio-economic origin have a noticeable influence on probabilities of participating in the system of education or training. It can be seen in Table 4.9 that probabilities of following a course of study are directly proportional to the courses of study followed previously, being especially concentrated in people who already have a university qualification. This seems logical in formal education, but not so much for continuous or occupational training. In Table a.4.10 it can also be seen how opportunities for learning are concentrated in SEC I and II.

4.3. Economic barriers

94. This section will be divided into two areas selected from those suggested in the guidelines of the CAR: in 4.3.1 the system of incentives will be dealt with that, in terms of wages, the Spanish labour market provides in relation to levels of education, and in 4.3.2 an applied analysis will be presented on the distributive incidence of educational resources in the secondary and higher levels of education.

4.3.1. Wage incentives and education

95. The specific characteristics of the Spanish labour market affect the group of incentives that students have when taking decisions about their education, and tend to broaden inequities that already exist when they leave the education system. It can be seen how the labour market rewards the various levels of qualification. To do so Indicator 16 should be used, where the salary levels of employees appear according to their level of education (on this occasion this is a bivariate approach, simpler than the multivariate wage premium presented in Tables a.2.7 and a.2.8). The existence of various relevant patterns can be confirmed.

- The wage premium corresponding to vocational studies (ISCED3B and ISCED5B) is very small. Specifically, for ISCED3B (vocational secondary studies) the premium in relation to ISCED0 is 39%, much less than that of ISCED3A (68%). It seems more remarkable that the premium of ISCED5B (higher vocational studies), which is 63%, is also lower than the premium for ISCED3A. The economic incentives to study in vocational programmes are, in Spain, limited²¹.
- The wage differences between men and women, when the level of education is equal, are very high, although they are inversely proportional to the level of education reached. The proportion between the wages of women and men is 1 to 1.75 for ISCED0 and 1 to 1.5 for ISCED5A-6. Logically, this treatment (where, in addition, the annual wage is considered and not the hourly wage, which prevents differences being found caused by the differing working-hours of men and women) does not allow the delimitation of the isolated effect of gender on wage formation and is only a preliminary approach. Nevertheless, in multivariate approaches significant differences continue to be found, though smaller, between the wages of men and women.
- At all levels of education the wage premium is greater for women than it is for men. This is partly explained by the very low wage level of unqualified women (ISCED0).
- The educational wage premium for post-compulsory secondary education as a whole is modest. The premium increases considerably for higher education, especially for long degrees (ISCED5A-6). Therefore the wage system does not incentivate an attitude where post-

²¹ Although this statement can be qualified if we take into account the fact that the probabilities of being unemployed for those qualified by these programmes is comparatively small.

compulsory secondary education is seen as a final stage, but rather one where it is seen as a necessary transition to higher education.

- The great dispersion of wage premiums between the various Autonomous Communities seems very remarkable. In Indicator 6 we find the following example: the range of wage premiums for ISCED5A-6 goes between 71% (for Cantabria and Castile and Leon) and 268% (for Madrid). This indicates that a powerful segmentation exists in the labour market, not only the primary and secondary market but also between different regions. These segmentations impede homogeneous payment for identical levels of education.
- There is one particular fact that cannot be shown in Indicator 16 that deserves to be mentioned. This is the acute difference, in the Spanish labour market, between insiders and outsiders: one group of older workers, with lower levels of education, have a consolidated position in the Spanish labour market (insiders), while the access of outsiders, of a lower age and with better educational qualifications, to better-paid permanent positions remains seriously limited.

4.3.2 An analysis of the distributive effect of educational expenditure in Spain

96. For this section two analyses have been carried out of the effect of public expenditure on education in Spain: the first of these refers to secondary education and the second to higher education. The analyses presented here have been made using data from the *Encuestas de Presupuestos Familiares* (Family Budget Surveys) for the years 1980 and 1990, from here on EPF-80 and EPF-90 respectively, and the ECHP-96. This is a partial equilibrium analysis. The benefits of public expenditure on education are distributed in relation to the receipt of transferences (in the case of grants) and in relation to the use of services and the budgetary cost of these, without allowing either the subjective evaluations of the users or the benefits that the services can bring in the long term to enter. In Annex 1 some technical explanations about the analysis can be found²².

The results for secondary education

97. In Graph a.4.1 the concentration curves appear for 1980, 1990, and 1996 of public expenditure on secondary education (service); the population has been ordered according to equivalent disposable income. The curves show a slight regressiveness, in as far as their lines are placed below the diagonal (a curve that coincides with the diagonal would indicate total equality, independent of income, in the distribution of the service). In Graph a.4.1 it can similarly be seen that in the period that the analysis covers the regressiveness of the distribution has diminished.

98. The pattern of distribution of expenditure can be summarised in the indices of concentration that appear in Table a.4.11. The indices go from 0.21 in 1980 to 0.06 in 1996 (the value 0 would represent distributive neutrality, that is to say, it would correspond to the concentration curve that is superimposed on the diagonal). With regard to the distribution of expenditure in secondary education grants, the indices of which can also be found in Table a.4.12 for the years 1990 and 1996²³, the slight regressiveness that it was characterised by in 1990 was converted into progressiveness in 1996.

99. In Table a.4.11 the Kakwani indices also appear applied to the distribution of expenditure on service and expenditure on grants (see Annex 1 for an explanation of Kakwani indices). The indices for

²² A more complete methodological explanation of a similar analysis applied to data for 1980 and 1990 can be found in Calero and Bonal (1999), Chap. 10.

²³ It does not seem possible to obtain information about the quantities of the grants for secondary education from the data of EPF-80.

expenditure on secondary education (service) increase from 0.09 to 0.25; these results show a *relative* progressiveness (in relation to initial income) of the distribution of the service. The concentration index of expenditure on grants for secondary education go from a positive value (0.1) in 1990 to a negative value (-0.24) in 1996, which is reflected in the Kakwani index going from 0.1967 to 0.5668.

The results for higher education

100. In Graph a.4.2 the line of the concentration curves can be seen for higher education (with the population ordered according to equivalent disposable income). This line corresponds to a distribution that is considerably more regressive than in the case of secondary education (a line more distant from the diagonal, that indicates equality in the distribution of the service). The curves, also in this case, have been moving nearer to the diagonal over the years.

101. In Table a.4.12 concentration indices are presented that decrease from 0.44 to 0.24 between 1980 and 1996, reflecting the evolution of the lines of the curves that has been mentioned. This means that the Kakwani index of progressiveness changes sign in the period analysed, becoming positive in 1996 (the distribution becomes more progressive than that of initial income).

102. The values of the concentration indices for expenditure on grants are positive for the three years, which indicates a *regressive* distribution (although in 1996 the index is practically equal to 0). This regressiveness is remarkable in a type of expenditure the principal function of which is to ensure equality of opportunities, its expected distribution consequently being considerably more progressive. The corresponding Kakwani indices go from a value close to 0 in 1980 to 0.319.

4.4. Social and cultural barriers

103. Three specific aspects of the issue have been selected for this section that introduce social and cultural barriers into the Spanish education system. This selection does not have the intention of exhausting a subject that could be very extensive. Firstly there is pre-primary education and its deficiencies in the case of Spain (section 4.4.1), secondly, the possibility of choosing between public institutions and subsidised private institutions (4.4.2) and finally, the inequities generated by the arrival of immigrants in the Spanish education system (4.4.3).

4.4.1 Pre-primary education

104. In recent years there has been an increase in access to pre-primary education that has allowed its practical universalisation to be achieved from the age of three years²⁴ (see Tables a.4.13 and a.4.14). Nevertheless the rate of schooling for the group under three years is still low (13.7%). The differences between Autonomous Communities with regard to schooling of the 0-2 years level are noticeable, as can be seen in Table a.4.15. The differences in the participation of the public sector are also noticeable at this level, the average being 45.2%, considerably less than that for children of three years.

105. In the last few years the increase in demand for pre-primary education has grown sharply. The factors that have influenced this increase the most have been the rise in the female activity rate, the changes in the structure of families (weakening family networks) and the increase, since the beginning of the century, of fertility due to the arrival of the immigrant population and a slight recovery of the fertility of the native Spanish population (see González, 2004). The increase in the demand for pre-primary

²⁴ According to González (2004), this is due as much to a real increase in the number of children schooled as the progressive regularisation of the pre-primary educational institutions.

education has created a significant deficit of quality public places²⁵, that is distributed very irregularly over Spain, depending not only on the Community of residence, but also on the level of intervention of the exact municipality of residence.

106. As González (2004) points out this deficit not only causes losses of economic efficiency but also equity problems. The losses of efficiency are generated by the difficulty that mothers have in staying in the active population and also by not achieving the probable greater economic performance of children attended to in educational institutions. The losses in equity are related to the fact that early exclusion from the education service affects mothers with low incomes and their children (who lose later educational opportunities) more seriously.

4.4.2 Selection in the subsidised private sector

107. The system of agreements that allows private primary and secondary institutions to receive public finance has important quasi-market elements. The financing of the institutions “follows” the choices of the users. Public financing is granted to the private institutions in the form of an economic module for school unit, in such a way that the cost-free requisite is fulfilled for the family, that the remuneration of the teachers is similar in private and public institutions and finally that the pupil/teacher ratio is between a certain minimum and maximum value. The objective of these conditions is to ensure a certain level of competition between public and private institutions, avoiding the possibility that educational processes of a higher quality than those that public institutions can offer would be financed from public funds. The regulations about access to the subsidised institutions is “anti-selection”: these are common regulations with the public institutions that attempt to avoid *cream-skimming* by the subsidised institutions.

108. Nevertheless, in reality selection based on three factors occurs. Firstly there is the location of the subsidised institutions, usually in high-income neighbourhoods; secondly it occurs through the non-fulfilment of the cost-free condition in many of the subsidised institutions and finally through irregular processes in admissions through which the institutions very often manage to avoid the entrance of children of low-income families. The existence of these irregular methods, such as charging complementary fees or discriminatory practices in access, is an open secret.

109. It has been the middle-classes that have largely benefited from the ability of the subsidised institutions in Spain to select. With different intensity according to Autonomous Community, since the middle of the 1990s the participation of subsidised private institutions has increased in primary and secondary schooling. This can principally be explained by the search for a “refuge” with which the middle classes have reacted to important changes in the education system. These are, on the one hand, the arrival of new immigrant pupils and, on the other, the effects of the educational reform generated by the LOGSE (1990), that prolonged compulsory education to 16 years, keeping pupils in the institutions from social groups that traditionally left the education system at 14 years. It is, in this way, the public institutions and their users who have supported - are supporting - most intensely the most acute recent problems of the Spanish education system.

4.4.3 Immigration and educational inequity

110. A very large increase in the immigrant population occurred in Spain between 1990 (361,000) and 2005 (3.5 million). In 2005 it is expected, based on the Regulation approved by the government in December 2004, that there will be a new regularisation of 800,000 foreign nationals. In 2005 the immigrant population will represent 8% of the total population, when it was only 1% in 1991. In recent years Spain

²⁵ There still exists, at the 0-3 years level, a good quantity of low quality private institutions, with weak educational direction.

has been the European country with the third highest rate of growth of immigration, very especially in the period from 1997 until now. This process has directly affected the Spanish education system, that in the school year 2003-2004 (see Table a.4.16) attended almost 400,000 foreign students in the non-university levels. In some Autonomous Communities, such as Catalonia (with 19.3%) or Madrid (with 24.3%), the education system is absorbing very high percentages of foreign pupils²⁶.

111. The origin of the foreign pupils has also changed significantly. Developments since 1995-1996 (Table a.4.17) indicate an ever greater presence of Latin American pupils, while the proportional presence of pupils from Africa (essentially North Africans) has fallen to 18.8%²⁷.

112. Foreign pupils have become concentrated, as was mentioned in the previous section, in public institutions, due to the intensification of the selection in the subsidised institutions when dealing with immigrant pupils. Table a.4.18 shows that 79.3% of foreign ESO pupils (89% in Baccalaureate) are schooled in public institutions²⁸. The situation in all of the Autonomous Communities and at all levels is the over-representation of foreign pupils in public institutions. This has led to the “ghettoisation” of some school institutions, where it is difficult to provide quality schooling in an environment where many pupils do not know the official language or languages, where many foreign pupils enter, recently arrived in the country, when the school year has already started and where, in addition, the previous schooling in the country of origin may have been deficient²⁹. This situation of segregation is detrimental not only for the foreign pupils schooled in public institutions where the level of quality is going down, but also, as is logical, for the native Spanish pupils that remain in the centres, which reinforces the processes of conflict and stigmatisation (see, for example, Funes, 1999).

113. With regard to the process of education of foreign pupils, the situation of inequity and deficiency can clearly be seen in Table a.4.19, where the results are summarised, referring to the indicators of participation in the Data Annex, corresponding to foreign pupils in comparison with native Spanish pupils. At all the educational levels, the participation rates of the foreign nationals are considerably less than those corresponding to Spanish nationals, the existence being especially remarkable of a difference of almost 24 percentage points in the participation rate for post-compulsory secondary education. This situation contributes to deepening the problem of the lack of skills in the active population in Spain. In addition, as was mentioned in section 2.4, the PISA-2003 scores of the foreign pupils were significantly below the scores of native Spanish pupils, this difference being more pronounced than the average difference in the countries of the OECD.

²⁶ In 2000, through the Organic Law 8/2000, the situation of foreign pupils in the Spanish education system was regularised by recognising that “all foreigners of less than 18 years have the right and duty to education on the same conditions as Spanish nationals, a right that includes access to basic education, free and compulsory, and the obtention of the corresponding academic qualifications and access to the public system of grants and support”.

²⁷ This trend offers the advantage for the education system, as the Defensor del Pueblo (2003) pointed out, that Latin American pupils obtain better school results than the average foreign pupil because they speak Spanish.

²⁸ For the whole population, attendance to public institutions is of 65.5% in ESO and 74.9% in baccalaureate.

²⁹ It should also be considered that, often, not all the members of a family arrive simultaneously in the country; in these cases it can occur that the first children that the family send to Spain are those that have the most educational and/or health needs.

SECTION IV: POLICIES, PROGRAMMES AND INITIATIVES

CHAPTER 5: ACTIVE EDUCATIONAL POLICIES BEARING ON EQUITY

114. In policies directed towards creating equity in education universalising elements and specifically focused elements cohabit in Spain. Among the first the principle of comprehensiveness, reinforced by the LOGSE (1990), stands out. This principle meshes with other universalising elements present in the welfare state and, principally, with universal access to the National Health System. The specifically focused programmes are aimed at priority groups such as students with low incomes (in the case of the grants system), students with low performance in the ESO and the immigrant population.

115. The responsibilities with regard to these policies are segmented into different administrative areas. The universalising elements depend to a large extent on the basic educational regulations and are applied all over Spain. Some specifically focused programmes, of compensatory education, are also the responsibility of the central administration. Nevertheless, it is the Autonomous Communities that in recent years have most strongly developed specifically focused programmes, especially in the area of compensatory education and attention to the immigrant population.

5.1. Policies and strategies directed towards the population as a whole attended at a determined level of education

116. The following are significant:

- Comprehensiveness: the age at which pupils choose itineraries is 16 years, one of the latest in the OECD countries.
- Cost-free status: the institutions maintained with public funds (of public or private ownership) are cost-free at the compulsory 6-16 years stage, and the pre-primary education stage from 3-6 years (since the LOCE -2002). The Autonomous Communities receive, since 2005, financing to cover the cost-free status of pre-primary education; the decision concerning how to finance this level of education (through public institutions or agreements with private schools) falls on the Autonomous Communities.
- Integration: pupils with special needs attend the same institutions and classrooms that the rest of pupils, with only the exception of the extreme cases.
- The regulation against the selection of users in public and subsidised private schools. This regulation covers all of Spain.
- The implicit subsidy in the price of university education. The fees paid by the students cover around 17% of the total cost of the education. This is a subsidy with clear regressive effects (in

relation to access to this level by social groups), although it has favoured the process of democratising access to a university education in the last thirty years.

5.2. Policies and strategies focused on specific sub-groups

5.2.1 The system of grants and educational loans

117. The greater part of the resources of the Spanish grant system are currently administered by the MEC (with the exception of the Basque Country, where it has been administered autonomously since the beginning of the 1980s); the basic regulation of the system of grants and support also depends on the central administration. Nevertheless, it is foreseen that the administration of the system will soon be decentralised, to comply with a judgement of the Constitutional Court³⁰. The Autonomous Communities have been able, nevertheless, to develop their own programmes of grants and support, at non-university as well as at university levels. The size of these programmes, that with exceptions are small, can be seen in Table a.5.1

118. The university level receives around two-thirds of the total resources of the grant system. Focusing on the grant programme of the MEC, its aggregate rate of coverage at the university level for the academic year 2001-2002 was 18% (it was 20% in 1995 and had fallen to 15% in 2000). The rate of coverage of the programme varies greatly between the different Autonomous Communities, as is reflected in Table a.5.2. There is an inversely proportional relation between the level of per capita income and the rate of coverage of the system. This programme is of a limited size. It also has limited efficiency, especially in its redistributive aspect, as can be seen in the incidence analysis presented in section 4.3.2. The principal cause of these problems stems from the fact that the programme is adapted to the social reality of the 1980s (the programme was developed in 1983) but does not correspond to the current situation, and an in-depth reform is needed.

119. Since the academic year 1999-2000, and as a complement to the process of an open catchment area, the MEC provided mobility grants for those students who followed university courses outside their Autonomous Communities: the quantities of these grants, in the cases where a change of residence was necessary, was between 2,767 and 4,668 euros.

120. Through the experimental loans programme, established by the MEC since the 1998-1999 academic year, university students can apply for a loan from commercial financial institutions, of up to 4,200 euros per year (in the academic year 2003-2004). For students who reach a certain level of academic results the Ministry acts as guarantor. The conditions of the loan include a repayment period of three years, after a year free of repayments, and a subsidised interest rate (the subsidy covers around 70% of the interest rates)³¹. The aggregate cost of this programme in the academic year 2001-2002 was 709,194 euros. This programme coexists with other smaller ones, organised by some autonomous governments and by universities.

121. This section will be concluded with a brief reference to the system of grants and support at the non-university level. The relevance of this system within the mechanisms of financing for education as a whole is extremely limited. The volume of expenditure dedicated to grants and support by the MEC is hardly above 1% of the total of public expenditure on non-university education. This figure indicates a significant lack of attention, within the design of education policy, to the system of grants for the non-

³⁰ Sentence 188/2001.

³¹ This programme was applied following an initial proposal from the Universities Council, in 1995. It seems remarkable that other alternatives were not taken into account based on repayments associated with income, in spite of the advantages (in the area of equity and the reduction of disincentives) of these alternatives.

university levels. In my opinion this situation should be corrected with the objective of increasing the low rates of post-compulsory schooling.

Characteristics of the MECD grant system

The characteristics of the two MECD programmes of grants (general programme for university and non-university levels and the mobility programme) are summarised in this box.

General announcement of grants and subsidies for study³² at non-university post-compulsory levels and university students following courses in their Autonomous Community. Academic Year 2004-2005

1. Economic requirements: Family income thresholds (euros)

	Access to grant	Access to compensatory grant
One member families	7,114	2,479
Two “ ”	11,589	4,784
Three “ ”	15,219	6,960
Four “ ”	18,052	9,271
Five “ ”	20,486	11,164
Six “ “ ”	22,836	13,397
Seven “ “ ”	25,057	15,625
Eight “ “ ”	27,265	17,855

2. Academic requirements

2.1. Higher education studies:

Average mark required:

- For the first registration in the first year of the first course: University entrance mark equal or above 5 points, or 5 points average marks in the final year of Vocational Training or Baccalaureate.

- In the remaining cases:

- In Technical Education studies: 4 points average mark.

- In other university and higher education studies: 5 points average mark.

Subjects not passed: The grant may be renewed with a maximum of three subjects not passed (in the case of Technical Education) or with a maximum of one subject not passed in the rest of the cases.

2.2 Secondary studies:

Average mark required:

- For the first year of each level: to fulfill the requirements set for registration on these courses.

- For the remaining years, 5 points between the examinations in June and September, even though the student has one remaining subject not passed.

³² Order of 10 June 2004, in which grants and subsidies are announced for general studies for the academic year 2004-2005, for students at non-university post-compulsory levels and university students following courses in their Autonomous Community.

Grants are not given to students who are repeating a year.

3. Quantity (euros)

The various components are added together (if granted)

Grant for registration: free registration. Quantity in relation to the cost.

Compensatory grant: varying between 1,198 and 2,348 euros depending on the type of studies.

Travel grant: varying between 152 and 771 euros depending on the kilometres travelled.

Grant for residence outside the family home: varying between 1,756 and 2,466 euros depending on the type of studies.

Grant for study material: varying between 126 and 199 euros depending on the type of studies.

Announcement of mobility grants³³ for university students following courses outside their Autonomous Community. Year 2004-2005.

1. Economic requirements: Family income thresholds (euros)

	Access to grant	Access to compensatory grant
One member families	9,749	2,479
Two “ ”	16,681	4,784
Three “ ”	22,636	6,960
Four “ ”	27,062	9,271
Five “ ”	30,058	11,164
Six “ “ ”	32,429	13,397
Seven “ ”	34,766	15,625
Eight “ ”	37,095	17,855

2. Academic requirements

The same as those corresponding to the general announcement in the case of higher education studies.

3. Quantity (euros)

General grant – mobility with residence	2,961
Special grant – mobility with residence	4,995
General grant – mobility without residence	1,487
Special grant – mobility without residence	3,520

³³ Order of 11 June 2004, in which grants for mobility are announced, for the academic year 2004-2005, for university students following courses outside their Autonomous Community.

5.2.2. Compensatory education programmes

122. In the year 2001, public expenditure on compensatory education made by all the administrations reached 105.4 million euros, 0.52% of public expenditure on non-university education. In Table a.5.3 a break down of the total expenditure appears in relation to the public administrations. It can be seen that the largest part of the expenditure is made by Autonomous Communities, and that a great disparity exists in the levels of budgetary effort that they make. Autonomous Communities such as Andalusia and Castile and Leon stand out, where compensatory education programmes are important.

123. The compensatory education programmes administered by the MEC are the following:

- Programmes of intercultural education: Portuguese language and culture; itinerant classrooms in circuses; attention to immigrants; ethnic gypsy education; teaching of Arabic and Moroccan culture.
- MUS-E (education in tolerance and solidarity values through the development of artistic activities in the schools).

124. As far as the compensatory education programmes carried out by the different autonomous governments are concerned, Table a.5.4 shows a summary of their areas of action. All the Autonomous Communities have their own programmes of attention to ethnic minorities, as well as hospital classrooms and attention in the home. In the greater part of these social disadvantage programmes (in urban areas), actions in the rural environment, programmes to combat school truancy and support programmes for pupils who are significantly out of phase with the curriculum are carried out.

5.2.3. Some examples of specific programmes directed to the immigrant population

125. Some examples will be briefly described, in this section, of specific programmes implemented by the Autonomous Communities of Madrid and Catalonia, directed to the immigrant population. These two Autonomous Communities have been selected because in them the immigrant population is having a particular effect on the education system.

Programmes in the Community of Madrid

- Itinerant Support Service for the immigrant pupil (SAI). This functions since the academic year 2000-2001 with the object of providing assessment and support services to institutions to assist in the entry of immigrant pupils who do not understand Spanish. It is directed towards public and subsidised private institutions for their compulsory stages. In each centre the SAI support teachers attend a maximum of 15 pupils. In the first year of functioning the service had 20 teachers (CSCO, 2002).
- Transition Classes, within the programme “Welcoming Schools”, that functions since the academic year 2002-2003 in ESO and in the second and third cycle of primary education in public institutions and subsidised private institutions. These classes (each has a maximum of 12 pupils) have the object of facilitating the entrance of the immigrant pupil who, either does not understand Spanish or is very much out of phase with the curriculum as a result of a lack of previous schooling. The pupils remain in the Transition Classes during a maximum period of 6 consecutive months, over one or two academic years.
- Immigrant pupils who require it can also participate in the general programme of compensatory education of the Community of Madrid.

- The Autonomous Community compiles translations of the most frequently used documents in educational institutions, such as applications for admission, announcements of subsidies for the school dining-room, application for participation in Transition Classes, etc.

Programmes in Catalonia

126. The current plan directed towards the integration of foreign pupils into the education system is framed within in the new interdepartmental immigration plan. The resources assigned to this for the academic year 2004-2005 are 35.5 million euros, and it includes the following actions:

- Reception classes: In ESO these may be a physical space, on other levels of education they are a set of strategies of the institution related with tutors, management of the curriculum time of the pupil, materials and communication with the family, etc.
- Adaptation Workshops: The pupils can go to an Adaptation Workshop in the morning and the institution where they are registered in the afternoon. The period spent in a Workshop cannot exceed one year. According to CSCO (2002), this practice segregates and is not very useful as the pupils learn better in the immersion that occurs when they are schooled in a group of native Spanish pupils.
- Here also there are translations to various languages of the most frequently used documents in educational institutions, such as applications for admission, etc., translations of teaching material as well as a translation and interpretation service for the schools.

5.3. Mechanisms available for the evaluation of equity programmes

127. There is no integrated system in Spain that allows equity in education programmes to be evaluated. The fact that these are decentralised to a great extent makes an integrated evaluation difficult. The relative novelty of the majority of these programmes together with the limited history of evaluation processes of education policy in Spain are factors that contribute to this situation.

128. The official body charged with compiling the “State System of Education Indicators”, from which diverse information can be obtained relating to educational inequity and the programmes related to it is the INECSE (National Institute for the Evaluation of the Quality of the Education System) that was until 2002 denominated the INCE (National Institute of Quality and Education). The publication of the State System of Education Indicators is biannual (see MECED, 2002), although the indicators will soon appear published on a website. Some Autonomous Communities have also developed their own systems of educational indicators.

129. The CIDE (Education Research and Documentation Centre) has promoted, on two occasions, the carrying out of a review of the Spanish education system from the perspective of its inequities (see, for the second, Grañeras et al., 1999). In these reviews very extensive quantitative information was also gathered.

CHAPTER 6: NON-EDUCATIONAL POLICIES THAT AFFECT OUTCOMES IN THE EDUCATION SECTOR

130. When dealing with the set of public policies that indirectly affect the functioning of the Spanish educational system, it is necessary to take into account the low intensity that is characteristic of the Spanish social welfare system. In aggregate quantitative terms, as can be seen in Table a.6.1, Spain dedicates 19.6% of its GDP in public expenditure on social welfare, while this same indicator reaches 24% in the case of the EU-15 and 21% for the countries of the OECD as a whole. In fact, in the EU-15, only Ireland and Italy reach a level of public expenditure on social welfare below that of Spain (see Calero and Costa, 2003).

131. The internal composition of public expenditure on social welfare is also characteristic in the Spanish case. On the one hand the balance between benefits in services and monetary benefits is decidedly inclined towards the second, more firmly than in the other countries in our surroundings. On the other hand, tax breaks for social purposes play an important part in the social welfare system, only surpassed in the Anglo-Saxon countries.

132. It can also be seen from Table a.6.1 that, in Spain, the type of welfare that is comparatively most deficient corresponds to two areas that especially affect the younger bands of the population, “Family” and “Housing”. In general, and as Esping-Andersen (1996) described for the continental model of welfare state (to which can be added, in a more qualified category, the southern European model), the Spanish social welfare system is directed especially towards older age groups, more resources being dedicated to areas of expenditure such as pensions and health services from which young people benefit relatively little.

133. As can be observed in relation to expenditure on education (see section 1.3), the low level of public financing promotes the growth of private expenditure, given its character as a substitute. This is so, in Spain, especially in the case of social services, the deficient coverage of which means that families have to confront a good part of their financing privately.

134. The two areas of social welfare that affect the educational process most are health and family welfare. With regard to health, with the General Health Law of 1986, a National Health System was created and access to health services was universalised. In 2000, free access to the health services for foreign nationals resident in Spain was regulated³⁴, a measure that directly affects the integration of immigrants and, specifically, their children. The levels of public expenditure that this universalisation has meant are growing, although currently the budgetary effort that public health expenditure represents is still below that of the average for the EU-15 and the average for countries of the OECD.

135. With regard to family welfare, we have already seen, in Table a.6.1, the low level of public expenditure that this receives. Family welfare adopts the form of services, such as centres for the care of dependents - children or old people -, or monetary benefits, such as maternity leave or the support assigned to families with small children. Let us pay attention for a moment to family welfare in the form of services.

³⁴ Through Article 12 of the Organic Law 4/2000, of 11 January, on the rights and liberties of foreign nationals in Spain and their social integration, where it is recognised that “Foreigners who are in Spain registered in the municipality in which they habitually reside, have the right to health services on the same conditions as Spanish nationals”.

This area of welfare has been called the “fourth leg” of the welfare state (the other three being pensions, health and education) and is, in the Spanish case, a very frail area. This weakness unbalances the structure of the welfare state as a whole and, furthermore, the economy as a whole. In effect, the costs that are not assumed by the public sector in the care of dependents are absorbed by families and especially by women. As is well known, this means that the possibility of making motherhood and work compatible is made difficult³⁵. It also generates high social costs in terms of the illnesses suffered by women in relation to stress, as Navarro and Quiroga (2003) point out. Because they are labour intensive social services, the scarcity of the supply of this type of service is a factor that contributes to difficulties in creating jobs. To sum up, the scarcity of social services not only means a burden in the area of justice and, specifically, of the equity of opportunities, but also in the area of efficiency.

136. In relation to the monetary benefits in support of families, until the year 2002 the only one that existed was maternity leave, that covered a period of 16 weeks, below the average for the EU-15 which in 2003 was 29 weeks³⁶. In recent years new monetary benefits have been developed: in the state as a whole there is an income tax deduction³⁷ that affects mothers that work outside the home who have children under three years. This deduction is 100 euros a month and can be received in advance. Some Autonomous Communities, in turn, have also introduced support programmes for families with children in the form of monetary transfers.

137. Also depending on the Autonomous Communities, there are in Spain, since the beginning of the 1990s, various income maintenance programmes, which are called generically “minimum income integration programmes” (see Ayala, 2000). These are non-contributory support programmes, that are means-tested, through which some households receive small monetary benefits (usually under 300 euros). The system of non-contributory income maintenance is formed, therefore, by these “minimum income integration programmes” and by the whole set of monetary support benefits (non-contributory pensions, non-contributory unemployment benefits, etc.) of the Social Security, that affect the whole of the State.

³⁵ In recent years in Spain the balance between maternity and access to the labour market for women has moved noticeably towards the second: while the fertility rates have hardly recovered, the female activity rate (referring to the population over 16 years) has grown rapidly, being 45.09% in 2004 (source: EPA), very close to the EU-15 average (47.66%). The activity rate for both sexes is 56.07%, also very close to that of the EU-15 (56.46%).

³⁶ Spain is situated among a group of continental countries, with Germany, Belgium, France, Austria, and Holland where leave ranges between 14 and 16 weeks. At the other extreme there are countries like Italy (47 weeks), Finland (44) Denmark (50) and Sweden (96).

³⁷ Law 46/2002 with which the Tax on Income of Physical Persons was partially modified.

SECTION V: CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND ASSESSMENTS

7.1. Principal problems in the area of inequity that should be confronted with education policies in Spain

- Weakness of the supply of pre-primary institutions. In the band between 3 and 5 years, this is relevant in the public institutions. In the band between 0 and 3 years, the scarcity of institutions affects the public ones as well as the private.
- Access to post-compulsory secondary education is very limited. This means a bottleneck with consequences not only in the area of the productive processes, but also for equity. The participation of lower income groups (belonging to a large extent to SEC IV and V) and that of immigrants is very limited at this level and, as a consequence, in higher education. This problem of access is especially severe in the case of men.
- School failure is highly frequent and its distribution is concentrated in low income groups. This is one of the causes of the difficulty in access to post-compulsory secondary education.
- The dualisation of the education system. There is a growing separation between a network of subsidised private institutions where the middle class “take refuge”, and a network of public institutions that receive a very high proportion of immigrant boys and girls and pupils with a low academic performance. This dualisation is due as much to the type of demand made by the middle class (seeking the ability to choose and improvements in the quality of complementary services, among others) as to a lack of dynamism in the public supply with regard to improvements in quality. This process reinforces the existence of patterns of inequity in school failure between different social groups.
- The rapid arrival of immigrants is concentrated in determined institutions. The ability of the subsidised private institutions to select has meant that that, in ESO and in the school year 2003-2004, 79.3% of foreign pupils studied in public institutions (for the whole population this figure is 65.5). Some of these, situated in areas where the number of immigrants received is very high, are supporting excessive tensions.
- Vocational studies, especially at the secondary level (CFGM) maintain very low levels of prestige and quality. Taking into account that access to the CFGM is strongly biased in relation to socio-economic origin, the CFGM constitute a low quality option for “low quality” students.
- The educational expenditure policies of the different Autonomous Communities, that essentially depend on financing capacity and the presence of the private sector, has in recent

years meant the existence of levels of unit expenditure (and therefore quality) that are very unequal.

- The need to complement learning with additional classes, as occurs, for example, with foreign languages or information technology introduces inequities even between pupils in similar institutions.

7.2. Weaknesses and strengths of current policies and practices on the issue of educational inequity

138. Among the weaknesses the following stand out:

- Lack of ability to incentivate access to post-compulsory secondary education, especially among the most disfavoured groups. Although the barriers to access are not essentially economic, it should be underlined that the system of grants at this level is very limited.
- The inexistence of support programmes, at the level of pre-primary education, for children from a disfavoured social origin.
- Deficiencies in the school curriculum, specifically in the learning of foreign languages, the mathematical language and information technology, that prevent the equalising ability of the processes that take place inside the institutions to reach all their potential.
- Difficulties in ensuring the fulfilment, in the subsidised private institutions, of the regulation with regard to the cost-free status of the teaching and with regard to the non-selective admission process.
- The existence of “second opportunity” programmes that do not allow re-entry into the education system (as is the case with the Social Guarantee Programme). More generally, the educational system does not manage to prevent school-leaving without qualifications.

139. With regard to the strengths, the most outstanding are:

- The high level of comprehensiveness of the system: the recent prolongation of compulsory education to 16 years, with options that are concentrated only in the second cycle of the ESO, is a good instrument for the reduction of inequality. For this to reach its potential it is indispensable to ensure that quality levels do not differ excessively between institutions.
- The extension of free-cost status to pre-primary education between 3 and 5 years, a measure that supports what is already, *de facto*, a universalisation of this level of education.
- The great increase in the participation of women in the post-compulsory levels. This growth has resulted in higher levels of social mobility (at least, educational mobility) than in the case of men.

7.3. Trends and changes that effect levels of inequity that can be anticipated in education policy

140. In coming years the general direction of trends and changes in education policy will depend, as is logical, on the political agenda of the parties in governments (central and autonomous). Nevertheless, some general trends can be anticipated that foreseeably will be placed on the political agenda with a certain independence of the orientation of those governments.

- An improvement of the financing of pre-primary education from 0 to 3 years. Specific programmes of support, at this level, for the most disfavoured social groups.
- The promotion, quantitatively and qualitatively, of initial vocational training (CFGM and CFGS).
- Reforms in the “second opportunity” programmes at the end of ESO. In fact, the LOCE (2002) already contemplated the substitution of the PGS with a new set of programmes; this reform has not begun to be applied at the moment due to the suspension of the application of the greater part of the articles of the LOCE in 2004.
- The development of measures to avoid the progressive distancing of the network of public institutions from the network of subsidised private institutions. This type of measure, however, is more likely to be implemented under governments of a progressive orientation.
- The reform and expansion of the grant system, at the secondary level and for higher education. Specifically, the system of grants for secondary education should play a greater role in the necessary expansion of participation. As with the previous point, it seems more likely that these measures will be implemented under governments of a progressive orientation.
- Agreements to be made between the central administration (MEC) and the governments of the Autonomous Communities, directed towards increasing the levels of public expenditure on education.
- An intensification of the role of evaluation of the institutions, as an indispensable element in the improvement of quality and the compatibility of autonomy and responsibility.

7.4. Aspects of the Spanish education system that deserve more detailed research

141. Research on the equity of the Spanish education system presents severe deficiencies. Noted below are some of the most important insufficiencies:

- Studies in which the development is analysed, through all the lives of individuals, of the variables that influence levels of inequity. I refer to the longitudinal perspective to which reference is made in Section 3 of this Report. This type of study can be made with an *ad hoc* panel, or in a more limited way using panel data such as ECHP or EU-SILC.
- The in-depth monitoring and exploitation, from the point of view of educational inequity, of the already complete ECHP panel (1994-2001) and the new EU-SILC panel. Specifically, the availability, in coming years, of the various waves of the EU-SILC will provide an excellent opportunity to understand processes of educational inequity that have been little studied until now.
- The establishment of a system of indicators of equity in education and, eventually, its integration into the State System of Education Indicators as a sub-system. The system of indicators of equity could be that used in the Data Annex of the Country Analytical Report.
- The study of pre-primary education in its first stage (0-3 years) from the perspective of equity. An analysis of the unequal patterns of participation, of the levels of quality of the service and the outcomes. The study of the effects of inequity in pre-primary education on performance in primary education.
- Research into the effects of inequity on the results of the PISA tests. The data base of the PISA results is a source of information still not sufficiently used.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

- CC.AA.: *Comunidades Autónomas*. Autonomous Communities.
- CFGM: *Ciclos Formativos de Grado Medio*. Middle Grade Training Courses.
- CFGS: *Ciclos Formativos de Grado Superior*. Higher Grade Training Courses.
- CIDE: *Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa*. Educational Research and Documentation Centre
- ECHP: European Community Household Panel.
- EGB: *Enseñanza General Básica*. Basic General Education
- EPF: *Encuesta de Presupuestos Familiares*. Family Budget Surveys.
- ESO: *Educación Secundaria Obligatoria*. Compulsory Secondary Education.
- EU-SILC: European Union Survey on Income and Labour Conditions.
- FORCEM: *Fundación para la Formación Continua*. Foundation for Continuous Training
- INCUAL: *Instituto Nacional de Cualificaciones*. National Institute for Qualifications
- INECSE: *Instituto Nacional de Evaluación y Calidad del Sistema Educativo*. National Institute for the Evaluation of the Quality of the Education System
- INEM: *Instituto Nacional de Empleo*. National Institute of Employment.
- LCFP: *Ley Orgánica de las Cualificaciones y de la Formación Profesional*. Organic Law of Qualifications and Vocational Training
- LGE: *Ley General de Educación*. General Law of Education.
- LOCE: *Ley Orgánica de Calidad de la Educación*. Organic Law on Quality in Education.
- LODE: *Ley Orgánica Reguladora del Derecho a la Educación*. Regulatory Organic Law of the Right to Education.
- LOGSE: *Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo*. Organic Law of the General Organisation of the Education System.
- LOPEG: *Ley Orgánica de Participación, Evaluación y Gobierno de los Centros Educativos*. Organic Law on Participation, Assessment and the Governance of Institutions of Education.

LOU: *Ley Orgánica de Universidades*. Organic Law of Universities.

MEC: *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*. Ministry of Education and Science.

PAAU: *Pruebas de Aptitud para el Acceso a la Universidad*. Examination of Aptitude for University Entrance.

PDC: *Programas de Diversificación Curricular*. Curricular Diversification Programme.

PGB: *Prueba General de Bachillerato*. General Baccalaureate Test.

PGS: *Programa de Garantía Social*. Social Guarantee Programme.

PIP: *Programas de Iniciación Profesional*. Vocational Initiation Programmes.

PISA: Programme of International Student Assessment

PSOE: *Partido Socialista Obrero Español*. Spanish Socialist Worker's Party.

SEC: Socio-Economic Category

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ANNEX 1. TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF SECTION 4.3.2

Scale of equivalence

With the object of taking into account the economies of scale in the consumption of larger households a scale of equivalence has been used; specifically, following the proposal of Buhman et al. (1988) a scale of equivalence has been applied of the type:

$$Y = X / s^{\theta} ,$$

Where:

Y = equivalent income; X = unadjusted income; s = household size; θ = parameter between 0 and 1.

Fixed in this analysis is $\theta = 0.5$, which means that the scale has similar effects to those of the OECD scale.

Kakwani index

The Kakwani index, that indicates the progressiveness of a determined tax or expenditure in relation to a distribution of initial income, is formulated in the following way in the case of expenditure of the type j: $K_j = G [x] - G [gs_j, x]$

Where:

$G [x]$ = Gini index of the distribution of initial income

$G [gs_j, x]$ = concentration index for type j of public expenditure.

It should be taken into account that the concentration indices for the expenditure (with the population ordered according to income, for which reason we can call them “pseudo-Gini” concentration indices) may be negative, as occurs with expenditure on grants for secondary education in 1996. This indicates an *absolute* progressiveness (a line of the concentration curve above the diagonal). The Kakwani index, on the contrary, refers to the *relative* progressiveness, compared to the distribution of the initial income. In order that public expenditure can be described as progressive it is necessary that its distribution is less unequal than that of the distribution of the initial income considered. The Kakwani index goes between -1 and 2. If $K=2$, the relative progressiveness is at a maximum.

ANNEX 2. ADDITIONAL DATA

Table a.1.1. Distribution of students by type of institution. Percentages. 2001-2002.

	Public	Private (not subsidized)	Private subsidized
Pre-primary	65.5	16.2	18.3
Primary	66.5	3.4	30.1
Lower secondary (compulsory)	65.5	3.3	31.2
Upper secondary (academic)	74.9	16.4	8.6
Upper secondary (vocational)	72.6	2.2	25.3
Non university higher education	74.6	7.5	17.9
University	92.0	8.0	--

Source: MEC (2004e).

Table a.1.2. Basic indicators on education financing. Spain, 1995-2002.

	1995	2002
[1] Public expenditure on education (total)/ GDP (%)	4.54	4.50
[2] Public expenditure on university / GDP (%)	0.72	0.76
[3] Public expenditure on non-university education per student (constant 2002 euros)	2,287	3,161
[4] Public expenditure on university education per student. (constant 2002 euros)	2,787	3,968
[5] Public expenditure on subsidies to private institutions / public expenditure on non-university education (%)	12.76	16.02
[6] Coverage rate of higher education grants (%)	20.00	18.00

Own elaboration from MEC data.

Note: public expenditure does not include private financing of university institutions through user's fees.

Table a.1.3. Basic indicators on education financing for Autonomous Communities. 2002.

	[1] Public expenditure on education non university(total)/ GDP (%)	[2] Public expenditure on university / GDP (%)	[3] Public expenditure on non-university education per student (€)	[4] Public expenditure on university education per student (€)	[5] Public expenditure on subsidies to private institutions / public expenditure on non-university education (%)
Andalusia	3.69	0.82	2,454	3,173	12.5
Aragon	2.64	0.65	3,208	3,938	17.4
Asturias	3.22	0.85	3,508	3,692	12.8
Balearic Islands	2.51	0.30	3,230	4,447	23.0
Canary Islands	3.60	0.80	3,182	4,927	7.4
Cantabria	2.81	0.61	:	4,177	20.0
Castile and Leon	3.20	0.81	3,540	3,690	16.1
Castile-La Mancha	4.33	0.63	2,971	4,507	8.4
Catalonia	2.20	0.62	2,839	4,861	24.7
Community of Valencia	3.01	0.91	3,112	4,806	19.9
Extremadura	5.53	0.65	3,392	2,847	8.7
Galicia	3.66	0.83	3,433	3,475	11.9
Madrid	1.87	0.77	2,454	4,859	19.6
Murcia	3.67	0.81	2,723	4,035	13.3
Navarre	2.97	0.46	4,235	6,294	22.5
Basque Country	3.28	0.52	4,766	4,326	29.7
La Rioja	2.58	0.50	3,166	3,921	17.4
TOTAL	3.14	0.76	3,161	3,968	16.0

Source: own elaboration from MEC data.

Notes:

- public expenditure does not include private financing of university institutions through user's fees.
- Total values only include the expenditures of Autonomous Communities. Expenditure on Occupational Training, expenditure on grants and the expenditure not allocated by activity are not considered. That is the reason why aggregate values are different to those in Table a.1.2.

Table a.1.4. Distribution of private expenditure on education by disposable income quintiles and weight of private expenditure on education over household total expenditure. Spain, 1998.

	Disposable income quintiles					total
	1	2	3	4	5	
Distribution of expenditure by quintiles (%)	10.21	16.25	18.98	22.63	31.93	100.00
Expenditure over household total expenditure (%)	2.61	2.20	1.64	1.27	0.92	1.33

Own elaboration from Encuesta Continua de Presupuestos Familiares-98.

Table a.2.1. Percentage of households using paid child care by equivalised household income quartiles (women aged 18-45 and at least one child aged 0-2 years old), Spain 2000.

Income quartiles	Use of paid child care	Use of paid child care: double-income couples
1 st quartile	6.9	18.7 ^a
2 nd quartile	13.8	25.0 ^a
3 rd quartile	18.3	30.2
4 th quartile	33.6	38.6

^a Less than 14 cases (unweighted data).

Note: Lone parents have not been included in the sample.

Source: González (2005).

Table a.2.2. Rates of correspondence between course-years being studied and actual ages for several ages. Spain, 1992-2002

age	8		10		12		13		14		15	
	1992	2002	1992	2002	1992	2002	1992	2002	1992	2002	1992	2002
Both sexes	91.4	95.3	89.0	91.9	77.3	86.4	72.9	87.2	67.1	73.7	59.2	62.1
Male	89.8	94.4	87.1	90.4	73.6	83.7	68.7	84.5	62.3	68.1	54.9	55.5
Female	93.1	96.2	90.9	93.6	81.1	89.2	77.4	90.1	72.1	79.7	63.7	69.0

Note: Rate of correspondence defined as the percentage of population, for a given age, who attends the course-year which corresponds to their age.

Source: MEC (2004b).

Table a.2.3. Percentage of early school leavers (*)

	Total			Male			Female		
	1992	1997	2002	1992	1997	2002	1992	1997	2002
UE - 25	16.5	18.7	14.2
UE -15	...	20.8	18.5	...	23.0	20.9	...	18.6	16.1
Germany	...	12.9	12.6	...	12.3	12.6	...	13.5	12.6
Austria	...	10.8	9.5	...	9.0	8.8	...	12.5	10.3
Belgium	18.1	12.7	12.4	19.8	14.2	14.9	16.5	11.2	9.9
Denmark (1)	15.2	10.7	8.4	18.1	11.0	10.3	12.2	10.3	6.6
Spain	40.4	30.3	29.0	44.9	35.6	35.4	36.1	25.0	22.3
Finland	...	8.1	9.9	...	9.1	12.6	...	7.0	7.3
France	...	14.1	13.4	...	15.3	14.9	...	13.0	11.9
Greece	25.2	19.9	16.1	28.8	23.7	20.1	22.0	16.7	12.3
Ireland	27.1	18.9	14.7	31.3	22.6	18.5	22.7	15.1	10.8
Italy	37.7	29.9	24.3	40.6	33.7	27.9	34.9	26.2	20.7
Luxembourg (1)	42.2	30.7	17.0	43.2	30.9	14.4	41.1	30.5	19.6
Holland	...	16.0	15.0	...	16.8	15.7	...	15.2	14.3
Portugal	50.0	40.6	45.5	56.2	46.8	52.9	44.2	34.4	38.1
United Kingdom	34.7	...	17.7	32.8	...	18.8	36.7	...	16.6
Sweden	...	6.8	10.4	...	7.3	11.4	...	6.2	9.3

(*): An “early school leaver” is defined as a person (18 to 24-year-old) who has not completed upper secondary education and is not in education, or in a work-study programme for the last four weeks.

(1) The important differences between years may be caused by the small size of the sample.

Source: MEC (2004b).

Table a.2.4. Summary of PISA-2003 results for Spain and three of its Autonomous Communities

	Reading		Science		Mathematics		Problem solving	
	Mean score	Position among EU countries (14 countries)	Mean score	Position among EU countries (14 countries)	Mean score	Position among EU countries (14 countries)	Mean score	Position among EU countries (14 countries)
Spain	481	10	487	9	485	11	482	11
Castile and Leon	499	6	502	7	503	7	505	9
Catalonia	483	10	502	7	494	10	493	11
Basque Country	497	6	484	10	502	10	498	9
OECD total	494		500		500		500	

Source: INECSE (2004).

Table a.2.5. Percentage of the population who attained at least upper secondary education, by age. 2002.

	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64
Austria	78	85	82	74	67
Belgium	61	77	66	55	41
Denmark	80	85	81	80	72
Finland	75	88	85	71	52
France	65	79	68	60	48
Germany	83	85	86	84	77
Greece	50	72	58	42	28
Ireland	60	77	65	51	37
Italy	44	60	50	39	24
Luxembourg	57	64	59	53	46
Holland	66	76	71	62	53
Portugal	20	35	20	14	8
Spain	41	58	46	31	18
Sweden	82	91	87	79	67
United Kingdom	64	70	65	62	56
OECD Total	65	75	69	61	50

Source: OECD (2004b).

Table a.2.6. Score means by type of institution. PISA 2003

		Reading	Science	Mathematics	Problem solving
Spain	Private	504	509	507	507
	Public	466	473	472	467
OECD Total	Private	517	521	520	524
	Public	488	494	482	493

Source: INECSE (2004).

Table 2.7. Adult learning according to different sources, 2000

Sources	Adult learners
Total participation according to Labour Force Survey, 25-64 years old, 4 weeks prior to survey, 2000	906,500
• Adult Basic Education (provided by the Ministry of Education, all ages, 1 year, 1999-2000)	400,000
• Training for the unemployed (by Ministry of Labour, 16 and over, 1 year, 2000)	289,000
• Training for the employed (16 and over, registered by FORCEM, 1 year, 2000)	1,516,000

Source: OECD (2003).

Table a.2.8. Educational wage premium (obtained through a multivariate process). Male salaried.

	1980	1990	1995
Lower secondary	0.2306	0.1074	0.1412
Upper secondary (academic)	0.4600	0.4156	0.4369
Upper secondary (vocational)	0.4018	0.3560	0.2592
University (short degrees)	0.6326	0.7146	0.8330
University (long degrees)	0.9117	1.0256	1.1592

Own elaboration from EPF-80, EPF-90 and ECHP-96.

Table a.2.9. Educational wage premium (obtained through a multivariate process). Male salaried. Corrected with probability of being at work.

	1980	1990	1995
Lower secondary	0.3782	0.1700	0.3118
Upper secondary (academic)	0.6871	0.5702	0.7880
Upper secondary (vocational)	0.5415	0.4727	0.5446
University (short degrees)	0.8972	0.9900	1.4007
University (long degrees)	1.2460	1.3182	1.9572

Own elaboration from EPF-80, EPF-90 and ECHP-96.

Table a.3.1. Correlation coefficients between years of education of the sons/daughters and years of education of the father/mother, by Autonomous Community

Andalusia	0.37
Aragon	0.39
Asturias	0.51
Balearic Islands	0.43
Canary Islands	0.41
Cantabria	0.41
Castile and Leon	0.43
Castile-La Mancha	0.44
Catalonia	0.30
Community of Valencia	0.27
Extremadura	0.51
Galicia	0.41
Madrid	0.64
Murcia	0.34
Navarre	0.20
Basque Country	0.40
La Rioja	0.33
Total	0.43

Source: Own elaboration from ECHP-2000.

Table a.4.1. Participants in occupational training (FIP Plan) and unemployment rate, by Autonomous Community. 2001.

	Participants in occupational training	Unemployed (in thousands)	Participants / Unemployed (%)	Unemployment rate (%)
Andalusia	46,536	557,7	8.34	18.8
Aragon	13,848	23,8	58.18	4.8
Asturias	14,177	31,0	45.73	7.8
Balearic Islands	6,969	22,5	30.97	5.8
Canary Islands	28,067	84,3	33.29	10.7
Cantabria	4,430	19,9	22.26	8.8
Castile and Leon	12,029	64,7	18.59	9.3
Castile-La Mancha	25,836	102,4	25.23	10.0
Catalonia	15,714	253,7	6.19	8.4
Community of Valencia	34,697	176,1	19.70	9.3
Extremadura	13,041	60,5	21.56	14.5
Galicia	16,712	131,8	12.68	11.0
Madrid	55,127	176,0	31.32	7.2
Murcia	15,897	51,5	30.87	10.5
Navarre	6,786	11,4	59.53	4.6
Basque Country	14,531	94,2	15.43	9.7
La Rioja	2,382	5,1	46.71	4.4
Spain	329,103	1,869,1	17.61	10.5

Source: MTAS (2003).

Table a.4.2. Salaried in training, by Autonomous Community. 1999

	Salaried in training	Salaried in training / salaried (%)
Andalusia	282,600	16.1
Aragon	58,011	17.5
Asturias	41,869	16.8
Balearic Islands	67,544	28.3
Canary Islands	111,075	21.3
Cantabria	20,552	13.0
Castile and Leon	93,764	23.0
Castile-La Mancha	170,176	26.4
Catalonia	527,613	25.5
Community of Valencia	248,421	21.2
Extremadura	30,200	13.1
Galicia	118,526	17.1
Madrid	549,544	31.1
Murcia	70,004	21.7
Navarre	57,547	32.8
Basque Country	159,712	24.8
La Rioja	15,506	19.8
Spain	2,624,818	22.9

Source: own elaboration from ECHP-2000.

Table a.4.3. Criteria used for grouping of students in lower secondary education, by type of institution. Percentages. 2000

	Total	Public institutions	Private institutions
By subject options	60.4	63.5	52.7
Balanced integration and homogeneity of the pupils	15.1	12.9	20.7
Other criteria or a combination of several criteria	24.4	23.6	26.6

Source: MECD (2000).

Table a.4.4. Distribution of CFGM and CFGS students by type of study. Percentage of women in each type of study. Year 2001-02.

	CFGM		CFGS	
	Students	% female	Students	% female
Agricultural activities	4,745	19.9	3,014	26.5
Physical and sporting activities	2,153	38.3	6,452	36.7
Maritime and fishing activities	961	8.9	802	18.2
Administration	49,947	69.1	39,500	72.9
Graphic arts	3,070	35.0	1,338	45.7
Commerce and marketing	13,573	67.1	12,498	60.0
Communication, sound and image	2,435	46.7	6,237	36.9
Construction and civil works	656	4.4	7,505	31.5
Electrical installation and electronics	34,676	2.0	22,056	7.5
Mechanical manufacture	12,161	1.5	6,886	6.8
Catering and tourism	10,066	44.0	9,541	71.6
Personal image	13,137	96.2	3,020	97.3
Food industries	1,485	46.6	988	56.5
Wood and furnishing	2,975	5.5	378	15.6
Production maintenance and services	9,148	1.7	4,191	2.7
Self-propelled vehicle maintenance	20,108	1.5	4,433	3.2
Chemicals	2,889	61.9	5,085	59.0
Health	25,690	88.0	21,263	80.5
Textiles, garments and leather	749	82.2	585	74.2
Glass and ceramics	108	47.2	83	45.8
Socio-cultural and community services	--		16,572	90.6
Information technology	--		36,508	27.4
Total	210,750	43.7	208,935	49.4

Source: MECD (2004e).

Table a.4.5. Students in Programas de Garantía Social, by type of institution. 2001-2002

	Total	Female	Male	% female
Students in PGS	43,916	14,045	29,871	32.0
- public institutions	30,115	9,053	21,062	30.1
- private institutions	13,801	4,992	8,809	36.2
% in public institutions	68.6	64.5	70.5	
% of students total	0.60	0.39	0.82	

Source: MEC (2004e).

Table a.4.6. Students in Programas de Garantía Social, by Autonomous Community. 2001-2002

CC.AA.	Total	% of total PGS students	% of students total
Andalusia	8,225	18.7	0.58
Aragon	1,662	3.8	0.95
Asturias	1,036	2.4	0.74
Balearic Islands	948	2.2	0.66
Canary Islands	1,966	4.5	0.59
Cantabria	791	1.8	0.99
Castile and Leon	4,301	9.8	1.16
Castile-La Mancha	1,347	3.1	0.43
Catalonia	5,598	12.7	0.56
Community of Valencia	2,267	5.2	0.33
Extremadura	813	1.9	0.42
Galicia	2,601	5.9	0.65
Madrid	5,369	12.2	0.60
Murcia	2,100	4.8	0.91
Navarre	707	1.6	0.86
Basque Country	3,327	7.6	1.09
La Rioja	301	0.7	0.73
Spain	43,916	100.0	0.64

Source: MEC (2004e).

Table a.4.7. Activity and unemployment rates. 3rd trimester, 2004.

	Activity rate	Unemployment rate
<i>Both sexes</i>		
Total	56.0	10.5
Primary	30.7	12.2
Garantía Social	51.4	17.4
Lower secondary	66.9	11.8
Upper secondary (academic)	61.3	9.1
Upper secondary (vocational)	79.9	11.5
Higher education (vocational)	85.1	8.7
University. Short cycle	77.2	7.9
University. Long cycle	85.2	7.7
<i>Male</i>		
Total	68.0	7.9
Primary	45.3	9.4
Garantía Social	53.9	16.5
Lower secondary	80.9	8.5
Upper secondary (academic)	68.9	6.7
Upper secondary (vocational)	88.5	7.9
Higher education (vocational)	88.1	5.8
University. Short cycle	79.1	5.6
University. Long cycle		
<i>Female</i>		
Total	44.7	14.4
Primary	18.6	17.9
Garantía Social	45.7	19.9
Lower secondary	51.5	17.6
Upper secondary (academic)	53.6	12.2
Upper secondary (vocational)	71.4	16.0
Higher education (vocational)	81.2	12.8
University. Short cycle	75.7	9.7

Source: Encuesta de Población Activa, 3rd trimester, 2004.

Table a.4.8. Percentage of the population who attained the objectives of compulsory education (*). 2001.

	Total	Male	Female
Andalusia	74.4	67.8	81.3
Aragon	78.2	71.8	84.9
Asturias	85.8	80.0	91.8
Balearic Islands	67.2	60.4	74.4
Canary Islands	64.2	56.5	72.2
Cantabria	82.0	73.4	91.2
Castile and Leon	78.7	71.3	86.5
Castile-La Mancha	68.8	58.8	79.5
Catalonia	76.4	70.3	82.8
Community of Valencia	69.0	58.9	79.6
Extremadura	66.8	56.7	77.6
Galicia	75.5	68.0	83.3
Madrid	78.1	72.7	83.7
Murcia	67.8	58.4	77.8
Navarre	82.7	76.5	89.7
Basque Country	82.5	77.7	87.6
La Rioja	75.3	66.7	84.4
Spain	74.4	67.2	81.9

*: percentage of ESO graduates over total 16 year-old students. Gross rate.
Source: MEC (2004e)

Table a.4.9 . Probability of attending a general or training course, by level of education attained. Age group: 25-65. 2000.

Less than primary	2.48
Primary	3.96
Lower secondary	7.34
Upper secondary (vocational)	15.51
Upper secondary (vocational)	23.42
Upper secondary (academic)	28.01
University. Short cycle	40.45
University. Long cycle and doctorate	47.02
Total	17.80

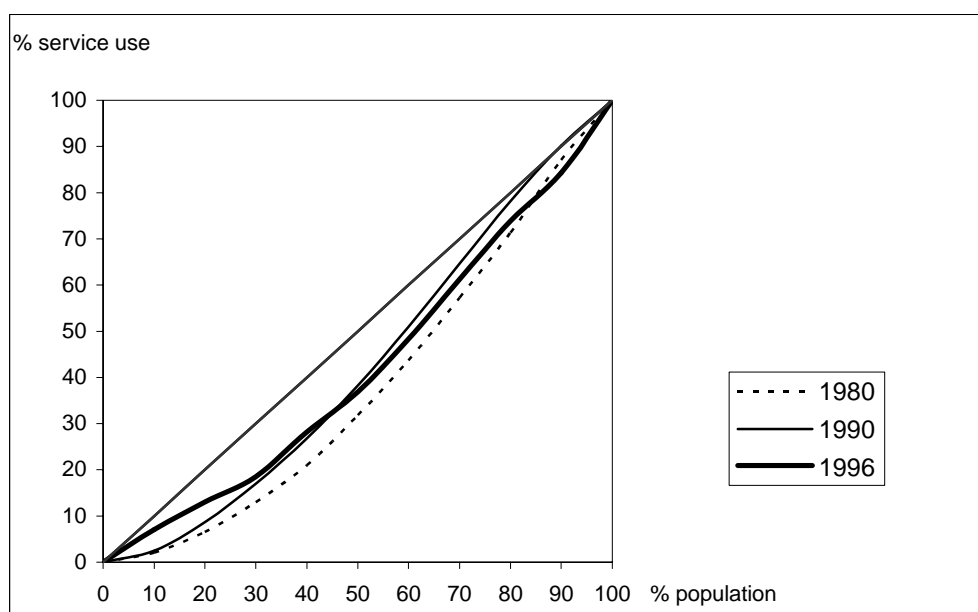
Own elaboration from ECHP-2000

Table a.4.10. Probability of attending a general or training course, by SEC. Age group: 25-65. 2000.

I. Higher-grade professionals	37.69
II. Routine non-manual	22.66
III. Small proprietors	16.77
IV. Skilled manual workers	10.84
V. Semi- and unskilled manual workers	9.46
VI. Farmers and smallholders	8.97
VII. Agricultural workers	4.85
Total	17.80

Own elaboration from ECHP-2000.

Graph a.4.1. Concentration curves (population ranked by level of equivalent disposable income). Public expenditure on secondary education (service).



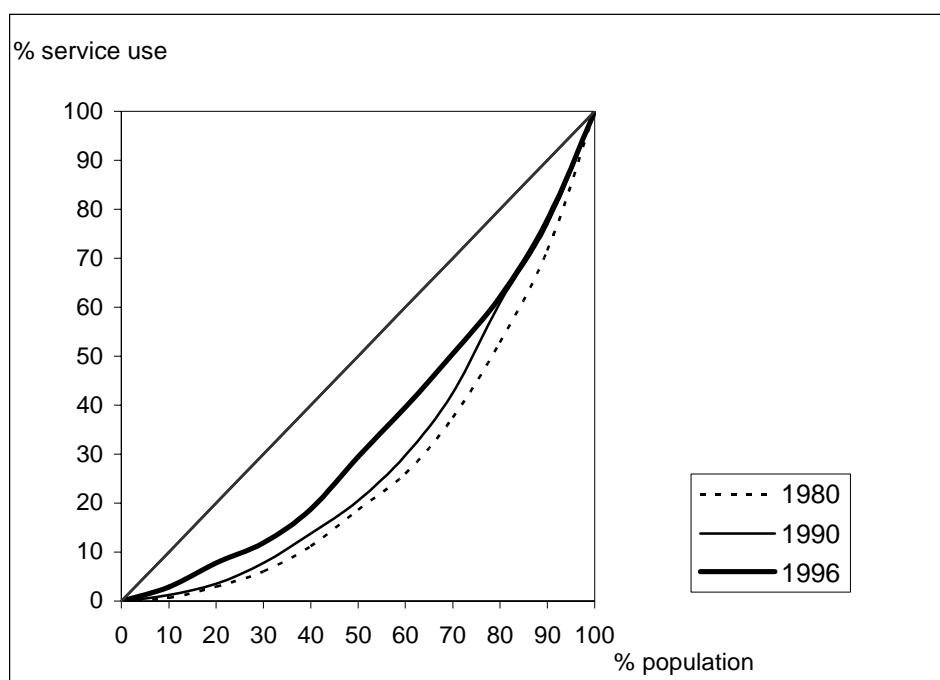
Own elaboration from EPF-80, EPF-90 and ECHP-96.

Table a.4.11. Concentration indexes for public expenditure on secondary education (service) and for public expenditure on secondary education grants (G[gs_j, x]) and Kakwani progressivity indices

	G [gs _j , x]	Kakwani G [x _d]- G [gs _j , x _d]
Public expenditure on service		
1980	0.2135	0.0965
1990	0.1043	0.1947
1996	0.0658	0.2578
Public expenditure on grants		
1990	0.1023	0.1967
1996	-0.2432	0.5668

Own elaboration from EPF-80, EPF-90 and ECHP-96.

Graph a.4.2. Concentration curves (population ranked by level of equivalent disposable income). Public expenditure on higher education (service).



Own elaboration from EPF-80, EPF-90 and ECHP-96.

Table a.4.12. Concentration indexes for public expenditure on higher education (service) and for public expenditure on higher education grants (G[gs_j, x]) and Kakwani progressivity indices

	G [gs _j , x]	Kakwani G [x _d]- G [gs _j , x _d]
Public expenditure on service		
1980	0.4400	-0.13
1990	0.3729	-0.0739
1996	0.2543	0.0693
Public expenditure on grants		
1980	0.2879	0.0221
1990	0.1563	0.1427
1996	0.0042	0.3194

Own elaboration from EPF-80, EPF-90 and ECHP-96.

Table a.4.13. Students in pre-primary education

Year	Total	% in public institutions	% of students total (non university levels)
2003-04 (a)	1,349,824	65.1	19.6
2001-02	1,221,108	65.5	17.9
1999-00	1,133,653	67.0	16.3
1994-95	1,093,256	66.0	13.9

(a) Preliminary data.

Note: MEC data only consider pre-primary institutions accredited following LOGSE criteria. Non-accredited institutions and other care services are not considered.

Source: MEC (2004a; 2004b).

Table a.4.14. Pre-primary enrolment rates, by age groups.

Age	1994-95	2001-02	2004-05 (e)
0-2 year old	5.6	10.4	13.7
3 year old	57.4	92.7	96.7
3-5 year old	87.2	98.4	100.0

(e): estimates.

Source: MEC (2004a) and Romero (2001).

Table a.4.15. Pre-primary enrolment rates, by age groups and Autonomous Community. 2001-02.

CC.AA.	0-2 year old		3 year old		0-3 year old
	<i>Enrolment rate</i>	<i>% in public institutions</i>	<i>Enrolment rate</i>	<i>% in public institutions</i>	<i>Enrolment rate</i>
Andalusia	1.3	6.8	79.7	80.1	20.2
Aragon	4.3	8.0	96.6	65.6	26.5
Asturias	1.8	0.0	95.7	68.1	24.1
Balearic Islands	6.7	28.4	99.3	59.2	28.7
Canary Islands	1.3	0.0	95.8	78.4	23.2
Cantabria	3.6	14.7	95.0	65.9	25.0
Castile and Leon	8.2	58.8	99.4	66.4	30.5
Castile-La Mancha	1.9	33.1	97.9	80.8	25.6
Catalonia	26.9	35.0	102.3	60.3	44.5
Community of Valencia	4.6	35.0	89.6	66.7	24.8
Extremadura	1.3	22.1	93.0	81.4	24.3
Galicia	12.2	--	92.1	70.1	31.6
Madrid	16.5	51.6	96.3	56.2	34.9
Murcia	8.0	63.1	87.0	71.1	26.8
Navarre	--	--	98.6	62.3	23.8
Basque Country	23.1	61.5	101.1	49.6	41.6
La Rioja	2.5	0.0	99.6	64.5	26.0
Spain	10.1	45.2	92.8	67.5	29.8

Source: González (2004).

Table a.4.16. Foreign students in non-university levels by Autonomous Community. 2003-04

	%	
Andalusia	44,443	11.2
Aragon	11,672	2.9
Asturias	3,234	0.8
Balearic Islands	15,580	3.9
Canary Islands	21,950	5.5
Cantabria	2,585	0.6
Castile and Leon	11,438	2.9
Castile-La Mancha	13419	3.4
Catalonia	76,923	19.3
Community of Valencia	52,355	13.1
Extremadura	3,092	0.8
Galicia	6,645	1.7
Madrid	96,700	24.3
Murcia	18,592	4.7
Navarre	7,074	1.8
Basque Country	7,835	2.0
La Rioja	3,461	0.9
Spain	398,187	100.0

Source: MEC (2004b).

Table a.4.17. Foreign students in non-university levels by country of origin.

	1995-96	2000-01	2003-04
Europe	39.5	30.5	25.1
- European Union	31.8	21.7	12.4
- Other European countries	7.7	8.8	12.7
Africa	25.5	27.4	18.8
North America	3.5	2.0	1.1
Central America	4.6	6.2	3.7
South America	17.9	26.6	46.7
Asia	8.5	7.2	4.3
Oceania	0.2	0.1	0.1
Not available	0.4	0.1	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MEC (2004b).

Table a.4.18. Percentage of foreign students in public institutions, by Autonomous Community and educational level. Non university levels. 2003-04

	Pre- primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary (academic)	Upper secondary (vocational)
Andalusia	85.1	79.8	81.9	89.9	78.9
Aragon	76.7	77.2	75.7	85.8	70.1
Asturias	80.4	82.2	78.0	95.6	84.1
Balearic Islands	81.9	80.8	76.5	85.6	89.4
Canary Islands	82.9	82.9	85.2	79.2	96.1
Cantabria	64.7	68.7	65.6	83.7	71.4
Castile and Leon	80.2	77.1	71.7	71.1	70.5
Castile-La Mancha	90.0	88.1	88.4	94.5	87.0
Catalonia	82.5	86.6	81.1	86.1	71.8
Community of Valencia	86.2	85.1	84.4	92.5	76.2
Extremadura	91.1	90.9	88.8	85.6	84.7
Galicia	81.7	83.1	85.0	90.8	87.9
Madrid	72.3	75.4	71.4	78.8	77.0
Murcia	88.1	89.5	88.7	94.6	88.7
Navarre	82.1	81.1	74.9	71.4	76.1
Basque Country	73.6	67.3	67.2	71.6	53.7
La Rioja	79.5	72.9	79.3	92.6	83.7
Spain	80.7	81.4	79.3	84.9	76.8

Source: MEC (2004d).

Table a.4.19. Summary of participation indicators from the Data Annex (indicator broken down by nationality). 2001

	Nationals	Foreigners
Enrolment rate in pre-primary education		
Less than 1 year	14.9	13.1
1 year old	33.7	28.7
2 year old	55.5	42.7
3 year old	79.6	64.3
4 year old	95.9	92.1
5 year old	97.4	94.6
Enrolment rate in upper secondary education	57.6	33.9
Enrolment rate in higher education	33.9	11.2

Table a.5.1. Expenditure on grants by funding body (in thousands of euros). Non-university and university levels. 2000-01.

	non-university	university
MEC	201,765	473,711
Aragon	1,196.4	123.1
Balearic Islands	1,794.5	607
Canary Islands	9,902.1	1,098.4
Castile and Leon	--	1,368
Catalonia	19,965	353.5
Community of Valencia	13,438	--
Extremadura	1,948	715
Galicia	2,734	1505.7
Madrid	20,536	1,100
Murcia	1,020.9	509.6
Navarre	453.4	2,463
Basque Country	19,214	15,001
La Rioja	559.6	192
Total	294,526	498,747

Source: MECD (2003a).

Table a.5.2. Rate of coverage for MEC grants programme, by Autonomous Community (and UNED). University level. 2000-01

Andalusia	22.72
Aragon	12.49
Asturias	15.60
Balearic Islands	8.58
Canary Islands	18.24
Cantabria	18.73
Castile and Leon	18.26
Castile-La Mancha	23.05
Catalonia	11.17
Community of Valencia	18.82
Extremadura	29.04
Galicia	17.77
Madrid	11.80
Murcia	16.91
Navarre	12.01
Basque Country	
La Rioja	14.14
UNED*	6.03
Total	14.98

Source: MECD (2003c).

* Distance university.

Table a.5.3. Expenditure on compensatory education. Total and percentage of total public expenditure in non-university levels, by financing body. 2001.

	Total (in thousands of euros)	Percentage of total public expenditure in non-university levels
MEC	5,439	1.15
Andalusia	37,123	1.15
Aragon	42	0.01
Asturias	409	0.09
Balearic Islands	438	0.11
Canary Islands	2,963	0.29
Cantabria	871	0.37
Castile and Leon	20,229	1.74
Castile-La Mancha	405	0.05
Catalonia	11,020	0.44
Community of Valencia	704	0.04
Extremadura	0	0.00
Galicia	301	0.02
Madrid	18,589	0.90
Murcia	4,232	0.74
Navarre	1,086	0.33
Basque Country	1,080	0.08
La Rioja	549	0.43
Total	105,480	0.52

Own elaboration from MEC: *Gasto público en educación*, 2001.

Table a.5.4. Compensatory education programmes by Autonomous Community

Compensatory education programmes	Autonomous Community																
	And.	Arag.	Astur.	Bal.	Can.	Cant.	C-L	C-M	Cat.	C.Val.	Extr.	Galic.	Mad.	Mur.	Nav.	B.C.	Rioja
Socio-cultural disadvantage (urban areas)	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	
Rural programmes (1)	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
Ethnic minority (attention to immigrants) (2)	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cultural minority (3)	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
Children of travelling or temporary workers	X	X					X								X		X
Students out of school by a judicial sentence	X	X			X					X				X		X	
Hospitals Classrooms and attention in the home (4)	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Fight against truancy	X				X		X	X	X	X	X		X		X		X
Pupils significantly out of phase with the curriculum (5)	X	X	X		X	X			X			X	X	X	X		

(1) Some programmes are managed from MEC (for example, the *Centros Rurales Agrupados* - Grouped Rural Institutions).

(2) The most usual programmes are focused on Spanish language- and other official languages-, as well as intercultural education.

(3) The most usual programmes are directed to students of the gipsy minority.

(4) Some programmes are managed from MEC. In several Autonomous Communities a programme of classrooms in hospitals sponsored by the financial institution "La Caixa" exists.

(5) These programmes are usually implemented in ESO.

Table a.6.1. Public expenditure on social protection (SOCX) as a percentage of GDP. 2001.

	Spain	OECD	EU-15
Old age	8.3	7.6	8.8
Survivors	0.6	0.9	1.1
Incapacity-related benefits	2.4	2.6	2.9
Health	5.4	5.9	6.1
Family	0.5	1.8	2.2
Active labour market programmes	0.8	0.6	0.9
Unemployment	1.3	0.9	1.2
Housing	0.2	0.4	0.4
Other social policy areas	0.1	0.5	0.5
Total	19.6	21.2	24.0

Source: OECD (2004), *Social Expenditure Database (SOCX), 1980-2001*.