THE SPANISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

REPORT OF SPAIN

Centro Nacional de Investigación y Documentación Educativa

(C. I. D. E.)

Ministry of Education and Science

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INITIALS

The most common initials and/or acronyms used in this report are:

BUP (Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente), secondary education of an academic nature.

CENEBAD (Centro Nacional de Educación Básica a Distancia), the National Centre for Long-distance Primary Education.

CENIDE (Centro Nacional de Investigación para el Desarrollo de la Enseñanza), the National Centre for Research into Educational Development.

CIDE (Centro Nacional de Investigación y Documentación Educativa), the centre for Educational Research and Documentation.

COU (Curso de Orientación Universitaria), the University Orientation Course, a foundation year studied before going on to University proper.

EGB (Educación General Básica), i.e. primary education.

FP (Formación Profesional), Vocational Training.

ICE (Instituto de Ciencias de Educación), the Institute for Educational Sciences.

INAPE (Instituto Nacional para la Asistencia y Promoción del Estudiante), the Institute for the Aid and Advancement of the Pupil.

INBAD (Instituto Nacional de Bachillerato a Distancia), the National Institute for Long-distance Bachillerato studies.

INCIE (Instituto Nacional de Ciencias de Educación), the National Institute for Educational Science.

INE (Instituto Nacional de Estadistica), the National

Institute of Statistics.

LGE (Ley General de Educación), the General Education Act of 1970.

LOECE (Ley Orgánica de Estatuto de Centros de Educación), the Statute of Teaching Establishments Act.

LODE (Ley Orgánica del Derecho a Educación), the Right to Education Act.

LRU (Ley de la Reforma Universitaria), the University Reform Act.

MEC (Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia), the Spanish Education Ministry.

UNED (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia), the Spanish "Open University".

PART ONE: SPANISH SOCIETY AND DE ADMINISTRATIVE FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATION.

Institute of Statistics.

LGE (Ley General de Educación), the General Education Act of 1970.

LOECE (Ley Orgánica de Estatuto de Centros de Educación), the Statute of Teaching Establishments Act.

LODE (Ley Orgánica del Derecho a Educación), the Right to Education Act.

LRU (Ley de la Reforma Universitaria), the University Reform Act.

MEC (Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia), the Spanish Education Ministry.

UNED (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia), the Spanish "Open University".

CHAPTER ONE

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL CONTEXT

1. SPANISH SOCIETY FROM THE POSTWAR PERIOD TO 1970

1.1 THE POSTWAR PERIOD

In 1939, just before the outbreak of the Second World War - in which Spain was to remain neutral - the Spanish Civil War came to an end with the victory of the so-called 'Nationalists'. Thus, all Spain was subjected to a political regime which for thirty-five years was to have as Head of State, General Franco, the 'Generalísimo' of the victorious armies. Until his death, Franco's overriding prerogative remained in force, giving him supreme authority over the institutions which continued the 'organic democracy' in Spain.

During the 1940's and 1950's, the situation in Spain - economic backwardness, social misery and political tyranny - was an unfortunate synthesis of pre-war political fascism and the destruction of other European countries after the Second World War. Despite the fact that the victory of the Allies had already forced a change in foreign policy in 1945, the belief held by Spanish exiles, that the regime could not be maintained in a democratic Europe, turned out to be totally unfounded. The regime managed to survive without foreign aid like the Marshall Plan, but was backed by the Vatican from the outset, and by the United States from 1952.

Between 1939 and 1959, the Spanish people had to pay an enormous price in terms of poverty and oppression because of the autarchical régime. Until the mid 50's, the greater part of the national output - from agricultural production to industrial output - did not reach similar levels of 20 years previous; while Europe was undergoing rapid reconstructions after the War, Spain, cut off economically, socially and culturally from the rest of Europe, was slowly being dragged into a process of agricultural stock-piling.

Education was similarly affected. The best teaching-staff were purged and substituted in the state schools by staff of the one and only Party, the Falange, and, in the private schools, by Catholic priests and nuns. Many of the Centres set up during the Republic were closed down and what was taught was highly doctrinaire and obscure, reducing effectiveness and quality at all levels. It was to be twenty years later, in 1956, when the first steps towards a more liberal type of education were taken. The process was slow and painstaking, first at University level and later in the "Enseñanza Media" and "Primaria", until, finally, the L.G.E. (Education Act of 1970) tried to legally assume control, to some extent, of the trends which could no longer be ignored.

1 2. THE TRANSITION

The 1959 Stabilization Plan is generally considered to be the key point of the transition between the autarchical period and that of economic growth, which was to last until the mid 70's.

This stabilization plan was the régime's reaction to the internal crisis, the sympthoms of which were manifest throughout the 50's. This reaction consisted of an economic initiative which, together with foreign alignment with the United States, would guarantee the stability of the régime at a highly critical moment in time.

The operation was highly successful. On the economic side, at the expense of a higher unemployment and reduced wages, the runaway inflation was brought under control and the bases for future economic growth were established. This growth was to commence two years later. At the same time, foreign trade barriers were relaxed, emigration to other European countries was encouraged and tourism was promoted. The deficit in the balance of payments, which had been greatly widened due to imported consumer goods, was balanced by the earnings remitted by emigrants and by foreign currency generated by tourism and partly by the traditional agricultural exports. During the 1960's and part of the 70's, successive Development Plans - based on a French nodel - were in force and are highly indicative: the Spanish economy grew at more than 6% per annum and the income per capita rose quickly along with productivity. This unchecked economic growth gave rise to serious structural deficiencies which were to come to the force after the crisis of the 1970's. However, in these 15 years of development, the country changed more dramatically than in any other period of time, thus recovering lost ground vis-a-vis the rest of Europe. The figures in tables I.1 and 2 and 3 give an idea of the intensity of the phenomena of the movement away from an agrarian-based economy to urbanization and growth of wealth.

Table I.1 WORKING POPULATION BY ECONOMIC SECTORS

Year	Agriculture	Industry/ Construction	Others
1940	50.5	22.1	27.3
1950	47.6	26.5	25.8
1960	39.7	32.9	27.3
1970	25.2	37.9	37.0
1981	18.2	35.2	46.6

Source: Ramón Tamames. Estructura Económica de España. Guadiana Publicaciones. 1940-50-60. INE 1970 census. Economic Report on Spain. O.E.C.D. 1981

Table I. 2 POPULATION CLASSIFIED BY SIZE OF MUNICIPALITY WHERE RESIDENT. PERCENTAGES 1900-80

SIZE OF MUNICIPALITY (N° of Inhabitants)						
YEARS	0 - 500	500-5,000	5,000 50,000	50,000 500,000	500,000 and over	TOTAL
1900	5.6	45.3	35.5	7.8	5.8	100.0
1910	5.0	43.0	37.0	9.0	6.0	100.0
1920	4.6	39.9	37.7	10.0	6.9	100.0
1930	4.1	36.3	39.8	11.5	8.3	100.0
1940	3.7	32.6	39.2	16.1	8.4	100.0
1950	3.3	30.4	36.0	18.1	12.2	100.0
1960	3.2	25.9	35.5	21.2	14.2	100.0
1970	2.6	20.0	33.4	26.2	18.0	100.0

Source: INE Anuarios Estadísticos

Table I.3 EVOLUTION OF G.N.P. AND INCOME PER CAPITA

(Pesetas constant as of 1970)

Years	Population (millions)	G.N.P. at market prices (thousands of milliones)	G.N.P. per capita (pesetas)	GROWTH INDEX
1942	26.3	619.5	23,556,2	100
1945	26.9	583.3	21,682.8	92
1950	28.0	740.2	26,436.8	112
1955	29.2	1,043.1	35,725.3	152
1960	30,4	1,215.3	35,975.7	170
1965	32.1	1,821.9	56,756,7	241
1970	33.8	2,576.1	76,216.0	323
1975	35.6	3,370.5	94,677.0	402
1980	37.4	3,714.2	99,310.0	421
1981	37.7	3,723,3	98,761,0	419
1982	37.9	3,768.6	99,420.0	422

Source: a) Population: INE, Population census
b) G.N.P. Contabilidad Nacional de España, annual series INE

Movements of population and migrations gave rise to an important territorial imbalance. The population, as with industry and wealth, was concentrated in a few areas, particularly Madrid, Catalonia and the Basque Country, while other regions, especially Castile and Estremadura, underwent a process of relative depopulation, which resulted in a drop in their population densities.

Table I.4. EVOLUTION OF POPULATION AND DENSITY BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES*

Autonomous Community	Area Km^2	Population in Thousands of Inhabitants		Density Inhabitants per Km^2	
		1940	1970	1940	1970
Andalusia	87,258	5,218	5,970	59.8	68.4
Aragon	47,669	1,059	1,162	22.2	24.3
Asturias	10,565	837	1,046	79.0	99.0
Balearics	5,014	407	558	81.0	111.0
Canary Islands	7,273	681	1,171	93.6	161.0
Cantabria	5,289	394	467	75.0	88.0
Catalonia	31,930	2,890	5,122	90.5	160.4
Galicia	29,434	2,496	2,584	84.8	87.7
Castile/ La Mancha	79,226	1,923	1,707	24.2	21.5
Castile/ León	83,688	2,396	2,373	28.6	28.3
Extremadura	41,602	1,254	1,144	30.1	27.5
La Rioja	5,034	221	236	44.0	47.0
Madrid	7,995	1,580	3,793	198.0	474.0
Murcia	11,317	720	832	64.0	74.0
Navarra	10,421	370	465	35.0	45.0
The Basque Country	7,261	956	1,878	131.6	258.6
Valencia	23,305	2,177	3,072	93.4	131.8

* Ceuta & Melilla are not included

Source: INE Population census and in-house processing data.

Also worthy of note is the fact that during the period of economic development, there was only a slight increase in the working population, despite the considerable demographic increase in general. This fact was to have tremendous repercussions in the future.

Table I. 5. WORKING POPULATION BETWEEN 1960 AND 1984 BY MAJOR ECONOMIC SECTORS

	Years			
	1960	1972	1978	1984
Agriculture	4,869	3,202	2,435	1,907
Industry	2,884	3,314	3,337	2,723
Construction	794	1,196	1,153	801
Services	3,129	4,705	5,155	5,251
TOTAL	11,676	12,458	12,081	10,638

Source: INE, Working population survey, annual series

Not only foreign emigration but also the number of children attending school contributed to this relative stability. As a result of this, Spain was to enter the economic crisis of the 70's with national output far lower than the rest of the O.E.C.D, and was to find herself with a far higher unemployment rate later on.

Table I. 6. BALANCE OF MIGRATORY MOVEMENTS IN SPAIN

1961 - 1979

Years	Migratory Balance (N° of Persons)
Average during period 1961-1972	55,369
Total net emigration figures 1961-1972	664,432
1961	107,557
1962	96,661
1963	82,311
1964	80,128
1965	60,600
1966	- 1,085
1967	-25,000
1968	18,000
1969	68,869
1970	65,674
1971	70,348
1972	40,369
Average during period 1973-79	-39,889
Total net emigration figures 1973-79	-279,222
1973	- 9,073
1974	-84,473
1975	-45,485
1976	-54,358
1977	-45,053
1978	-24,379
1979	-16,401

Source: Spanish Emigration Institute (Taken from the Research Department of the Banco Urquijo. La Economía Española en la Década de los Setenta. Alianza, Madrid 1982).

Table I.7. NUMBERS OF STUDENTS BY TYPE OF EDUCATION

(In Thousands)

Level / Year	1965-66	1970-71	1975-76	1980-81	1982-83
Pre-School	610.6	819.9	920.3	1,182.4	1,187.6
E.G.B.	3,331.8	3,929.5	5,473.5	5,606.4	5,633.5
BUP-COU	884.1	1,538.2	818.4	1,091.2	1,117.6
F.P.	122.1	151.7	305.2	558.8	650.9
Second level	93.9	116.3	204.6	329.9	388.6
University Schools	128.6	111.1	134.3	179.1	181.8
Faculties and University Colleges	93.0	168.6	346.5	423.9	464.6
Higher Technical Colleges	32.9	44.5	49.3	46.1	45.8
Various Third Level	5.9	19.7	24.8	31.9	36.9

Source: Education Statistics in Spain. INE Statistics MEC (1982-83)

Table I.7 reflects the increase in the number of children attending school, in keeping the economic growth and also an intense school building policy, particularly in secondary education. At the end of the period, Spain was to have levels of schooling similar, in many aspects, to those of the most developed European countries.

1. 3. THE 60's

The same economic development on which the régime based its survival accentuated even more so the inadequacy of the political structures. The process of modernization, directed from the powers above, mainly by groups of technocrats who belonged to the religious association "Opus Dei", came up against tremendous political limitations. Spain had become member of various international economic organizations, such as the O.E.C.D., the I.M.F. , or the I.R.F.B., back in the fifties. She had also become member of the U.N., but had tried in vain to join the E.E.C. On the other hand, the Left began, from the sixties onwards, to plan a strategy for a "national reconciliation", extending its influence to the working class and the University. At the end of the sixties, the nationalist or autonomist forces of Catalonia and the Basque Country, the working classes, the majority of the intellectuals who had studied in the "turbulent" University of that time, all united in a common front of opposition to the régime, while the new middle classes were increasingly becoming more hostile and the Church and the upper class took positions for the future which was already clearly foreshadowed. This prepared the way to a peaceful transition from an authoritarian régime to a parliamentary democracy.

Of course the régime did not only limit itself to trying to adapt to the new economic situations. During the sixties, shielded behind the technocratic ideology of "development" - whose most illustrious spokesmen proclaimed the end of ideologies and legitimized the régime for its achievements - a certain freedom of the press was permitted, public administration was reformed and, in general, a more liberal attitude was propagated except when it meant dealing with the political essence of the dictatorship. The Education Act of 1970, motivated by agitation in the universities and among the intellectuals, sought to adapt the education system to the new requirements of a modern economic system. This Act laid the foundation for the present-day educational system.

2. THE 70'S: ECONOMIC CRISIS AND POLITICAL CHANGE

At the end of 1973, petrol prices shot up by almost 500%. This gave rise to a reversal in the economic trends of the developed countries, which was to last - with a few non-European exceptions - up to the present day. In the O.E.C.D countries, taken as a whole, economic growth dropped from almost 5% annually to practically zero, the decade ending with an average growth rate of 2.5%.

Unemployment rose from 2% to 8%, and inflation increased to 10%. As an immediate result of the rise in energy prices, the deficits in the balance of payments also increased, and even more so when in 1979 petrol prices doubled again.

All these phenomena occurred in Spain but far more acutely, as can be appreciated from tables I.8 and 9. The GNP dropped from an average growth rate of 6.5% to 2.5%, unemployment rose from 2% to 15%, inflation reached 24% in 1977 and in 1981 was still at 15%, and also the foreign deficit was considerably greater than in the rest of the O.E.C.D. countries.

Various features, peculiar to Spanish society and politics, are responsible for the greater intensity of the crisis.

Thus, the unemployment rate is just as much related to the economic slow-down as to the closing of the labour market in Europe and the stabilization of growth in the education system: in fact, one obtains a far more exact idea of the impact of the crisis whether one takes employment or unemployment figures. (Table I.5.)

Moreover, almost all economists agree that an economic policy more in line with that of the other countries of the O.E.C.D. would have greatly lessened the effects of the crisis, which were made worse by the fact that the latter governments of the dictatorship were reluctant to take economical measures which would have been highly unpopular. During 1974, the economic policies continued with the stamp of the usual "triumphant" rhetoric, as though nothing was happening. Salaries were increased to avoid social conflicts and in doing so, effectively reduced firms' operating costs surplus and the deficit of the public

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Table I.8. EVOLUTION OF BASIC VARIABLES OF THE SPANISH ECONOMY DURING THE CRISIS PERIOD COMPARED TO PREVIOUS YEARS

	1965-73	1974-80	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
Real Growth Rate of GNP (%)	6.5	2.5	5.9	1.1	3.0	3.3	2.7	0.6	1.5	0.5
Real Growth Rate of Internal Demand (%)	6.7	2.1	6.0	0.8	3.0	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.5	- 0.5
Level of Unemployment (in % of active population)	1.4	7.2	3.2	4.7	5.3	6.3	8.2	10.1	12.6	15.0
Growth Rate in Productivity (%)	5.6	4.1	5.6	3.6	2.5	4.2	5.5	3.0	4.2	3.0
Use of Productivity Capacity (% of Whole)	83.6	80.8	84.0	79.5	81.5	82.7	80.0	79.7	78.0	77.0
Rate of Consumer Price Increases (%)	7.4	18.0	15.7	17.0	17.6	24.5	19.8	15.7	15.5	14.5
Balance of Payments (C/A Thousands of Millions of Dollars)	-0.01	-2.2	-3.2	-3.5	-4.3	-2.2	1.6	1.1	-5.0	-5.3

Estimates
Source: Avance de la Contabilidad Nacional de España, 1979 (From the Servicio de Estudios of the Banco Urquijo)

administration shot up for reasons connected with political events. All this had a negative effect on savings and investments and a positive influence on inflation.

Indecisive economic policies had much to do with the transition from the dictatorship to a parliamentary democracy. General Franco died in November 1975 and was replaced by the King as Head of State. In the middle of 1976, the King appointed Adolfo Suarez as head of the Government. Suarez immediately announced a process for the dismantling of the Francoist institutions from within. By great majority, the Francoist Cortes (Parliament) passed a Law for Political Reform, which was approved by 73% of the electorate in a referendum - 2% of the votes were negative - and this allowed for the first general elections to be held since 1936 and also for the dismantling of the most characteristic Francoist institutions, such as the "Sindicatos Verticales" and the "Organización del Movimiento". The electorate voted mainly for the moderate tendencies of both left and right: the Unión de Centro Democrático of Adolfo Suarez and the Partido Socialista Obrero Español, whose Secretary-General was Felipe González. The Francoist politicians, who had joined the Alianza Popular of Manuel Fraga, and the Communist Party of Santiago Carrillo, were reduced to minority groups. The distribution of votes and parliamentary seats in the 1977 elections - shown in table I.10 - gave the parliamentary majority to UCD, which was to govern the country until 1982. The parliament which emerged from these first elections drafted a Constitution by means of consensus. A referendum was held and the Constitution was approved in 1978.

The political transition was achieved in an atmosphere of relative tranquility - there were few moments of tension - but even so a heavy price was paid in terms of economic policies. The State acquired financial commitments which considerably increased the deficit and the unions succeeded in getting wage increases which did not correspond to the increase in productivity

TABLE I. 9 GLOBAL RESULTS OF THE CRISIS IN SPAIN AND IN THE O.E.C.D.
(Variations between the Period 1974-80 and 1965-73)

	Spain	O.E.C.D.
Interannual Rate of Effective Growth of GNP	62% reduction	48% reduction
Interannual Rate of Effective Growth of Domestic Demand	69% reduction	69% reduction **
Interannual Rate of Growth of Productivity	27% reduction	74% reduction ***
Level of Unemployment	414% increase	82% increase
Interannual Rate of Price Increases	143% increase	119% increase

(**) for the seven largest countries of the O.E.C.D.

(***) for the 12 countries of the O.E.C.D., which represent 92% of the GNP of the organization.

Source: O.E.C.D. The National Institute of Statistics. (In accordance with the Servicio de Estudios of the Banco Urquijo).

Table I. 10. VOTES & SEATS IN THE 1977 ELECTIONS

POLITICAL PARTIES	VOTES %	SEATS
Alianza Popular	8.42	16
Unión de Centro Democrático	34.85	167
PSOE-PSP	33.87	124
PCE-PSUC	9.28	22
Regional Parties	6.0	19
Others	7.58	2
TOTAL	100.0	350

Source: FOESSA Foundation. Research on Political Change in Spain. Euroamérica, Madrid 1981

In 1978, both the Government and the Opposition continued to apply the formula for consensus to tackle the economic situation and to this effect the Moncloa Pacts were signed. These were maintained in successive years along with other agreements on salary increases and economic policy. Of course the scandalous inflation rate (almost 25%) of 1977 - the year of the elections - was not repeated. However, since then, unemployment and the destruction of jobs have continued to increase.

3. PRESENT-DAY SPAIN

3.1. POPULATION

Spain has an area of 503,432 Km^2. According to the 1981 Census, the number of inhabitants was 37,680.960; the average density being 75 per square kilometer. The population is distributed unequally, the density being higher in the coastal areas than inland, with Madrid being the exception. More than half of the Spanish population, 55% of the total, is distributed among the autonomous communities: Andalusia (17.7%) Catalonia (15.8%), Madrid (12.4%) and Valencia (9.7%). The remaining 45% is distributed amorg the other 14 autonomous communities.

The distribution of the population, according to age, is shown in the following table:

Table I. 11. EVOLUTION IN POPULATION STRUCTURE BY AGE-GROUPS

Age Groups	1950	1960	1970 (Census)	1975	1981
Total Population	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
0-14	26.2	27.4	27.8	27.1	25.6
15-64	66.6	64.4	62.8	62.5	63.1
65 and over	7.2	8.2	9.7	10.4	11.3

Source: INE 1981 Census. Preview of Results

Over the last five-year period, according to information taken from the census, a speeding-up of the process of ageing of the population can be observed. This trend has been constant since 1950, albeit at a slower rate.

Table I.12 THE BIRTH RATE

YEAR	BIRTH RATE
1900	33.80
1910	32.60
1920	29.30
1930	28.20
1940	24.80
1950	20.20
1960	21.80
1970	19.60
1975	18.85
1976	18.85
1977	18.05
1978	17.32
1979	16.22
1980	15.12
1981	14.13
1982	13.44

Source: INE Annual Statistics, 1981

The ageing process of the population is due to both the decrease in the relative importance of the 0 to 14 age-group (a direct consequence of the fall in the birth-rate) and to the increase of the 65 and over age-group. The fall in the birth-rate has reached levels similar to those in the industrialized countries of the O.E.C.D., albeit 10 years later, and this has caused an important decrease in the size of recent generations (Table I. 12.) This decrease is of great importance for educational planning, which will have to take into account some of the problems already familiar to other countries.

3.2. ACTIVITY

The rate of activity in Spain has always been low, compared to other countries of the O.E.C.D. The ratio does not tend to even itself out as time passes - as can be seen in Table I.13 - the rate of activity has continually declined over the last four intercensual periods, and together with this an increase in the rate of dependence of the non-working population.

Table I. 13 RATES OF ACTIVITY ACCORDING TO SEX IN RELATION TO POPULATION CENSUS

Year	Male	Female	Total
1950	67.4	11.8	38.6
1960	64.1	15.2	38.9
1970	57.5	13.4	35.0
1981	51.8	16.3	33.7

Source: INE. Population Census

There are many causes for the fall in the rate of activity. The most obvious ones being the increase in the number of children attending school and the raising of the legal working-age from 14 to 16. These factors and others have checked the increase in the rate of activity of the female working-population. The effect of these factors can be deduced from the comparison of the rates of activity, according to age, in 1970 and 1981. (Table I.14). However, other factors, directly connected with the economic crisis, cannot be appreciated: the fall in the labour-demand encouraged young people to stay at school and at the same time discouraged a sector of the population from seeking employment. In fact, during the crisis years, the working population has decreased in absolute terms, as can be appreciated in Table I.15.

Table I. 14 RATES OF ACTIVITY ACCORDING TO AGE AND SEX, FROM THE 1970 & 1981 CENSUS (in percentages)

AGE GROUPS	1970 CENSUS			1981 CENSUS (Preview)		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Population 16 year olds & over	48.0	80.9	17.7	46.6	72.8	22.1
16-19	54.9	69.7	39.7	45.2	52.9	37.2
20-24	60.5	81.0	39.6	59.6	69.7	49.2
25-29	58.0	95.2	20.8	66.2	94.5	37.3
30-34	54.9	97.0	13.7	61.5	97.0	25.8
35-39	54.8	97.0	13.2	58.4	96.8	20.1
40-44	54.6	96.4	13.9	56.3	95.4	18.1
45-49	54.3	95.5	14.4	55.1	93.2	18.0
50-54	50.8	91.8	15.0	52.6	89.0	17.9
55-59	47.8	86.5	14.6	47.5	81.3	16.3
60-64	40.3	74.2	11.7	33.0	58.6	11.9
65 & over	11.1	21.4	3.9	3.8	6.5	2.0

Source: INE, 1981 Census, preview of results.

Table I. 15 EVOLUTION OF WORKING POPULATION

(in millions)

Years	Working Population	Total Population
1970	12.5	33.8
1971	12.7	34.1
1972	13.0	34.4
1973	13.4	34.7
1974	13.4	35.0
1975	13.4	35.6
1976	13.2	35.9
1977	13.2	36.3
1978	13.2	36.7
1979	13.2	37.0
1980*	12.9	37.3
1981	13.0	37.7
1982	13.2	37.9
1983	13.3	-
1984	13.3	-

Source: INE Working Population Surveys

(*) Persons between 14 and 16 years of age are not included in the figures of this year.

The decrease in the working population implies an increase in the non-working population, Table I. 16 reflects the composition of non-working population in 1970 and 1981. In this period both the number of retired people (who have ceased work) and the student population (who normally have no employment nor have had employment) has doubled.

Table 1. 16. NON-WORKING POPULATION ACCORDING TO SECTORS

(absolute and relative values)

SECTORS	1970 CENSUS		1981 CENSUS (preview)	
	Absolute values	Distribution percentage	Absolute values	Distribution percentage
NON-WORKING 16 and over:				
Total	10,484,048	100.0	14,320,470	100.0
Men	2,193,879	17.6	3,274,352	22.9
Women	10,290,169	82.4	11,046,119	77.1
NON-WORKING ACCORDING TO SECTORS:				
(Total)	12,484,048	100.0	14,320,470	100.0
Retired persons ...	2,113,896	16.9	4,083,061	28.6
Persons of independent means .	124.643	1.0	59,295	0.4
Students	832,641	6.7	1,538,038	10.7
Housewives, etc ...	8,862,276	71.0	7,692,496	53.7
Others	550,584	4.4	947,590	6.6
NON-WORKING MALES:	2,193,879	100.0	3,274,352	100.0
Retired persons ...	1,289,458	58.8	2,178,042	66.6
Persons of independent means .	61,825	2.8	27,438	0.8
Students	473,999	21.6	764,123	23.3
Others	368,591	16.8	304,749	9.3
NON-WORKING FEMALES:	10,290,169	100.0	11,046,119	100.0
Retired persons ...	824,438	8.0	1,906,009	17.2
Persons of independent means .	62,818	0.6	31,857	0.2
Students	358,642	3.5	773,915	7.1
Housewives, etc....	8,862,278	86.1	7,692,496	69.6
Others	181,993	1.8	642,842	5.8

Source: INE, 1981 Census. Preview of results.

On the other hand, there has been a considerable drop in the number of housewives. In relation to the present report, the most note-worthy fact is that the number of students over the age of 16 jumped from 3/4 of a million to 1,5 million.

3.3. EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Despite the fall in the working population, the number of those who want to work, but cannot, has steadily increased over the past years, due to a decrease in employment in absolute terms. For this reason, Spain is the country where the least number of people are employed in the whole of the O.E.C.D: the ratio between total population and working-population in Spain is 3.34, even higher than that of Turkey (3.11) and Ireland (3.03), and almost doubling that of Sweden (1.97), Japan (2.10) or Denmark (2.16). Even if the ratio where adjusting by including the figures for the "black" economy, the basic ratio would still be valid. At the present time, the unemployment index is one of the highest in the O.E.C.D, standing at around 20% at the time of writing.

It is obvious that the hardest hit by unemployment are the younger members of the community. Table I. 17 shows the relationship between economic activity and the 16 - 29 age-group. Despite the great number of non-working youth, the unemployment rate for this sector stands at 50%. Unemployment is the most serious problem facing the Spanish economy, the capacity of which for generating employment was small even during periods of strong growth.

Table 1.17 DISTRIBUTION OF 16 to 29 AGE-GROUP ACCORDING TO ACTIVITY

AGE	1	2	2a	2b	2c	3	3a	3b	4
	Total	Non-working Population	Students	Housewives etc.	Others	Working population	Employed	Unemployed	Unemployment Rate
16-19	2,654.8	1,515.4	1,247.0	187.9	80.5	1,072.3	481.6	590.7	55.1
20-24	2,962.6	1,882.0	535.4	302.5	44.1	1,827.2	1,076.7	750.5	41.1
25-29	2,267.8	615.1	72.9	505.6	36.6	1,644.4	1,269.3	375.1	22.8

Source: INE. Working Population Survey, Ist. quarter, 1984.

3.4. LEVEL OF EDUCATION REACHED

Table I.18 reflects the distribution of the Spanish population according to levels of education reached and age-groups. (Distribution according to sex is very similar). The Census, from which the figures are taken, includes a person at a given educational level, merely by having started at that level. It can be observed how, in consecutive age-groups, the level of illiteracy decreases and how education at secondary level is rapidly becoming the accepted norm for the Spanish population. Also worthy of note is the proportionof university graduates, in the younger age-groups, who may have finished at that level - which has risen from 2% to 10% and no doubt will double this figure again with the future student generations.

Table I. 18 POPULATION ABOVE 10 YEARS OF AGE WHO ARE NO LONGER STUDYING, BY AGE AND COMPLETED LEVELS OF EDUCATION (relative values)

(Source: INE 1981 Census. Preview of Results)

Completed level of Education	TOTAL	10-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 & over
TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Illiterate	7.92	2.52	1.80	4.44	8.00	10.44	21.50
No level reached	23.05	10.49	14.03	23.69	28.97	24.52	31.81
1st level Primary EGB	42.42	31.55	44.70	42.00	46.90	45.74	37.69
2nd level Primary EGB	12.15	34.01	16.13	9.41	5.59	4.33	2.49
BUP 2nd stage FP	7.38	15.28	11.62	6.43	4.63	3.54	1.94
3rd level Esc. Univ.	3.64	3.24	5.89	4.48	2.93	2.40	2.41
Univ. Fact.	3.04	1.57	5.61	3.72	2.69	2.16	2.00
Non classf.	0.40	1.34	0.22	0.21	0.26	0.27	0.15

In 1982, taken at current prices and exchange rates, income per capita in Spain was 4,778 US dollars, approximately half that of France (US$ 9,961) and a third that of Switzerland (US$ 14,929). Taking into account purchasing-power (or price levels), in comparison, income per capita was US$ 6.870 compared to US$ 10,747 (France) and US$ 13,106 (United States). In real terms, therefore, the income per capita is greater than in normal terms, and is equivalent to approximately half that of the United States.

Public administration in Spain, on the other hand, only spends 30% of the GDP, compared to 46% in France and Great Britain. It also has less income. Consequently, the proportion of income for private consumption is greater. 84% of gross family income remains net after tax and social security, which is a higher percentage than in all the other countries of the O.E.C.D., except France.

These figures, (taken from the O.E.C.D. Observer no. 127, March 1984), emphasize the weakness of the public sector in Spain, and influence the way education is financed. Moreover, they explain that private consumption in Spain is greater than what would be expectedfrom the income per capita. Also, the level of economic development reflects income per capita in a poorer way than productivity per working person. In Spain, in particular, income per capita is comparatively lower than productivity due to the rate of employment mentioned earlier on.

To sum up, the Spanish population is undergoing a fairly rapid process of ageing and, at the same time, a rise in educational levels of the younger generations. The number of children attending school, in relation to age-groups, is higher than in most of the O.E.C.D countries. The majority of the students and O.A.P's (Senior Citizens) are supported by a very reduced working population, whose productivity is only slightly lower than countries like Great Britain and Japan, on a 2.34 to one ratio. For this reason, income per capita is comparatively lower than the technological level of production. However, consumer capacity turns out to be greater because public expenditure is less than that of the other countries. Income available for expenditure produced in this way is shared out among families in a way which is the most uneaqual of almost any other European country, without any sign of a trend to increase equality in this area. Thus, productivity per working person in Spain in 1981 was calculated to be US$ 17.025; this productivity is obviously lower than Japan (US$ 20,383) or Great Britain (US$ 20,899), yet the difference between their respective incomes per capita and that of Spain is far less.

How is this income share out among the population? The following table allows us to compare the inequality in Spain with that of other countries.

Table I.19

DISTRIBUTION OF AVAILABLE FAMILY INCOME IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

(in tens of thousands)

	IST	2ND	3RD	4TH	5TH	6TH	7TH	8TH	9TH	10TH
Sweden (1972)	2.2	4.4	5.9	7.2	8.5	10.0	11.5	13.3	15.7	21.3
Norway (1970)	2.3	4.0	5.6	7.3	8.6	10.2	11.7	13.0	15.1	22.2
U.K. (1973)	2.5	3.8	5.5	7.1	8.5	9.9	11.1	12.8	15.2	23.5
Australia (1966-67)	2.1	4.5	6.2	7.3	8.3	9.5	10.9	12.5	15.1	23.7
Canada (1969)	1.5	3.5	5.1	6.7	8.2	9.7	11.2	13.1	15.9	25.1
U.S.A. (1972)	1.5	3.0	4.5	6.2	7.8	9.5	11.3	13.4	16.3	26.6
Japan (1969)	3.0	4.9	6.1	7.0	7.9	8.9	9.9	11.3	13.8	27.2
Holland (1967)	2.6	3.9	5.2	6.4	7.6	8.8	10.3	12.4	15.2	27.7
W.Germany (1973)	2.8	3.7	4.6	5.7	6.8	8.2	9.8	12.1	15.8	30.4
France (1970)	1.4	2.9	4.2	5.6	7.4	8.9	9.7	13.0	16.5	30.4
Italy (1969)	1.7	3.4	4.7	5.8	7.0	9.2	9.8	11.9	15.6	30.9
Spain (1974, adjusted)	1.8	3.2	4.5	5.1	6.3	8.0	9.1	10.1	12.4	39.6

Source: A. and J. Alcaide, reproduced from FOESSA report.

Table I.20 reflects the evolution of income distribution in Spain. Spain can be seen to be the country which has the most unequal income distribution, except perhaps for France, whether the higher or the lower figures are taken as being indicative. This distribution has hardly undergone any change since 1964.

Table I. 20 DISTRIBUTION OF AVAILABLE FAMILY INCOME

(in ratio of tens of thousands)

	YEARS			
	1964	1967	1970	1974
First	1.43	1.33	1.44	1.76
Second	3.31	3.03	3.13	3.18
Third	4.66	4.20	4.31	4.47
Fourth	6.12	5.52	5.29	5.11
Fifth	7.23	6.64	6.42	6.34
Sixth	8.46	7.73	7.90	8.04
Seventh	9.18	8.38	8.59	9.06
Eighth	10.35	9.72	9.90	10.09
Ninth	12.41	12.12	12.26	12.28
Tenth	36.85	41.32	40.76	39.57

Source: A & J Alcaide - FOESSA Report

3.6 THE PRESENT DAY ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL COORDINATES

Despite the efforts of different governments, the economic situation only slightly improved over the last decade. In the socialist electoral programme of the PSOE, who won the 1982 October general elections, the fight against unemployment was top priority i.e. economic recovery and the creation of new jobs (enticingly calculated at 800,000). To achieve this aim, the first two years of government were devoted to the fight against inflation, by means of reducing wage increases and lessening the public sector deficit, so that with a drop in inflation and a rise in company profits this would promote investment. This policy was revealed in the latest report of the O.E.C.D on the Spanish economy [1]: "Immediate priority has been given to the fight against inflation and the correction of the large current account deficit. To this end, monetary policy has been substantially tight, efforts have been made to reduce the large public sector deficit and strict wage norms have been enforced in the public sector. A more determined approach has also been adopted to tackle the structural problems at their source. The ways and means of conducting industrial reconversion have been re-examined and some concrete steps have already been taken. Some measures have been introduced to curb the rapid growth in social benefits and promote a more appropriate tax structure. More ambitious reforms of social security, the tax system as well as public enterprises (not covered by industrial restructuring schemes) are also currently under preparation.

Finally, measuresare planned to increase labour market flexibility".

The immediate results of this policy, around the middle of 1984, were noticeable in the fall in inflation (down to 9%), however, there was no appreciable increase in investment nor a drop in unemployment. At the same time, an ambitious but painful restructuring of the economy was undertaken, the most obvious example of which is the process of industrial reconversion urged by the prospects of joining the EEC.

The latest report of the O.E.C.D.[2] captures the restructuring process as follows:

"For too many years, Spain has pursued a defensive strategy aimed at sheltering the existing structure of activity and employment from the deep changes affecting the world economy. There are many reasons for this, but the fact remains that the approach followed has not prevented the continued deterioration of the country's macro-economic performance. The point has been reached where structural adjustments can no longer be avoided or deferred. This is now clearly recognized by the Spanish authorities. Their efforts to tackle underlying imbalances by restoring greater flexibility to the economic system and improving its efficiency, imply temporary sacrifices of living standards but are the only way to ensuring the return to sustainable medium-term growth of output and employment and

the gradual solution of the present acute unemployment problem."

Concerning educational policy, which is the object of this report, the two most important conditioning factors are the limited growth of the education budget, which is not sufficient to cover all the urgently-needed reforms set out in the government's programme, and the fact that the student, at all levels, on completing his education, is confronted with a long period of job-hunting. Both these problems will be amply dealt with in the following pages.

References Chapter I.

(1) O.E.C.D. Economic Surveys 1983-84, Spain May 1984, page 79

(2) Op Cit, page 51.

CHAPTER II

ADMINISTRATION AND EDUCATION CONTROL

1. EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

1.1 EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION: DEVELOPMENT SINCE 1939

With the Act for the Reorganisation of the New State, which was passed by the Administration on August 8, 1939, the 'Ministry for Public Instruction' was changed to the 'Ministry for National Education'; the structural organisation, however, remained the same: one Subsecretariat and four Directorates-General (Primary Education, Secondary and Higher Education, Vocational and Technical Education and Fine Arts). The Education Administration, like all other Administrations, was rigidly centralised, hierarchical and bureaucratic. In the peripheral administration, the Rector was the head of each University District and presided over the District Boards. The Provincial Governor presided over the Provincial Committees for National Education and the Mayor presided over the Local Education Boards. The above-mentioned committees were composed of the headteachers of the various educational centres, and also of representatives of the Church, and of the Phalange.

Education Administration underwent structural changes with the passing of the Act of April 14, 1955. The General Technical Secretariat was set up, to carry out research and documentation as well as providing technical assistance to the Minister, and for the preparation of departmental plans. The Comissariat for Cultural Development and the Commissariat for School Protection were also set up at this time, each one having Directorate-

General Status.

In the peripheral administration, the Rectorates were given more power and Provincial Administrative Delegations were set up in substitution of the Administrative Sections.

In 1968, the then Minister of Education - Villar Palasí- undertook to reform the Education Administration, and, by order of the President of the Government (19th January 1970), a working-party was set-up, composed of staff from the Education Department and from the Presidency of the Government. This team found that the Education Administration was excessively centralized and that there was a total absence of staffing policy and of administrative requirements planning and also a lack of professional administrators.

The Decrees of 31st December 1970 and 28th January 1971 organized the Central Administration assigning departments of Directorate-General status for the administration of related functions. In this way the Directorate-General for Educational Planning was created for qualitative reform in Education, ie. to closely watch over subject matter being taught, methodology and evaluation of educational performance. The Directorate-General for Staffing was created to take responsibility for teaching staff and programming of personnel services. The Directorate-General for Programming and Investment was created for Educational Planning and Finances. The Directorate-General for Universities was organized, giving attention to sectorial criteria with respect to the future autonomy of the

Universities. The Directorate-General for Fine Arts and for Archives and Libraries was also reorganised. The Directorate -General for Vocational and Technical Education and the Promotion of Education included on-going education, and the promotion of vocational|technical studies as well as student promotion.

In peripheral administration, more power was given to the Provincial Delegations, the Delegate being the representative for the Minister in the Province, and having authority over all educational centres, except Universities, which continued to be under the authority of the rector.

These Delegations were provided with a Secretariat and Planning Departments for administrative and cultural services, but although they were given 'decentralising' functions, centralism continued just the same, due to inadequate staffing.

Since then the administration of education has undergone successive reforms along with corresponding ministerial changes. The Directorate-General for staffing, and for programming and investment have been maintained, and those for primary and secondary education have reappeared. Decentralisation took place in the provinces by Royal Decree, (December 1, 1978), which made the Provincial Delegations solve the numerous problems in existence for themselves.

1.2 THE M.E.C.(*) AT PRESENT.

At the moment the State Administration is undergoing reforms in order to adapt its organizational structure to the new territorial organization of the country and to the distribution of political power between the State and Autonomous Communities.

In accordance with the Law for Autonomous Process, the reform of the State Administration has to adjust to the following guidelines:

- In Ministerial Departments and other branches which make up the Central Administration, the directorial element must be suppressed or reconverted into departments for coordination, planning, inspection and documentation, seeing that these functions are basically those which the Central Administration will be undertaking in the new State of Autonomous Regions.

- The peripheral organization of different Ministries will merge into one and will come under the authority of the Provincial Governor, who will be the only delegate of the Central Government in each Province.

The M.E.C. has begun to adjust its organizational structure to the requirements of the autonomous process.

(*) M.E.C. - Ministry of Education and Science.

When the present organizational structure was established, the functions and educational services had been transferred to four Autonomous Communities and the corresponding transfers to another two Communities were being prepared. This means that, when the process of political decentralization in the educational field comes to an end, with the transferring of the corresponding authority to the eleven remaining Automomous Communities, the M.E.C. will have to be reorganized yet again. The present organizational structure of the M.E.C. was passed by Royal Decree 1266/83 on the 27th April (published in the Official State Gazette on 21st May) in which educational authority had been transferred to the Basque Country, Catalonia, Galicia and Andalusia. In July of the same year, the appropriate authority will be transferred to the Canary Islands and the Valencian Community.

The present organizational structure of the M.E.C. is as follows:

At the head of the M.E.C. is the Minister who presides over an Advisory Council, which helps him/her to plan education policy. This Council is formed by the Secretary of State for University Education and Research, the Subsecretary, the President of the Higher Board for Scientific Research, the Technical General Secretary, the Directors-General, the Director of the Minister's Cabinet - who assumes the Secretariat of the Council - and the Director of the Secretary of State's Cabinet.

There is also a Cabinet, the Director of which has Director-General status, which provides immediate assistance to the Minister, and in which is incorporated the Press Office of the Department.

Assigned to the Ministry are the Institute of Spain and the Royal Academies.

The Minister presides over the Advisory Commitee for Scientific and Technical Research, the advisory body of the Delegated Commisions for Education, Cultural and Scientific Policy.

The Advisory Branches of the M.E.C. are the National Advisory Board for Education, the National Board of Universities and the Coordinating Board for Vocational/ Professional Training.

1.2.1. STATE SECRETARIAT FOR UNIVERSITIES AND RESEARCH (X)

on which the following depend:

- The Directorate-General for University Education.
- The Directorate-General for Scientific Policy.

(X) - Under Spanish Administration, State Secretariats, of fairly recent creation, are the answer to the aim to give maximum administrative status - albeit within a specific Ministry- in the handling of one or various specific, homogeneous and important subjects.

- The Autonomous Organisations: the Higher Board for Scientific Research, Universities, Santa Cristina Hospital and the Official Midwifery School.

These are assigned to the Department of Education through this State Secretariat.

A) DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION is composed of the following departments:

- Subdirectorate-General for University Academic Planning
- Subdirectorate-General for Teaching Staff in University Faculties and Higher Technical Schools
- Subdirectorate-General for University Schools
- Subdirectorate-General for Research into Higher Education.

B) DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR SCIENTIFIC POLICY

under which are the following:

- Subdirectorate-General for the Co-ordination and Promotion of Research
- Subdirectorate-General for Scientific Documentation and Data

1.2.2. SUBSECRETARY FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

under which come the following:

- Directorate-General,Co-ordination and High Inspectorate
- Directorate-General, Programming and Investment
- Directorate-General, Staffing and Services
- Directorate-General, Primary Education
- Directorate-General, Secondary Education
- Directorate-General, the Promotion of Education

The following have Subdirectorate-General status:

- The Technical Cabinet
- Subdirectorate General for Education in the Arts
- Subdirectorate of Inspection of Primary Education
- Technical Inspection for Secondary and Vocational/Professional Education
- Advisory Spokesmen
- Delegation of the National Institute of Statistics
- Consultant Body for Legal Advice
- The Audit Bureau of the Exchequer
- Subdirectorate for In-Service Teacher-Training

A) DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR COORDINATION AND HIGH-LEVEL INSPECTION

organised as follows:

- Subdirectorate-General for Relations with the Autonomous Communities
- General Inspectorate Services

The peripheral services of the Department are assigned to this through the Directorate-General.

B) DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR PROGRAMMING AND INVESTMENT

under which come the following:

- Subdirectorate-General for Planning and Programming
- Budget Agency

The Director-General presides over the Board for Construction, Installations and School Equipment, and the Subdirectorates General for Contracting, Projects and Construction.

C) DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR STAFFING AND SERVICES

organised as follows:

- Subdirectorate-General for Programming and Personnel/ Staff
- Subdirectorate-General for Secondary Education and General Administration Staffing
- Subdirectorate-General for Primary School Staffing
- Subdirectorate-General for Resources and Foundations
- Ledger Department
- Pay Board and Purchases Board
- Autonomous Organism Trustees of Homes for Civil Servants (presided over by the Director-General for Staffing and Services.)

D) DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR BASIC EDUCATION

has the following departments:

- Subdirectorate-General for Educational Planning
- Subdirectorate-General for School Centres
- Subdirectorate-General for Special Education.

The Director-General for Basic Education is the Director of the autonomous organization, the National Institute for Special Education.

E) DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION ("ENSEÑANZAS MEDIAS")

on which the following departments depend:

- Subdirectorate-General for Academic Planning
- Subdirectorate-General for "Bachillerato"
- Subdirectorate-General for Formación Profesional
- Subdirectorate-General for Centros de Enseñanzas Integradas.

The autonomous Trust for Formación Profesional, whose President is the Director General for Secondary Education.

F) DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT

has the following departments:

- Subdirectorate-General for Compensatory Education

- Subdirectorate-General for Education Overseas
- Subdirectorate-General for Long Distance Education to which are assigned: the National Institute for Distance Secondary Education, the National Centre for Distance Primary Education as well as the National Institute for Student Assistance and Advancement.

1.2.3. GENERAL TECHNICAL SECRETARIAT

on which the following Subdirectors depend:

- General Technical Subsecretariat
- Subdirectorate-General for International Cooperation
- Subdirectorate-General for Organization and Automation
- The National Centre for Educational Research and Documentation.

Also assigned to this General Secretariat are the following: Data-processing Commitee, Statistics Commitee, International Cooperation Commitee and the Autonomous Organism for Ministerial Publication Services.

1.2.4 PERIPHERAL ORGANIZATION

The peripheral organization of the M.E.C. has been greatly affected by the development, so far, of the autonomous process of the 50 provinces into which the country has been divided up:

24 belong to Autonomous Communities where the corresponding educational competences have been taken over. In these territories, the Ministry continue to perform the competences which are assigned to it, according to the Constitution. These competences will be discussed in greater detail further on.

At provincial level, the State authority is exercised by recently created departments of the Provincial Governor and these are staffed by a maximun of 7 Civil Servants.

Services and Educational Centres of the remaining 26 provinces, besides Ceuta and Melilla, continue to depend on the M.E.C., seeing that they are still not affected by transfers of educational authority.

1.3 TOWARDS A PLURAL EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The distribution of educational competences, inherent in the process of political decentralization in the educational field means the birth of an Educational Administration in each Autonomous Community.

As will be explained later in greater detail, 6 Autonomous Communities have already taken over practically all the educational powers which are set out in their respective Autonomous Statutes. This has given rise to a configuration of adequately structured Educational Administrations in each of the said Autonomous Communities whith sufficient means to carry out their corresponding

functions. These means basically come from those which the State had in the respective Community and which are transferred to it by agreements between the Central Administration and the Autonomous Community.

In the Autonomous Communities which, as yet, do not have full educational powers, the Educational Administration dependent on the said Community has a basic structure in which educational matters are grouped together within the same Authority along with Cultural matters and, at times, with Sports and those matters referring to Youth.

The existence of a plural Educational Administration underlines the necessity for coordination by using the appropriate institutional mechanisms which are referred to later on.

2. CONTROL FUNCTION

2.1 GENERAL EVOLUTION

In Educational Administration, the established control system is worth a special mention. To check the adaption between results and objetives and to demonstrate existing deviations, their causes and remedies, constitute an adjustment in function, the success of which depends on the capacity for information, evaluation and management of the Ministry with respect to its own organization and the Educational system.

Although the Inspectorates have by no means reached the limits of their controlling functions, they do constitute the institutionalized form of this control. The process of establishment, permanence and specialization of the organizations in charge of inspection duties is along the following lines:

1) Various attempts have been made to establish a General Inspectorate of Public Instruction but have had little effect. Owing to successive obstacles which were of a diverse nature, the project was doomed to failure.

2) A development to extend and intensify specialized inspection activity has taken place, dependent in each case on different areas of Ministerial activity, starting with the creation the Inspectorate for Primary Instruction (Royal Decree of 30th March 1849) and later the corresponding Inspectorates for "Bachillerato", vocational/professional education and commercial education. This trend towards specialization and the fragmentation of Inspectorate activity was completely formalized by the Act of 10th April 1942, concerning the organization of the Ministry for National Education, and which states that each Directive Board of the Department will be assisted by its corresponding Inspectorate. This led to sixteen specialized Inspectorate Services being in existence prior to the General Education Act.

3) There has been some differentiation in Inspectorate activity in the specific areas of ministerial activity (educational levels, cultural services, etc.,) and in the organisational and administrative functioning of services and Boards of the Department, which, initially, appear to be related to administrative services dependent on the Subsecretariat of the Department.

4) There has also been underlying concern in teaching Inspectorates which are called Technical Inspectors, about back-up services, evaluation of educational performance and advice to schools and staff about organisation, teaching methods and teaching content. The initial functions of control and surveillance of staff and teaching are gradually being accompanied by other functions for improvement and orientation, which are a moving-away from the general framework of Inspectorate functions.

5) A progressive distinction between what are considered general control functions, which correspond to all heads of departments in relation to the running of each department, and the inspecting functions entrusted to organisations outside the hierarchy, which are specialised in control functions, and the exclusive mission of which concerns reports and proposals.

6) A belated reaction in the Ministry towards the establishing of the general character of the Inspectorates' functions by the Law of Legal Regulations for the State Administration, which gave Inspectorate functions to Ministers and Undersecretaries over all Services, Centres and Organizations assigned to the Department. Until the Decree of 18th January 1968, a General Services Inspectorate did not figure in the organigramme of the Department, thus making the responsability of the Inspectorate of the Undersecretariat ineffective. It was only by the Decree of 25th September 1968 that the Inspectorate is assigned to the Minister of the Department.

2.2 PRESENT FORMS OF CONTROL

The present outlines for control established in the M.E.C. since the General Law for Education, are organized according to the different systems in question: the Education system or the Administrative system. The reality of the interdependence of both systems - the administrative system gives body to the education system, just as the skeleton supports the muscles, - does not imply that they are not different in function. The contents, techniques and objetives of one and the other are different. For this reason, the basic outlines for control set down in the General Education Act distinguish between Technical Inspection Service, which is specifically active in the area of education functions, and General Services Inspection aimed at the control

of resources and working methods, which is the specific area of the administrative function. The process of transferences of State education competences to the Autonomous Communities has brought with it a new request for control, which in legal texts (Statutes of the Autonomous Communities etc.) is known as High-Level State Inspection for Educational Affairs. Together with the General Inspectorate for Services, which is active in the area of organization and functioning of the non-transferred educational administration and also technical inspection, ie. technical/ pedagogical supervision of teaching-staff and educational Centres, High-Level State Inspection mainly deals with the Autonomous Administration in order to guarantee Constitutional principles of equality and the right to Education, (Spanish Constitution 139.1) and for the basic unity of the Education system (Spanish Constitution 27.8)

Apart from the Ministry's own Inspection Services, a complete list of controlling organizations should include Inspection Services outside those of the Ministry in order to control Ministerial powers. These controlling organizations are active throughout the Public Administration (inspection and control of the Exchequer and the Presidency of the Government) and to all types of organizations, State or private, (inspection of the Ministries of Labour, Transport and Health). These external controls mainly affect the administrative and financial systems of the Ministry and not educational functions. In this report we shall only pay special attention to those controlling organizations which are decisive in the education administration, as for example, financial control, which is

undertaken by the general Auditing Section of the Administration and is dependent on the Exchequer.

2.2.1 ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL

The present organization of administrative inspection dates back to the General Education Act, in which article 144 states that the General Inspectorate for Services is a dependent organization of the M.E.C. and the mission of which is to inspect the administrative organization and the functioning of all Services, Organizations and Centres, which depend on the Department , specially with reference to teaching-staff, procedures, economic set-up, installations and personnel.

Administrative control is effected by "informing" (referred to Higher Authorities for the offences committed, to Courts of Justice for guilty offences and to the National Audit Bureau for irregularities) and by "proposal" (with regards to revoking the authority for teaching functions and corrective measures for deficiencies in administrative performance) and by "reporting" on the performance of administrative staff and work adjustment, and by "suggestions" for attaining greater staff efficiency.

The General Inspectorate for Services is exclusively on a centralized level. Branches of the General Inspectorate do not exist in the provinces.

The General Inspectorate for Services has no part in the administrative system, which has been trasferred to the Autonomous Communities, which must organize their own Inspectorates in their respective areas. However, some Autonomous Communities continue to make use of the services of the General Inspectorate of the Ministry. In these cases, a special petition on behalf of the Autonomous Community is necessary and there after the General Inspectorate Services depend on the corresponding Community.

2.2.2. FINANCIAL CONTROL

The present organization for tax-control undertaken by the Audit Department of the State Administration and dependent on the Exchequer, has been built up from an accountable perspective, which arose at a time when the important thing was to reduce State participation and to control legal expenditure. Educational activity has been conditioned both by the allocation system of State resources (provision of budgetary credits) and by the tax-controls of which it disposes. This means that the Department of Education and the Exchequer on Public Expenditure is subject to a "constant intervention" into the management of the resources which have been granted. Every peseta spent by the Ministry from the credits already "granted" by the Exchequer, is subject to a control mechanism, which allows the Exchequer to make up to four separate inspections (auditing of credit reserves, auditing of liabilities, auditing of payments and auditing for justifiying accounts). All

this independent of whether the expenditure is necessary and justified in relation to the amount or whether the expenditure is effective for the purpose for which it will be "formally used". A process has already begun to improve the present situation by legally substitution "a priori" control for "a posteriori" fiscal auditing and also by starting technical budgets for different programmes.

2.2.3. PEDAGOGICAL CONTROL: TECHNICAL INSPECTION SERVICES

The inspection administration for Centres and Services of the M.E.C. has the same objectives as all other public administration departments. For the Education Administration this objective is specifically a technical-pedagogical inspection for both State and private educational centres. Consequently, the techniques employed are more of a supervisory and back-up character than control and surveillance, according to the matter under inspection. Throughout the development of the organization for Technical Inspection, there have always been strained relations between is pedagogical role and its assuming hierarchical techniques and bureaucratic services.

One of the aims of the education reform undertaken at the beginning of the 70's was for technical inspections to assume responsibility for the control of educational performance and for orientation in educational matters. In this way, certain administrative functions, which were detrimental to their general

technical functions, would be taken away from them. These functions had been assigned to them in order to fill the administrative vacuum in the peripheral organization of the Ministry. Until the General Education Act, Provincial Delegations were not established as general organizations for coordination, programming and for taking over Departmental activity in the provinces. To this end, The General Education Act established a Service for Technical Inspection in Education, made up of specialists from different teaching-levels, chosen from civil servants in the Department of Education. The basic functions laid down for this Technical Inspection Service were those of investigation, and counselling and evaluation of teaching-staff and schools. An additional function was assigned to this Service to ensure educational legislation was observed.

With regard to the inspection of University Centres, the Law made provision for this to be done by University professors according to reglamentary norms which in fact were never dictated. (Article 142.2)

The provisions of the General Education Act for the establishing of a Technical Service and a new system of selection were not carried out, and, for this reason, the integration of the different technical inspections for education has not taken place. Likewise, the provision that to be able to form part of the Inspectorate Body, it was necessary to come from the teaching profession, was not fulfilled.

As the integration of the different types of inspection has not taken place, at present, various technical inspections function separately, i.e. preschool, EGB, 'Bachillerato', vocational|professional, schools of applied art and conservatoires. This fragmentation is responsible for the fact that some types of education lack any kind of inspection (Language Schools, Schools of Music, etc.) The Technical Inspection Services for primary and vocational|professional education have a peripheral organisation at provincial level and form part of the Provincial Directorate. (Decree of December 31, 1970) This integration into the Provincial Directorate has always met with resistance and still causes tension. The Inspection Services for secondary education are still organised in relation to University Districts in accordance with the previous system, before the existence of the Provincial Delegations.

At present, a new Act of Public Functions has been passed (August 4, 1984). The Act includes, amongst other things, the merging of the 26 Educational bodies of secondary, primary and preschool education into two bodies. The Act also favours the suppression of the present Inspection Bodies, and establishes that in the future, new inspection posts, in which the supervisory character and technical back-up in educational functions will be foremost, will be undertaken by teachers selected through competitive examinations, and will be of a temporary nature.

Education function and technical inspection services have been

included in the group of educational transferences to the Autonomous Communities, along with full powers. In these communities, the State no longer performs the function of technical inspection in the educational field, the corresponding services having been transferred to the Administration of the Autonomous Community in question. These transferences affect the titular nature of the function, the organization and the means - personnel and all types - with which the function is performed. The legal organization of the educational function continues to be established in State regulations and inspection personnel for primary and secondary education continue to belong to the corresponding State Bodies.

2.3. HIGH-LEVEL STATE INSPECTION IN EDUCATION

The Statutes of the Autonomous Communities introduced explicitly the concept of High-Level State Inspection in their respective precepts on education. The Act of 19th June 1980, on approving the Statute for Education Centres reiterated this State function, stating that, because of the nature of High-Level Inspection, this function would correspond to the State, to guarantee that the Autonomous Communities would fulfill their obligations in educational matter. (Additional Decree 2,c) High Level Inspection, the specific regulations of which are established in the Royal Decree of 6th March 1981, concerning the function of High- Level Inspection* in the Basque Country and Catalonia, constitutes a

*Constitutionality was confirmed by sentence of the Constitutional Tribunal (22nd February 1982) and its application extended to all other Communities, which in the future will assume full educational competences (Royal Decree of 23rd May 1983)

guarantee against possible abuse by the Public Authorities in the Autonomous Communities in the exercise of educational competences. Thus, in this way, High-Level State Inspection acts as a legal watch-dog over rules and regulations in the Autonomous Communities and ensures strict observance of basic State rules and also constitutional principles in educational matters.

High-Level Inspection has the following functions:

- supervision of minimal education, general organization of the education system, academic diplomas, basic characteristics of school report books, grants and scholarships and basic conditions which guarantee equal rights for the Spanish people regarding language.

- Information, with regards to the processing of statistics for educational purposes, the drawing up of General Reports on Education in the respective Autonomous Communities.

In accordance with the functions, the interventions of High-Level Inspections will be specified in reports and recorded. The judgement on these reports may effectively lead to a loss of official effects in the education area affected and a refusal to issue the corresponding diplomas, as well as to general measures of legal and governmental control of the activity of the organizations of the Autonomous Communities established in articles 153 and 155 of the Spanish Constitution.

The organization of the central services of High-Level Inspection was established by the Royal Decree of 24th July 1981. At present, a regulatory set of norms and rules are under preparation for the organization and functioning of territorial services of High-Level Inspection in each Autonomous Community. The method of selecting the civil servants who will undertake these functions is also under preparation. Until these territorial services are fully established, High-Level Inspection will concentrate its attention on the maintenance and legal control of the body of rules established by the Autonomous Communities. They will also deal with isolated cases in which persons have lodged complaints with the Ministry because they consider their constitutional rights have been harmed by the Autonomous Communities in relation to educational questions.

CHAPTER III

DECENTRALIZATION OF EDUCATION

1. DECENTRALIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

1.1. PROVINCIAL OFFICES OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE (M.E.C.)

At the end of the ninteen-sixties, the considerable expansion in demand for education and the parallel growth of the organisational apparatus necessary to satisfy this demand,made it advisable to adopt measures aimed at decentralization, in order to achieve more active and flexible operation of the system.

Decentralization to peripheral organs and departments was possible due to the creation of a network of provincial offices of the M.E.C., the functions of which were defined by the General Education Act of 1970.

Until that time, in most provinces, there were up to twenty different departments, with no mutual connections, which related back directly to the central unit handling the corresponding educational matter. Article 141.1 of the General Education Act ended this situation by ordering that the provincial offices of the Ministry "Shall assume responsibility for the management, coordination, programming and carrying out of the activities of the Ministry in the province, with the exception of the Centres

for University Education.'*

1.2 EVOLUTION OF THE DECENTRALISING PROCESS

The Decree organising the Provincial Offices of the MEC** mentioned that the organisation being set up 'would facilitate the decentralisation or delegation of many responsibilities assumed up to now by central departments'. However, the process of decentralisation as such did not begin until eight years later. Even then, the first general instruction on decentralisation had to be partially suspended a short time after being published, because the Provincial offices did not have sufficient staff and resources to handle and resolve all the matters which had been devolved upon them***

Finally, new instructions which came into effect as from academic year 1983-84 ratified and extended the scope of decentralisation to the provincial level in such a way and to such a considerable

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* The Provincial Offices, today known as Provincial Directorates, have continued without any responsibility in the university areas. The Higher Education Centres mentioned in the above law form part of their respective universities, which communicate directly with the central departments at present making up the State Secretariat for Universities and Research, of the Ministry of Education and Science.

** This Decree, 3855|1970 of December 31, (Official State Gazette of February 19), issued shortly after the General Education Act.

*** Royal Decree 3186|1978 of December 1 (Official State Gazette of January 20, 1979) which devolved functions to the Provincial offices of the MEC. This Royal Decree was partially suspended by an order of February 8, 1979 (Official State Gazette, February 15).

extent that they include virtually all staff matters, contracts for building work (up to the sum of pesetas 100 million for each project) and for school furniture and equipment, organisation of school transport and meals, distribution of credits for operation of educational centres, and many other matters.*

1.3. NEED FOR DECENTRALIZATION IN EDUCATION

Administrative decentralization, in view of its restricted nature as a series of technical measures aimed at improving management procedures, could not of itself constitute a factor capable of giving an impulse to the democratization of the educational system.

This democratization of education, by way of decentralization, was particularly necessary in Spain due to the fact that it is a State with a variety of cultures and languages.

The Constitution establishes the general principle of decentralization of the education system by stating that general education programming, which guarantees the right of all to education, shall be undertaken with the effective participation of all affected sectors. The Organic Law on the Right to Education (L.O.D.E) developed this constitutional

(*) These instructions are given in Royal Decree 2293/1983 of 28 July (Off. State Gazette of 26 August) and order of 3 August 1983. (Off. State Gazette of 12 August).

principle by creating the State School Council, on which will be represented teachers, parents of pupils, administrative and service staff, private centres, trade unions and employers' organizations, the State Educational Administration, the universities and persons with prestige in the field of education. All important laws and regulations on education will be submitted to the State School Council, which will also produce reports on any other questions submitted for its consideration.

School Councils have also been created in the Autonomous Communities, and they could be set up in other territorial areas. Each educational centre will have its own school council.

The political decentralization of the educational administration is undertaken by assigning wide powers to the Autonomous Communities, and transferring to them the functions and services necessary to exercise such powers.

2. EVOLUTION OF THE PROCESS OF POLITICAL DECENTRALIZATION

2.1. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSIBILITIES BETWEEN THE STATE AND THE AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES

On the legal level, political decentralization is undertaken by means of the distribution of responsibilities between the State and the seventeen Autonomous Communities into which the country has been territorially divided, to which should be

added the cities of Ceuta and Melilla. *

The subjects in which the Constitution does not attribute responsibilities to the State, can correspond to the Autonomous Communities in accordance with the terms of their respective Statutes of Autonomy. The Constitution lists thirty-two subjects for which the State has exclusive responsibility, and mentions another twenty two for which responsibilities can be assumed by the Autonomous Communities. However, this list of subjects can be increased by the Statutes of Autonomy, but only as far as the limit of subjects considered exclusively reserved to the State, known as the "reserve of State responsibilities".

Education is considered to be a shared responsibility, because certain of its aspects correspond to the State while others are assumed by the Autonomous Communities.

The reservation of responsibilities to the State is intended to ensure the basic unity of the education system throughout the country. The concept of "basic unity" leaves the doors open for the Autonomous Communities, exercising their responsibilities within the limits of their respective territories, to add specific differentiating elements to the basic part of the system.

(*) At present a special Statute is under study for these cities of Ceuta and Melilla, which as is well known, are situated on the African continent.

The subjects reserved to the State for the specific purpose of ensuring the basic unity of the education system are as follows:

a) The regulation of conditions to be satisfied so that academic and professional titles can achieve validity throughout Spain. Non-university titles are granted by the King, and in his name, they are issued by the Ministry of Education and Science*. This responsibility of the state is detailed in Article 149.1.30 of the Constitution.

b) The issuing of the basic rules to put into effect the principles of Article 27 of the Constitution**.

This exclusive responsibility of the state, which also appears in Article 149.1.30 of the Constitution, has been used to pass three important Acts. These are the Statutes of Teaching Establishments Act (LOECE), passed on June 19, 1980, the recent Right to Education Act (LODE), which repeals the LOECE; and the University Reform Act, passed on August 25, 1983. The application of the LODE is in fact suspended until the Constitutional Tribunal resolves

(*) Royal Decree of June 18, 1982 established the procedure for issuing non-university titles.

(**) The entire text of this Article is given in Chapter I of Part II.

the appeal presented against it.*

c) General Regulation of the education system, recognised as a responsibility of the State, formerly by the LOECE and now by the LODE.

This regulation includes: determination of the length of obligatory schooling; setting of levels, degrees, special subjects, cycles, modes of education, and the number of academic years corresponding to the entrance requirements for one level of education from the previous one, as well as deciding on the basic characteristics of the School Record Book imposed as an obligatory and general requirement at each level of education.

d) Decisions on limits of minimum education.

By setting minimum limits or a common fund of knowledge, which is obligatory for the whole country, the State ensures the basic unity of the system to which references has already been made above. ** The Autonomous Communities have the right to impose in their respective territories, subjects additional to the minimum, corresponding to specific regional features and their own cultural values.
Manuals or text-books corresponding to the minimum education must be authorised by the Ministry.

e) The determination of minimum requirements for centres.

(*) The Constitutional Tribunal, created to decide conflicts arising from the application of the Constitution, has already issued important sentences on educational matters.

(**) Minimum educational content has been set for the first and intermediate stages or cycles of Basic General Education.

These requirements, which guarantee a minimum quality of education, must be the same for all Spaniards, not being subject to modification by the Autonomous Communities, in accordance with a setence of the Constitutional Tribunal.

The requirements refer to academic titles of teaching staff, the ratio of puils to teachers, educational and sports installations, and the number of school places.

f) In Autonomous Communities with their own languages (Catalonia, Basque Country, Galicia Community of Valencia and the Balearic Islands), the State also has the responsibility of ensuring the right and duty of knowing the Castilian language, notwhithstanding the responsibilities of the respective Communities to guarantee the use and knowledge of the two languages declared official, Castilian and the specific language of the Community.

Art. 27.8 of the Constitution states that the public authorities will inspect and establish standards for the education system, in order to guarantee fulfilment of the laws.

The fulfilment of the law regulating the play of responsibilities described up to this point, is ensured by the Higher Inspectorate, which therefore is, as has been explained when describing the control function, a specialised inspectorate born as a requirement of the State of the Autonomies.*

(*) The specific functions, mode of operation and manner of selecting members of the Higher Inspection, are given in Royal Decree of 6 March 1982, and another of 23 March 83.

2.2. TRANSFER OF RESOURCES TO THE AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES FOR THE EXERCISE OF THEIR EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

The resources necessary to fulfil the wide educational responsibilities assigned to the Autonomous Communities, are made available to them by what is known as a "transfer of functions and services". By this means the legal provisions on autonomy are put into effect, and an educational administration is set up in each Autonomous Community.

The process is undertaken by a Mixed Transfer Commission, made up of representatives of the Ministry and the respective Autonomous Community. The Commissions have no power to distribute responsibilities, since, as has already been mentioned, this distribution is based on the Constitution, the Statutes of Autonomy, regulations issued by the State in accordance with constitutional precepts and the interpretation of all these elements by the Constitutional Tribunal, when it is requested to intervene. The task of the Mixed Transfer Commissions is to specify which functions are to be passed over to the Autonomous Communities to fulfil their responsibilities (which are formerly undertaken by the Ministry), and which human, material and financial resources will be transferred to permit the normal fulfilment of these funtions.

The transfer of resources is a very complex operation, since

it is necessary to specify and evaluate the extent to which the central organization of the Ministry will have to be reduced, in relation to each transfer made.

The first transfers of educational functions and services were made to the Basque Country and Catalonia, with effect as from 1 Juanuary 1981. Together with Galicia, the Basque Country and Catalonia made up the so-called "Historic Communities", given this name because prior to the restoration of the democratic system in Spain, and specifically during the Republic from 1931 to 1936, they had Statutes of Autonomy after the popular plebiscite to approve them.

The present Constitution established a special procedure for obtention of autonomy, simpler and faster than the employed for the other Autonomous Communities.

A further four Autonomous Communities have, up to the present moment, reached the point of actually exercising the educational responsibilities granted to them by their Statutes. These are Galicia (1 July 1982), Andalusia (1 January 1983), Canary Islands (1 July 1983) and the Community of Valencia (also 1 July 1983).

These six Autonomous Communities are exercising approximately the same responsibilities in educational matters. Consequently, the functions and services transferred were also almost the same. Nevertheless, the structure of the Decrees

making the transfers to the Basque Country and Catalonia is different from the subsequently used in the other cases, for the following reason.

On July 31, 1981, the political party at that time in power, Unión de Centro Democrático, and the main opposition party, Partido Socialista Obrero Español, signed the so-called Autonomy Agreements, in order to bring a close as soon as possible the constituent period of the new model of State, and make it possible to this State to function on a basis of standarisation of autonomous political institutions. These Autonomy Agreements incorporated recommendations on this subject by a group of experts led by Prof. García de Enterría. One of these agreements stated that the Decrees providing for the transfer of resources should specify separately the functions being transferred, those being retained by the Central Administration of the State to fulfil its own responsibilities and, finally, those areas in which the central and autonomous authorities should cooperate. It was also agreed that a clear statement should be made of the constitutional, legal and statutory basis for the transfer being made.

However, when the Autonomy Agreements were reached, the transfers had already been made to the Basque Country and Catalonia. Thus, the transfer to Galicia was the first case in which the transfer decrees were structured in the form established in the Agreements, which were subsequently ratified by the

Law on the Autonomy Process, no. 12/1983 of 14 October.

2.3. FUNCTIONS TRANSFERRED TO THE AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES, THOSE RETAINED BY THE CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE STATE, AND THOSE WHICH ARE SHARED

Responsibilities corresponding to the Autonomous Communities in educational matters are very wide, to the extent that most Statutes speak of full responsibilities, though always within the framework of state responsibilities. Thus, the functions and services transferred are in proportion to the width of responsibility. The management of the education system is undertaken by the Autonomous Community in its respective territory, and so the existing network of centres with their teaching staff, technical inspection services and administration in each province are made dependent on the Community. (*) Apart from the management or executive function, as from the time of transfer the Autonomous Communities also assume responsibilities for regulations and organisation in numerous matters.

A summary of the responsibilities reserved to the Central Administration of the State, as giving specifically in the decree starting with that relating to Galicia, is as follows:

(*) The State has set up an office of the M.E.C. in each province, in order to handle those matters connected with responsibilities reserved to the State. Questions related to title, recognition of studies, foreign centres and other matters are handled in these offices.

- Those already mentioned which refer to applying the precepts of Article 27 of the Constitution; general organization of the education system, setting of minimum education requirements; determination of minimum requirements for centres; titles and higher inspection.

- General planning of educational investments, in accordance with forecasts supplied by the Autonomous Communities.

- Policy of assistance for studies.

- International cooperation on educational matters.(*)

These are questions on which neither the Central Administration of the State nor the Autonomous Administration can act alone, but where the cooperation of both public authorities is required. The transfer decrees mentioned the following matters on which joint action is obligatory.

a) The exchange of information, necessary for overall planning in the educational field to be possible, and for adequate use of the resources available.

Statistics for State purposes are one matter which the Consti-

(*) Certain other specific matters are also reserved to the Central Administration of the State, given its singular nature as a public authority, including the protectorate over national or international educational foundations, management of Spanish centres abroad, and certain others.

tution reserves as responsibility of the State. For its part, the Law of the Autonomy Process states that the Government of the Nation and the governments of the respective Autonomous Communities must exchange information. The decrees transferring functions and services specify how this exchange of information must be organised, when the data are computarised, or could be. One measure ensuring the reciprocal flow of information is the existence of national and regional registers of educational centres and titles(*)

b) Educational research. At present, forms of cooperation to encourage and develop this activity are under study. In the M.E.C. there is a National Centre for Educational Research and Documentation, which depends directly on the General Technical Secretariate.

c) In Service teacher training, by means of national programmes with the participation of the Autonomous Communities, and by regional programmes which they themselves prepared and carry out.

d) Long-distance education, undertaken by three national public-sector entities and a high number of private centres. The national centres are the National University for Long-Distance Education (UNED), the National Institute for Long-

(*) The Registers of Centres have both this informative aim and also serve for purposes of legal registration,

Distance Secondary Education (INBAD), and the National Centre for Long-Distance Basic Education (CENEBAD).

Agreements have been signed between the Central Administration and some Autonomous Communities which are already exercising their full educational responsibilities, so that INBAD and CENEBAD can continue to function in their territories. Such agreement in these and other matters for joint action is provided for in the transfer decrees.

2.4. SECTORAL COORDINATION CONFERENCES

The existence of different public Administrations, which is a result of the process of political decentralisation, makes it necessary for institutional coordination mechanisms to function.

This was the aim behind the creation of the Sectoral Conferences made up of Councillorsof the different Autonomous Communities and the Minister of the Government of the Nation for the corresponding sector, with the Minister taking the chair.

The Sectoral Conferences will meet from time to time, at least twice a year, and will exchange points of view and examine common problems and the solutions proposed to settle them.

The LODE states that the Sectoral Conference of Education

will meet as often as possible to ensure the coordination of education policy and the exchange of information. In all cases it must meet before meetings of the State School Council, to which mention has already been made.

2.5. PLANS TO CONTINUE WITH TRANSFERS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Educational functions and services have already been transferred to six Autonomous Communities, corresponding to twenty-four provinces, while eleven more territories with a total of twenty six provinces still wait transfer, in addition to the cities of Ceuta and Melilla, where the educational organization will continue to depend on the M.E.C. The Constitution permits these eleven Autonomous Communities to attain equal or similar conditions of autonomy to the first six, five years after the entry into effect of their Autonomy Statutes, once the Statutes have been reformed. (*) However, Article 150.2 of the Constitution provides another way of reaching the maximum "ceiling" of responsibilities without waiting for the Statute to be in force for five years or reforming the Statute. Under this alternative system, the regional legislative assembly requests the national Parliament to approve an organic law transferring or delegating responsibilities of the State of the corresponding Autonomous

(*) The dates when the Statutes of these eleven Autonomous Communities came into force are:
- Between January/September 1982: Asturias, Cantabria, La Rioja, Murcia, Navarra, Castile-La Mancha & Aragón.
- Between February/March 1983: Extremadura, Balearic Islands, Madrid and Castile-León.

Community (*). This was the constitutional course followed by the Canary Islands and the Community of Valencia to attain maximum educational responsibilities as recognised in their respective Statutes, as from 1 July 1983.

At the time of writing this Report, no early transfer of educational responsibilities to other Autonomous Communities is foreseen. However, this situation could change at any moment, insofar as the decision to allow an Autonomous Community to attain these responsibilities by making use of the alternative method established by Art. 150.2 of the Constitution, as two have already done, is a political decision, since in the last resort it must be adopted by Parliament

Be this as it may, it should be mentioned that the Assemblies of Madrid and the Balearic Islands have taken the first steps necessary to accelerate the transfer of responsibilities to their respective Communities, as their Legislative Assemblies have proposed to the national Parliament the adoption of an organic law as mentioned in the previous section.

The eleven Autonomous Communities which do not yet exercise the educational responsibilities recognised in their favour by their respective Statutes of Autonomy, have, nevertheless, started to undertake activities in the field of education by

(*) Organic laws are those which refer to fundamental rights and public liberties, among other transcendental questions, and must be approved by an absolute majority of the Congress of the Deputies.

means of cooperation agreements with the Ministry. In this respect it must be remembered that these Communities have their own Executive Council or Government, with a Council post or Department in charge of education, together, in many cases, with culture, and also, in certain Communities, sport or youth matters.

The M.E.C. and the Autonomous Community of Madrid have just signed an agreement to carry out joint programmes of permanent education of adults, teachers training and promotion of associations of parents of pupils.

This cooperation, which is positive in itself, insofar as it allows an extension and deepening of the educational activities of the "formal" system, also serves as "running in" for the corresponding institutions of the Autonomous Communities, in preparation for the day when they attain full exercise of the educational responsibilities which correspond to them.

CHAPTER IV

THE FINANCING OF EDUCATION

We will examine the financial aspects of education under five main headings. Firstly, we will consider the total spending, both public and private, on education. We will then examine public spending and its distribution, followed by private spending and its distribution. In section 4, we will analyse how non-university education is financed with contributions from public and private bodies and, in section 5, the way in which university education is financed.

1. TOTAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION

It is a commonplace, at least it has been since the '60s, that the level of spending on education in Spain is low. Thus, to quote an official source, the White Paper published in 1969 underlines the fact that only 3.7% of the Spanish national income is spent on education, as opposed to 6.5% in the United States of America, 5.2% in Denmark, 4.6% in Japan, or 4.3% in Venezuela. All authors, almost without exception, conclude that it is necessary to increase this low proportion.

One of the few voices which have disagreed with this idea has been that of Amando de Miguel in the reports of the Foessa Foundation, particularly in the 1970 report. This author has maintained that spending on education in Spain reaches at least 5% of the national income. He reached this figure by carefully compiling

information on all public and private spending, including that of official institutions other than the Ministry of Education and amounts spent by families on the residence and maintenance of their children. From his calculations, he drew the following conclusions:

"It appears that Spain's spending (about 5% of the national income) is what she could reasonably "be expected" to spend, given her income level. In 1965, Spain spent less per inhabitant than Venezuela and Japan and more per pupil than these two countries. The difference could well be due to statistical errors in the estimations with which we had to deal, which were very varied and approximate.

If it were necessary to evaluate Spain's economic effort in the educational field, we would dare to argue that, in view of the income level which is the starting-point, the proportion spent on education is sufficient, although the number of pupils for which it caters is insufficient. Or, in other words, if seems that education in Spain is more expensive than would be expected from the results obtained. The explanation is that, in relation to our level of development, we have to cater for a more numerous university population than would be expected from the level reached in primary schooling, as we have seen previously. However, what can evidently not be said about Spain is that the educational spending is "insufficient" and nor does it seem reasonable to advise that the proportion of income spent on education should be

sharply raised without first ensuring that such an increase would be rational and well-administered. Only the extension of education and an effort to obtain a higher quality would make it advisable to increase the amount spent on education.

Until 1968, private spending on education had always been higher than public spending. For a country in which the government is always insisting on the "social" nature of the regimen, these facts show that something does not work, that the "social vocation" is not as important in the general organization of education as is officially claimed". (1)

Table IV.1 shows the evolution of educational spending since 1970, the year in which the paragraphs quoted above were written, and compares private and public spending on education with the respective total costs and with the G.N.P. As can be seen, private spending on education stays around 2% of the total private spending; however, public spending on education is 2% more of the total public spending than the 1970 level. Consequently, the ratio of private-spending public-spending has dropped over these years, private spending having come down from 70% of public spending in 1970 to 45% in recent years.

On comparing the total educational spending with the G.N.P., it can be seen that, just in 1980, it reached 5%, whereas in 1970, the figure which is shown in the table is 3.7%. Now then, the authors of FOESSA stated that, in this year, spending was already

TABLE IV.1

TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION (THOUSAND MILLION PESETAS)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
YEAR	PRIVATE SPENDING ON EDUCATION	PUBLIC SPENDING ON EDUCATION	TOTAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION	TOTAL PRIVATE SPENDING	TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING	G.N.P. COST FACTORS	1/4x100	2/5x100	3/6x100	1/2
1.970	36.0	51.2	87.0	1,860.6	590.5	2,349.5	1.9	8.6	3.7	0.70
1.974	70.6	11.5	181.6	3,636.0	1,187.0	4.796.5	1.9	9.3	3.8	0.63
1.975	91.8	136.7	228.5	4,288.5	1,490.9	5,683.0	2.1	9.1	3.9	0.69
1.979	200.5	387.1	587.6	9,277.7	3,785.9	12,529.0	2.2	10.2	4.6	0.51
1.980	226.5	433.8	660.3	11,021.8	4,614.9	14,484.1	2.0	9.4	4.6	0.52
1.981	251.2	558.5	809.7	12,630.1	5,389.2	16,393.5	2.0	10.3	4.9	0.45
1.982		655.9		14,576.4		18,883.0				
1.983		803.7								

SOURCE: COLUMN 2: ESTIMATES BY S. ALEGRE, FINANCIAL REPORT SERVICE OF THE DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR PLANNING AND INVESTMENT OF M.E.C.

REMAINDER: I.N.E., SPANISH STATE ACCOUNTING, REPORT 1970, MADRID 1982.

NOTES: 1) TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING REPRESENTS THE TOTAL INCOME OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION BELONGING TO C.N.E.

2) THE ESTIMATES IN COLUMN 2 ARE EQUAL TO THE TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING AS SHOWN IN TABLE IV.3

5% and that the method used to make these calculations was defective. If this was the case, it would have to be acknowledged that all these percentages are defective, in spite of the fact that not only the money obtained from taxes has been included in public spending, but also that which comes from parafiscal exemptions and levies, which, from another point of view, could be considered as directly private spending.

Having set out these overall figures, we will now make a more detailed study of them.

2 . PUBLIC SPENDING ON EDUCATION

2.1. THE ROLE OF THE VARIOUS PUBLIC AGENTS:

During the dictatorship, other Organisms, in addition to the M.E.C.,took charge of educational matters, such as the Unions, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Labour and the military Ministries, which had always managed their own education; moreover, the role of the Municipal Governments and other local institutions in the financing of education gradually decreased. Miguel Beltrán, from whom the figures of table IV.2 are drawn, concluded from them that there existed an upward trend in spending at a central level and, therefore, a trend towards a centralization of the educational services. In fact, in the period which he was considering, the figures at a central level had risen from 80 to 90% of public spending on education.(2)

Table IV,3 reflects the development of the budgetary contributions of the various public agents to the financing of education. The contributions of the Ministries other than the Ministry of Education and those of the Municipal Governments are based on more or less direct estimates.

a) As can be seen, the Central or Institutional Administration bears the main part of the spending, even when the estimated contributions made by the Ministries is not included in it, just when Sections 32 and 33 of the General State Budget appear, which, in reality, do not reflect direct spending by the Central Administration, but transfers made to the Autonomous Communities with responsibilities in educational matters.

With regard to the financial year 1980, the total educational spending financed by the Central or Institutional Administration was 740,188.8 million pesetas, the breakdown of which is as follows:

TABLE IV.2 PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN SPAIN IN 1959 AND 1968

PUBLIC ENTITIES		YEAR 1968	
	Year 1959	1.968 Pesetas	1.959 Pesetas
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION	4,738	22,284	13,036
OTHER MINISTRIES	998	1,317	770
AUTONOMOUS ORGANISMS	2,492	1,385	810
LOCAL AUTHORITIES	676	1,214	710
	8,904	26,200	15,326

SOURCE: Table 14,103 OF THE FOESSA REPORT, 1970.

TABLE IV.3 PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION SINCE 1970 AS DISTRIBUTED AMONG THE DIFFERENT AGENCIES.

YEARS	1, M.E.C. BUDGET	2, OTHER M.E.C.EXPENDITURE	3, SECTION 32. GENERAL STATE BUDGET	4, SECTION 33 GENERAL STATE BUDGET	5, REST OF CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION (ESTIMATES) BASIC EDUCATION; F.P. NON FORMAL EDUCATION	6, LOCAL AUTHORITIES (ESTIMATES)	7, AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES	8, THE BASQUE COUNTRY (INITIAL CREDIT)	(1) + (2)	(1) to (7) TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING EDUCATION
1970	82.9	6.5	-	-	6.4	4.1	-	-	89.4	51,232.3
1971	83.0	7.1	-	-	6.0	4.1	-	-	90.1	70,060.8
1972	78.7	9.4	-	-	8.0	3.9	-	-	88.1	75,307.4
1973	74.9	9.9	-	-	11.5	3.8	-	-	84.8	87,159.3
1974	72.8	12.7	-	-	10.8	3.7	-	-	85.6	111,465.5
1975	73.9	10.5	-	-	10.2	3.7	-	-	84.2	136,781.9
1976	78.5	8.6	-	-	8.9	3.9	-	-	87.1	168,058.9
1977	7..4	12.3	-	-	6.9	3.9	-	-	89.3	218,358.9
1978	72.5	19.3	-	-	4.7	3.6	-	-	91.7	322,672.8
1979	77.9	12.8	-	-	5.4	3.9	-	-	90.7	387,103.0
1980	84.0	7.0	-	-	5.3	3.6	-	-	91.0	433,854.7
1981	79.5	4.7	-	-	12.1	3.4	-	-	84.4	558,485.3
1982	74.0	4.8	-	2.9	10.7	3.7	-	4	78.8	655,904.3
1983	61.9	4.7	11.7	3.4	10.0	3.1	-	48	66.6	803,692.8

SOURCE: General State Budgets and Directorate General of Planning and Investment.

	Millions of pesetas
a) Budgets of the Ministry of Education and Science (initial credits)	467,260.0
b) Section 32 of the General State Budgets	93,833.0
c) Section 33 of the General State Budgets	31,727.0
d) Own resources of the Autonomous Organisms of the M.E.C. (including University fees)	37,368.8
e) Contribution of the Central State Administration (estimated)	80,000.0
TOTAL	740,188.8

Section 32 of the General State Budgets (TERRITORIAL ENTITIES) includes the transfers (both net and capital) from the different Ministerial Departments to the Territorial Entities. The amount of these on the part of the M.E.C. totalled 93,833.0 million pesetas in the financial year 1983, with the following distribution:

	Millions of pesetas
- Net transfers	91,543.1
- Capital transfers	2,289.9
TOTAL	93,833.0

The annual endowment allocated by the General State Budgets to the Fund of Inter-Territorial Compensation (Section 33) whose resources are considered as general State costs and with which it is aimed to make the constitutional principle of Solidarity among the Autonomous Communities effective (article 156.1 and 158.2 of the Constitution), covers only capital transactions: real investments and capital transfers.

Consequently, these figures are, in reality, spent by the Autonomous Communities. The educational spending of other Ministerial Departments (such as Defence, Agriculture and Fisheries, Industry, Social Security, INEM Instituto Nacional de Empleo ,etc.), which are covered by the heading "Contribution of the Central State Administration", are calculated at 80,000 millions of pesetas for 1983, with the following distribution:

	Millions of pesetas
a) Budget headings for items such as Civil Servants' Training, University Colleges, grants, Institutes of Studies, etc, ...	20,000
b) Nursery School (Fund for Protection of work), aid to the Institute of Emigration, etc.	3,000
c) Section 31	7,000
d) Wages of First and Second Grade Formación Profesional, and those not included in the Budgets in the above headings; non-regulated education in Formación Profesional	50,000
TOTAL ...	80,000

a) The variation of the estimated figures for these central organisms other than the Ministry of Education is due to the administrative changes in their dependency. Over recent years, in an effort to rationalize, the Ministry of Education has been taking charge of the centres which formerly depended on the Vertical Unions, which no longer exist, of the Ministry of Labour and other organisms.

b) The contribution of the Local Administrations slowly decreases over these years from 4.1% to 3.1%, following the trend indicated by M. Beltrán. The decrease is of little importance, within a contribution which is also of little significance and is lower than that in the majority of European countries.

The Local Corporations intervene in the financing of public education in two ways:

a) By co-operating with the M.E.C. in the building of schools and bearing the maintenance costs of the public centres of compulsory education.

b) As owners of educational centres of different levels.

In 1953, an Act obliged the Municipal Governments to collaborate, in proportion to their size, in the building costs (up to 50%) and in the contribution of the sites. In view of the weakness of the municipal treasuries, the State has taken over this municipal contribution, legally or in fact. The contribution of the Local Corporations to school buildings is at present limited to supplying the sites for the construction of new centres and, even in this matter, they usually have difficulty.

Starting with building costs, it can be estimated that the cost of the sites, which, according to the Banco de Crédito a la Construcción, represents 15% of the former, was more than 4,500 million pesetas in 1983.

In addition, the Local Corporations bear the maintenance costs of the public centres of compulsory education. Starting from the unit cost per pupil, it can theoretically be estimated what this means. In 1983, the Municipal Governments will have to have spent, in total, some 16,000 million pesetas on maintenance and services in the centres. The percentage distribution would be approximately as follows:

- Personnel (cleaners, watchmen, etc)..	42%
- Miscellaneous supplies and services (heating, water, gas, lighting)	33%
- Repairs and maintenance	25%
TOTAL	100%

It is uncertain to what extent the Municipal Corporations fulfil these obligations, particularly those of repairing and maintaining the buildings and, recently, some have tried to make the M.E.C. responsible for all these costs.

In addition, the Municipal Governments also maintain their own centres. In 1984, according to the Educational Statistics of the I.N.E. (National Institute of Statistics), they had 101 E.G.B. centres, 77 Bachillerato centres and 48 for Formación Profesional (Professional Training), whose teaching staff (in addition to other costs) is paid by the M.E.C. The cost of maintaining these centres can be estimated at 5,000 million pesetas.

In total, therefore, the Local Corporate will have spent some 25,000 million pesetas in 1983, which is a little more than 3% of the total public spending on education. The proportion is, clearly, less than in other countries.

c) The Autonomous Communities have recently begun to take charge of certain educational services. To finance these, the costs are transferred to them from the General State Budgets (Section 32). In addition, the real investments are charged to a fund of interterritorial compensation, which appears in chapter 33.

With these transfers, the Autonomous Communities establish their own budgets, in which they distribute freely the funds received. In 1983, the Autonomous Communities spent a fifth of the total public educational budget, as can be seen in table IV.3. This figure will continue to increase over the next few years, when the process of transfers is completed, until they almost entirely replace the Ministry of Education as agents of public spending.

2.2. THE DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SPENDING

In carrying out the study of the distribution of public spending, we refer only to the budget of the Ministry of Education and Science, which is the one we know in detail.

The budget of the Ministry of Education and Science has been, in recent years, equal to 15% of the General State Budgets and equivalent to 2.7% of the G.N.P. (table IV.4). The comparison with the other countries of the O.C.E.D. is unfavourable to Spain. Thus, whilst in 1979, this budget was 2.3% of the G.N.P., it was 4.6% in Germany, 5.9% in Austria, 7.4% in Canada and 3.7% in France. Spain would only be above Greece, Portugal and Turkey. However, as we have already mentioned, the M.E.C. is not the only agent of public spending, even if it is the most important; moreover, it will become increasingly less important. In 1963, the public spending on Education was not the 631,000 million pesetas of the M.E.C. Budget (table IV.4), but 804,000 million pesetas, as can be seen in table IV.1. This is 3.5% of the G.N.P., which percentage is approximately equal to that of France.

It is also necessary to take the weakness of Spanish public spending in general into account. The Budget of the M.E.C. represents the same percentage of the General State Budgets as in any country of the O.C.E.D. But the General State Budgets in their totality represent a lower percentage of the G.N.P. in Spain than in the other countries of the O.C.E.D. The weakness of public spending on Education in Spain, therefore, is not in the spending of the Central Administration, but in that of the Local Entities. The educational budget is 15% of the general budget, but the public spending on education is only 10% of total public spending. This amount is, of course, low. It is compensated by the private spending of families, which we will analyse later.

Table IV. 4. M.E.C. BUDGET AS COMPARED WITH THE GENERAL STATE BUDGET AND GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (G.D.P.) AS PERCENTAGES

Year	Total General State Budget	G.D.P.	M.E.C. Budget	% of General State Budget	% of G.D.P.
1969	271,795.0	2,169,244.0	34,738.8	12.8	1.6
1970	309,757.7	2,424,414.0	42,447.0	13.7	1.7
1971	370,168.6	2,759,820.0	58,131.6	15.7	2.1
1972	419,290.0	3,231,322.0	59,273.4	14.1	1.8
1973	474,283.0	3,894,762.0	65,251.2	-	-
1974	551,698.0	4,792,959.0	81,097.2	14.7	1.7
1975	656,000.0	5,653,211.0	101,016.6	15.4	1.8
1976	785,000.0	6,843,218.0	132,003.5	26.5	1.9
1977	967,250.0	8.628,166.0	168.945.5	17.5	1.9
1978	1,433,000.0	10,878,798.0	233.845.1	16.3	2.1
1979	1,747,500.0	12,818,601.0	301,683.8	17.3	2.3
1980	2,284,456.0	14,619,300.0	364,509.4	16.0	2.5
1981	2,823,200.0	16,727,200.0	444,078.4	15.7	2.6
1982	3,533,820.0	19,726,700.0	504,864.7	14.3	2.5
1983	4,513,365.0	22,889,250.0	631,304	14.0	2.7
1984	5,399.997.0	-	721,681	13.4	-

Source: Annual Review of the General State Budget

a) Table IV.5 reflects the development of the percentage in large areas of spending of the M.E.C. budgets. The table distinguishes between personnel costs, the percentage of which is approximately constant, goods and services, which are also constant over the time period, current transfers, which have a large growth, and real investments, which drop substantially. We are going to try to explain the reason for these changes.

With regard to real investments, their percentage decrease in relation to the total budget is patent: since the year 1970, it decreases from 30% to 10%. These investments, however, maintain an approximately constant pace of the construction of school buildings, which is sufficient to fulfil the aims with regard to schooling laid down in the 1970 Act. Table IV.6 shows the millions of pesetas and the number of places for E.G.B. pupils created. There is an exceptional increase in 1978, which corresponds to the so-called Moncloa Pacts and which meant a parenthesis in the percentage drop in investments. After this parenthesis, the present rate of creation of school places is sufficient to allow old places to be replaced and to create new ones to substitute those which no longer have pupils due to the movement of the population.

TABLE IV.5 FUNCTIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE M.E.C. BUDGET (AS %)

FUNCTIONS	1969	1970	1975	1977	1983	1984
1. PERSONNEL	56.6	58.2	60	60	59	54.8
2. NET GOODS AND SERVICES	1.9	3.3	2.6	1.8	1.8	1.8
3. NET TRANSFERS	8.7	10.1	22	22.7	25.6	30.9
4. TOTAL NET OPERATIONS	67.2	71.6	85	84.8	87	87.6
5. REAL INVESTMENTS AND CAPITAL TRANSFERS	31.6	28.2	15	15	13	12.3
6. GENERAL TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100

SOURCE: GENERAL STATE NATIONAL BUDGETS ANNUAL.

TABLE IV.6

E.G.B. SCHOOL BUILDINGS. PER THOUSAND MILLION PESETAS AT CURRENT PRICES AND NUMBER OF SCHOOL PLACES CREATED.

YEAR	INVESTMENTS	SCHOOL PLACES
1972	10,713.7	232,165
1973	11,027.7	219,130
1974	10,976.5	132,040
1975	11,099.2	136,280
1976	9,284.0	204,780
1977	15,093.1	211,100
1978	32,736.2	325,370
1979	23,128.0	449,670
1980	18,602.2	205,920
1981	17,958.0	

SOURCE: DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR PLANNING AND INVESTMENT.

TABLE IV. 7 SUBSIDIZATION TOWARDS FREE EDUCATION SHOWN AS ABSOLUTE VALUES DEVELOPMENT.

YEAR	E.G.B.			F.P. FIRST GRADE			F.P. SECOND GRADE		SPECIAL EDUCATION		
	Total Credit including all CC.AA	Annual Increase from previous year	% of increase	Total Credit including all CC.AA	Annual Increase from previous year	% of increase	Total Credit including all CC.AA.	% of increase	Total Credit including all CC.AA.	Annual Increase from previous year	% of increase
1973	1,385.9	------	------	125.0	------	------					
1974	4,382.3	2,996.4	216.2	175.0	50.0	40.0					
1975	9,115.1	4,772.8	108.9	282.7	107.7	61.0					
1976	12,857.1	3,702.6	40.4	1,636.3	1,353.6	478.0					
1977	28,149.5	15,291.8	119.0	3,469.2	1,832.9	112.0					
1978	33,879.5	5,730.0	20.3	4,367.2	898.0	25.0			196,726	------	----
1979	40,648.4	6,678.9	20.0	4,803.9	436.7	10.0			216,399	19,673	9
1980	48,379.4	7,731.0	19.0	6,844.4	2,040.5	42.5	494,224.0	-----	1,205,000	988,601	557
1981	55,020.5	6,641.1	13.7	8,065.8	1,221.4	17.8	2,361,935.0	477.9	1,786,384 (6)	581,384	48
1982	70,000.0	14,979.5	27.2	8,922.1	856.3	10.6	3,319,806.0	40.55	1,853,257 (7)	66,873	4
1983	81,855.0 (1)	11,855.0	16.9	11,168.4 (3)	2,246.3 (3)	25.2	3,718,166.0 (5)	12.00	2,117,335 (8)	264,098	14
1984	95,575.0	13,720.0 (2)	16.8	12,173.5 (4)	1,005.1 (4)	9.0	3,718,166.0	------			

(1) M.E.C. BUDGET + CATALONIA AND 6,500 MILLION PESETAS ESTIMATED FIGURE FOR BASQUE COUNTRY.
(2) M.E.C. BUDGET PLUS BASQUE COUNTRY ESTIMATE ± 7,500 MILLION PESETAS.
(3) M.E.C. BUDGET + CATALONIA AND 1,000 MILLION PESETAS ESTIMATED FIGURE FOR BASQUE COUNTRY.
(4) M.E.C. BUDGET PLUS BASQUE COUNTRY ESTIMATE ± 1,096 MILLION PESETAS.
(5) ESTIMATED FIGURE FOR BASQUE COUNTRY: 550,789,000 PESETAS.
(6) THIS INCLUDES 242,034 THOUSAND PESETAS TRANSFERRED TO AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY OF CATALONIA.
(7) THIS INCLUDES 90,900 THOUSAND PESETAS TRANFERRED TO AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY OF THE BASQUE COUNTRY AND 455,192 THOUSAND PESETAS TRANSFERRED TO THE AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY OF CATALONIA.
(8) THIS INCLUDES 514,691 THOUSAND PESETAS TRANFERRED TO THE AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY OF CATALONIA AND 63,457 THOUSAND PESETAS TRANSFERRED TO THE AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY OF GALICIA. IT DOES NOT INCLUDE ANY SUM TRANSFERRED TO THE BASQUE COUNTRY.

Annual increase

TABLE IV.8 EVOLUTION OF CURRENT TRANSFERS FOR GRANTS AND COMPLEMENTARY SERVICES. /Transport, dining facilities, etc)

In millions of pesetas.

YEAR	GRANTS AND TRANSPORT	% FOR GRANTS	% FOR COMPLEMENTARY SERVICES
1970	2,887	83.50	16.50
1971	3,787	84.60	15.40
1972	4,467	73.19	26.81
1973	5,000	67.91	32.09
1974	5,750	64.23	35.77
1975	6,450	56.82	43.18
1976	8,750	54.43	45.57
1977	10,750	59.61	40.38
1978	13,750	53.53	46.46
1979	17,000	53.10	46.90
1980	17,860	55.20	44.80
1981			
1982	27,672	45.00	55.00
1983	25,439	50.00	50.00
1984	29,552	61.00	39.00

SOURCE: INAPE (INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE ASISTENCIA Y PROMOCION DEL ESTUDIANTE) ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION DEPARTMENT.

Nett transfers is the area which has maintained its growth since 1970, to the detriment of real investments. The majority of these transfers are for the subsidized maintenance of private education, for grants and for school transport. Their development may be seen in tables IV.7 & 8. The pace of the increase in the subsidies to private centres is about 15% annually, meaning that, since 1973 up to the present, financing has been supplied to 90% of the centres, which, before 1973 and during the whole period of the Dictatorship, did no receive any kind of subsidy.

As we will see, the different development of this series of percentages reflects an alternative in the financing of education which was strongly adopted by the governments after 1975. To guarantee free education, it would have been possible to resort to the promotion of state education. This was only done in 1978, as a result of the pressure exerted by the opposition. The rest of the time, it was preferred to guarantee free education through subsidies to private centres, thus saving the cost of the building of public centres.

3. PRIVATE SPENDING ON EDUCATION

As we saw in table IV.1, and according to the estimate of the Contabilidad Nacional de España (Spanish National Accounting), private spending on education has grown more slowly than public

spending. In 1970, the ratio between the two was 70 to 100, whilst in 1981 it was 45 to 100.

In any case, in Spain private spending is a very significant part of the financing of Education, for which reason we are going to study it in some detail, dealing successively with the variation in this spending, its distribution by items, its distribution by levels, its distribution by kinds of education and, lastly, its distribution by income levels or ranges and by social classes.

3.1 VARIATION

One part of the private spending on education may be considered to substitute the insufficiency of public spending; another part, however, is really complementary to public spending, in the sense that some people spend more than others, in proportion to their income, on Education, even when the public authorities guarantee them free or identical school places.

Table IV.9 gives an idea of the extent to which private spending substitutes or complements public spending. In this table, three different forms of the variation-income of private spending on education are calculated.

Firstly, there are the calculations based on the overall spending figures over the years. As can be seen, there is an increase in the variation in the 1960s, which was the decade of greatest economic growth, and there is a considerable decrease in

Table IV.9 VARIOUS ESTIMATES OF FLEXIBILITY OF INCOME IN THE DEMAND FOR PRIVATE EDUCATION

a) Calculation Based on Annual Series:

1 - 1.9 Total and Educational Consumption according to INE, CNE 1954 to 1970
2 - 2.98 ditto 1962 to 1970
3 - 1.20 ditto 1964 to 1977
4 - 0.98 ditto 1970 to 1981

b) Calculation Based on the Income and Expenditure of all Families, According to Different Family Budget Research:

1 - 1.5 EPF of 1958 Total Income and Educational Expenditure by Families
2 - 1.5 EPF of 1964 ditto
3 - 1.8 EPF of 1973-74 ditto
4 - 2.3 EPF of 1973-74 Expenditure
5 - 2.1 EPF of 1981-82 Total Income and Educational Expenditure by Families

c) Calculation based on Various Refinements of the Above Methods and Other Research

1 - 1.2. EPF of 1973-74 Taking into Account Income and Education Costs per Child
2 - 1.01 EPF of 1973-74 Taking into Account per capita expenditure and Education Costs per Child.
3 - 0.80 Poll by INCIE 1976, Taking into Account the Total Income and Education Expenditure of Only Those Families With Children Undergoing Primary & Secondary Education
4 - 1.3 CIDE Poll of 1984, of Only Those Parents with Childre Studying First Course of E.G.B. Cost per Child.

Source: Assembled From Sources Referred to in the Table.

the 1970s, which was, on one hand, precisely the time of the economic crisis and, on the other, was when the subsidies to private education were increased. Consequently, the variation is approximately 1 in the last years which are considered. We could almost certainly interpret this to mean that the income effect of the subsidies predominated over the substitution effect.

Secondly, the distribution of these overall variations is calculated in one specific year, according to income ranges. The greatest variation is in 1973-74. If the income of one family is 1% greater than that of another family, the former spends about 2% more on Education. Education seems to be almost a luxury item. In 1981-82, the variation by income levels is approximately the same as in 1973-74. This means that, after the increases in the subsidies to private education, people continue to spend approximately the same proportion of their income on Education.

The variations are also calculated trying to exclude the spurious effects, which, in the Investigation into Family Budgets, are the results of including both families with school-age children and families without. Families without children are numerous among retired people with low incomes. The variation-income of educational spending increases considerably in these low-income areas, but this is due to the fact that, in these areas, there are no children on which to spend. Therefore, in these calculations, only families with children are included. Thus a picture which is closer to the

reality is obtained with regard to the variation-income of educational spending. This variation is approximately 1, both when it considers the spending per child and when it considers the overall spending of people with school-age children. The calculations are drawn from various sources and are reasonably uniform. From them, it cannot be said, as was previously the case, that education is almost a luxury item. It appears to be an average item, with a variation of 1; educational spending increases in a proportion in accordance with family incomes(3).

3.2. DISTRIBUTION BY ITEMS

What do the family spend this money on? Tables IV.10 and IV. 11 show the results of two different sources about 10 years ago. Table IV. 10, the source of which is the Investigation of Family Budgets, reflects the percentage distribution of total spending on Education in an average home. Approximately, 2/3 of the spending went directly on payment of the teaching; a little less than a fifth was spent on books, a tenth in lodging and transport and a little more than7% on other expenses. There are a few differences between the levels and the greater ones give rise to doubts as the reliability of the data: e.g. the absence of lodging and transport expenses in the University.

Table IV. 11 shows the results of a poll made in the CIDE in 1984 and allows a comparison to be made of the distribution of spending in E.G.B. according to the kind of centre. Compared with the distribution of Table IV. 10, in spite of the fact that

the two are not completely homogeneous, it can be seen:

a) in the first place, the percentage of spending on schooling has dropped from 65% to 50% and from 89% to 50% if school books are included. On the contrary, spending on transport, lodging and other educational activities outside the centre have increased from 6% to 11%.

b) When parents send their children to public centres, the schooling costs are 14% of the total (approximately 150 pesetas a month; when they send them to subsidised centres they reach almost 40% (in figures 1,300 ptas a month); and when they send them to unsubsidized centres, their schooling costs increase, on average, to 4,300 ptas in lay centres and 2,700 in religious centres. These amounts being between 66 and 75% of the total spending on a child.

3.3. DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL SPENDING BY INCOME LEVELS

Who spends this money on private education? Table IV. 12 allows us to reply to this question with regard to the present time, and with regard to ten years ago, using different sources. Firstly, we have the data of the investigation of family budgets of 1973-74. This investigation distinguishes between 8 months income ranges, which go from less than 60,000 pesetas to more than 700,000 pesetas a year. The educational spending goes from 134 to 6,520 pesetas a year. Even if we assume that there are few families with school-age children among those in the two lowest income bracket and take the third bracket as a point of reference, the educational spending in the highest income bracket

Table IV. 10 DIFFERENT TYPES OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BY AN AVERAGE FAMILY 1973-74

Level	EGB	BUP - F.P.	University	Others	TOTAL
Teaching	64.5	66.6	63.7	76	64.9
Text & Reference Books	19.1	13.4	24.9	9.0	17.2
Lodging & Transport	10.9	12.3	--	2.4	9.2
Others	5.6	7.6	11.2	12.1	7.3
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100
	(3,235)	(1,530)	(634)	(578)	(5,979)
	54%	26%	11%	10%	100

Source: INE, Family Budget Research, 1973-74

Table IV. 11 PRIVATE SPENDING ON EDUCATION, BY HEADING AND TYPE OF CENTRE, FOR EACH CHILD IN E.G.B.

	Total	State	PRIVATE			
			Secular		Religious	
			Subsidized	Non-Subsidized	Subsidized	Non-Subsidized
1. Education or Schooling	50.6%	13.7%	39.4%	73.4%	39.9%	65.7%
2. School Transport, Dining Facilities & Other Complementary Activities	30.2%	59.9%	54.5%	23.8%	55.9%	28.5%
3. Other Expenses (EG Private Tutoring)	11.3%	26.4%	6.2%	2.8%	4.2%	5.8%
TOTAL	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)
	2,158.1	1,083.9	3,148.7	6,165.8	3,035.6	4,120.8

Source: CIDE Research into Choice of School by Parents, 1984

is 10 times greater than in the other, approximately in the same proportion as their incomes. If, as is the case in the table, we take the lowest income bracket as a basis, those in the highest bracket spend 42.34 times more on education.

The situation had not changed much in 1981-82, according to another investigation of family budgets. The homes in the highest income bracket spent 39 times more on education than those in the lowest bracket. If we again ignore the two lowest brackets for the previously-mentioned reasons, the highest bracket still spends ten times more than the third bracket.

According to the poll carried out by CIDE in 1984, in which only parents with at least one child in primary education were questioned, the differences between income levels are even more acute. Thos of the highest income level spend 56.3 times more on the education of their children than those of the lowest level. And, we repeat, all of them have at least one child in primary education. Inasmuch as specific figures are valid, families with monthly incomes of more than 200,000 pesetas spend more than 10,000, i.e. 5% of their income, on the education of their children, whilst families with less than 25,000 pesetas a month spend only 279 pesetas a month, 1% of their income, on education. The differences diminish if we consider the second income level, which spends nine times less on education than the highest level.

TABLE IV.12 SPENDING ON EDUCATION BY INCOME LEVELS

1973---------1974			1981----------1982			1984		
INCOME	EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION		INCOME	EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION		MONTHLY INCOME	EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION	
	PESETAS	% OF △	TENTHS	PESETAS	% OF △	THOUSANDS	PESETAS	% OF △
UP TO 60.000	134	100	1st	1,600	100	- 25	179	100
FROM 60 TO 84	349	227	2nd	4,100	256	25 to 35	1,203	672
84 TO 120	545	354	3rd	6,200	388	36 to 45	1,652	923
120 TO 180	973	632	4th	10,000	625	46 to 55	2,040	1,140
180 TO 240	1,383	898	5th	13,500	844	56 to 75	2,943	1,644
240 TO 480	2,117	1,375	6th	16,400	1,025	76 to 100	5,984	3,343
480 TO 700	3,966	2,575	7th	18,200	1,138	100 to 150	6,228	3,479
MORE THAN 700	6,520	4,234	8th	22,400	1,400	150 to 200	8,611	4,811
			9th	30,400	1,900	MORE THAN 200	10,078	5,630
			10th	62,400	3,900			

SOURCE: 1973-74, INE, FAMILY BUDGET POLL/RESEARCH, 1973-74.
1981-82, INE, FAMILY BUDGET POLL/RESEARCH, 1981-82.
1984, CIDE, FAMILY RESEARCH, 1984.

Let us briefly summarize the above section.

Firstly, we stated that private spending on education had been decreasing in relation to public spending over recent years. The increase of private spending on education has also been reduced in relation to increase in income, having changed from a variation of more than 2 to approximately 1.

Secondly, we saw that this private spending had slowly changed its distribution by items. In 1984, a lower percentage was spent on schooling and a higher percentage on other services and education activities than 10 years previously.

Thirdly, we saw how this private spending on education grows approximately in proportion to the income levels of families with school-age children (variation is approximately 1, except in the very low income bracket) both now, when basic schooling is practically free and 10 years ago when it was not, which leads us to the conclusion that the substitution effect of the subsidies to private education is very important; families continue to spend on Education (at other levels and other activities) a substantial part of the costs which the state meets.

In the following sections, we will examine how public and private education is financed by private and public educational spending, distinguishing between the pre-university levels and the university level.

4. THE FINANCING OF NON-UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

Not all private spending goes to private education, nor does all public spending go to public education. Families pay registration fees and other items in public education, and the State subsidizes private education and gives grants to individual pupils.

There is a constant controversy as to the extent to which private individuals should finance public education and public entities. At the compulsory levels, the Constitution states that the public authorities will aid the private centres which fulfil the requisites laid down by law, in addition to stating that this compulsory education will be free to everybody. Therefore, the legal assessment of the amount of such aid and the conditions which the centres must fulfil in order to receive them has become the focus of an important battle between political parties, unions and pressure and opinion groups.

The political parties are, without exception, in agreement with the principle of guaranteeing free compulsory education to all those who desire it, but they do not agree on important points, in particular, with regard to the amount of the subsidy. Public opinion is not so unanimous, although the majority of the voters of all the parties agree with the public financing of private education, as can be seen in table IV.13. A minority of about 1/3 are of the opinion that anyone who wants private education should pay for it and only another third supports a complete financing.

TABLE IV. 13 OPINION ON FINANCING OF EDUCATION.

One of the most polemic subjects for discussion is how and to what extend education should be financed. Which of the following three options do you most agree with?

	INCIE (1) JUNE 1982 (3,200)	C.I.S. (2) FEB. 1983 (2,500)	C.I.S. JUNE 1983 (1,600)	C.I.S. OCT. 1983 (2,500)	C.I.S. NOV. 1983 (3.000)
1. The State should finance both State and Private schools equally.....	1 + 2 together	14	21	20	1 + 2 together
2. The State should finance completely all public centres and partially subsidize private centres.....	56	39	33	32	49
3. The State should only finance public education and anyone who wants private education should pay for it himself.....	35	25	24	37	26
DON'T KNOW.....	9	22	22	11	25
TOTAL.....	100	100	100	100	100

SOURCE: Various polls carried out by the agencies which figure in the table.

(1) Instituto Nacional de Ciencias de la Información.

(2) Centro de Investigación Sociológica.

We will begin an analysis of unit costs by levels, distinguishing between public and private education; once this has been done, we will analyse the respective public and private contribution to the financing.

4.1 UNIT COSTS AT NON-UNIVERSITY LEVELS

4.1.1 Unit costs of the public centres

Table IV.14 shows the components of the unit costs per class and per pupil for 1984 in three typical centres. Initially, the cost for a class is calculated and the cost per pupil is then obtained by dividing by 32.75, which is the average number of pupils in the "centros completos". ("complete centres")

The figures with regard to teaching staff are in accordance with the actual situation; that is, one teacher per schooling unit, adding a Headmaster without a class in Centres with 16 and 24 units. In addition, 6.2 days of substitution of teaching staff is calculated per schoooling unit per year, as was found to be the case through a poll. And, to find the personnel costs, the salary and the social security charges, with IV.2 three-year service periods, were added together.

The figures with regard to non-teaching staff included in the budgets of the Municipal Governments are as follows:

Maintenance Staff	Size of Centre 8 Units	16 Units	24 Units
Number of caretakers	0.5	1	1
Number of cleaning staff	0.7	2	2

To evaluate the amount spent on purchasing goods and services, which are included in the Budget of the Ministry of Education and Science, the standard modules of the academic year 1982/1983 are applied, although they are not covered at 100%. With regard to the cost of the maintenance of buildings, which are included in the Budgets of the Municipal Governments, the average obtained through a poll is applied.

Lastly, instead of the amortization quotas, which are not included in the economic classification of the General State Budgets, the real amount spent on maintenance and repairs of buildings is included.

Under the categories listed, the spending on E.G.B. for 1983 is composed as can be seen in table IV.14.

To calculate the cost of a school place in Formación Profesional a Centre with 600 places has been chosen. In this, Clerical, Electrical, Metal and Draughtsman training are included as branches of education. The structure which is derived from this is that shown in table IV.15.

TABLE IV. 14 UNIT COSTS PER CLASS AND PUPIL IN E.G.B. CENTRES WITH 8, 16 AND 24 CLASSES: 1984.

TYPE OF CENTRE	STAFF	GOODS AND SERVICES	REPAIRS AND MAINTENANCE COSTS	TOTAL
8 CLASSES				
PER UNIT	1,782,045	88,370	98,443	1,968,858
PER PUPIL	54,414	2,698	3,006	60,118
16 CLASSES				
PER UNIT	1,915,072	84,670	105,250	2,104,992
PER PUPIL	58,476	2,585	3,214	64,275
24 CLASSES				
PER UNIT	1,813,219	79,983	99,642	1,992,844
PER PUPIL	55,365	2,442	3,043	60,850

SOURCE: M.E.C. DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF PLANNING AND INVESTMENTS

TABLE IV. 15 UNIT COST PER PUPIL IN FORMACION PROFESIONAL. CENTRES WITH 600 PLACES. (1983 Pesetas)

BRANCHES / HEADING	ADMINISTRATION	ELECTRICITY	METAL	DRAUGHTSMAN	AVERAGE COSTS FORESEEN (4 BRANCHES)
PERSONNEL	95,422	95,422	95,422	95,422	95,422
GOODS AND SERVICES	6,277	8,298	8,626	6,342	7,196
COSTS OF MAINTENANCE OF PREMISES	5,353	5,459	5,476	5,356	5,401
TOTAL	107,052	109,179	109,524	107,120	108,019

SOURCE: M.E.C. DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR PLANNING AND INVESTMENT.

The cost per pupils at Bachillerato level corresponds to a Centre with 960 places, with a personnel structure which reflects the composition of the different groups and categories, both of teaching staff and of non-teaching personnel, in an Instituto Nacional de Bachillerato at national level.

With regard to the consumption of GOODS AND SERVICES (chapter 2), the standard which are in force (academic year 1982/83) have been explained (as if there were a coverage of 100%), assuming that the cleaning is CONTRACTED with a company. With regard to surface, concerning the application of these standards, the Ministerial Order of 14th August 1975 has been taken into account, in which the surfaces and areas corresponding to each type of Centre are established. The result of all this is table IV.16.

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TABLE IV.16 UNIT COST PER PUPIL IN B.U.P.

Centre with 960 places

(pesetas 1983)

Personnel		75,360
- Teaching	72,389	
- Non-teaching	2,981	
Goods and Services		4,640
Building maintenance costs		4,211
Total unit cost per pupil per year		84,211

In brief, the normal unit cost per pupil is 61,000 pesetas in EGB (1984), 108,000 pesetas in FP1 (1983), and 84,000 pesetas in BUP (1983). The expenditure included here is that originated by services which are supplied to all pupils, excluding complementary and extra-curricular activities.

4.1.2. The contribution of families in non-university state education

a) Compulsory levels.

In the compulsory levels of EGB and FP1, the financing on the part of the families (Parents' Associations) is represented by their contribution for use in extra, voluntary activities within the school, and the quotas which they pay for the use of the complementary services of transportation and school meals.

With regard to the complementary services, the family participates in the financing of the expenditure which they originate, to the tune of 24.3% of the cost of transportation, 40% of the cost of meals staff and 52.1% of goods and services.

With regard to the contributions for the financing of extra, voluntary activities, these constitute, overall, an average expenditure per class of 384,652 pesetas and 11.745 pesetas per pupil in 1983, of which 35% corresponds to Personnel and 65% to Goods and Services.

In the calculation of unit costs made previously, public spending on school lunches and transport, which supplements the percentage spent by the families, was not included. However, it is important to note that the average spending on voluntary educational activities is, according to the poll on Spending made by the Directorate General of Budget, more than 1/10 of the total spending.

b) Non-compulsory levels

In B.U.P. and F.P. 2 the families pay various fees (except in 20% of the cases, where they are exempt), the supplementary services of transport and school lunches and the extra-curricular activities.

In B.U.P. the current registration fee is 2,680 pesetas, to which must be added other fees to an amount of around 1,000 pesetas and the cost of heating, which is about the same amount. In total, it is a maximum of 5,000 pesetas annually.

In F.P. 2, the fees are even lower and, in total, do not

reach the sum of 1,000 pesetas a year.

We do not have any reliable information on the expenditure of families on complementary and extra-curricular activities.

4 . 2. UNIT COSTS IN NON-UNIVERSITY PRIVATE EDUCATION

4.2.1. Unit Costs

It is more difficult to calculate the average unit costs in private education than in public education. The most reliable method is, of course, by poll. The Instituto Nacional de Estadística (National Institute of Statistics) periodically carries out a poll on Financing and Spending in non-state Education, but, unfortunately, the last one which was made, in 1983/84, has not yet been exploited and the data of the previous ones is now already obsolete. Therefore, we will have to resort to merely mentioning some estimates.

a) If the figures obtained in the last of these INE polls to be published (that of 1975/76) is brought up to date for 1983, the average cost per pupil in private education is, in round numbers, 88,000. This estimate is not very useful, as it does not distinguish between the different levels of education.

b) "Actualidad Docente", which is the voice of the Confederación de Centros de Enseñanza (private), printed a lecture which had been given at the IV European Congress of Free and Autonomous

Schools, which was held in Barcelona. This report estimated, without explaining the methods which had been used, that the cost of a school place was 40,000 pesetas in nursery schools, 45,000 pesetas in E.G.B., 75,000 pesetas in B.U.P. and 50,000 pesetas in F.P. 1 in the academic year 1977-78. This estimate does not appear to be very accurate.

c) The Banco de Bilbao's magazine "Tablero de a Bordo" published estimates for 1981 in its issue no. 8 (1981). The method used was to multiply the cost of personnel by 0.5 assuming that this was 2/3 of the total expenditure. In this way, the following costs per pupil in the different educational levels in private education were calculated: Nursery School 54.000 pesetas, E.G.B. 53,300 pesetas, F.P.1, 65.000 pesetas; B.U.P. 100,000 pesetas.

If this estimate is compared with that made for the places in State schools, the problem would appear to be that it over-estimates the percentage of the total expenditure which goes on personnel. In the State centres, this expenditure is not 2/3, but approximately 90%. There does not appear to be any reason to suppose that the structure of the expenditure in the private centres differs substantially from that in the State centres. The only significant difference is that the salaries in private education are somewhat lower than those in public education.

This difference has been reduced over recent years: in 1976, the ratio was 1.48 (370, 260/249,450); in 1982, it had decreased

to 1.09 (1,044,680/959,565) in E.G.B.

If there were no subsidies for private education, the families would have to bear all expenses. This is what happens in the non-compulsory levels, 35% of the pupils who study for the Bachillerato in private centres and 40% of pupils who attend nursery school in the same centres. However, in E.G.B., where private centres cater for 38% of the units and in F.P., where this percentage is around 50%, the majority of the cost of education is borne by the State through subsidies. Only 6% of pupils attend centres which did not receive subsidies in the academic year 1981/82.

According to the CIDE poll which is reflected in table IV. 11, these centres cost 36,000 pesetas per year in schooling, very much below previous estimates.

4. 2.2. DISTRIBUTION AMONG THE DIFFERENT AGENTS

It is advisable to distinguish, therefore, among the subsidized levels of education (E.G.B., F.P.) and the levels of education which are not subsidized due to the fact that they are not compulsory (B.U.P., Nursery School).

a) In E.G.B., the role of the public subsidies is significant. We have already seen how their amount has developed since 1973, in an attempt to fulfill the mandate of the L.G.E.*,

* L.G.E. = The General Education Act.

and later of the Constitution, to the effect that basic education is compulsory and free. Table IV 17 reflects the development of the subsidy modules per classroom until 1984, in their three types - A B and C. Between 1972 and 1984, the subsidy per classroom increased 9.33 times, 2.9 times more than consumer prices (4 times).

Each module is supplemented by a contribution from the pupils, which was fixed in 1980 and has been invariable since then. In the classroom with subsidy type A, the pupils pay 4,800 pesetas a year; in classrooms with subsidy type B, they pay between 11,000 and 13,000 pesetas a year, and in those with subsidy type C, they pay between 21,000 and 25,000 pesetas a year. As can be seen from the figure in Table IV 17, these pupils' contributions are calculated so that, in 1983, for example, they supplement the subsidy to reach a total which is approximately the expenditure on personnel, running and maintenance of the State centres.

Of the 2,054,930 pupils registered in private EGB in 1981-82, 1,926,197, i.e. 93.8%, attended centres which received one of the three types of subsidy.

To receive subsidy, the centres must fulfil some minimum conditions, which a greater proportion of the centres belonging to the Catholic Church fulfil than those belonging to private enterprises. Thus, in 1981-82, only 1.7% of the almost one million places in religious centres were not subsidised, whilst

TABLE IV. 17 SUBSIDY TYPE AT DIFFERENT LEVELS

DEVELOPMENT OF TYPES IN EGB						TYPES PER PUPIL AND COURSES IN FP 1 AND 2		
YEAR	TYPE A	% ^	TYPE B	% ^	TYPE C	% ^	GENERAL TYPE	ADMINISTRATION	OTHER BRANCHES
	100%								
1972	184,000								
1973	234,000	27.17							
1974	303,840	29.85	151,940						
1975	410,000	34.94	205,000	34.92					
1976	649,616	58.44	441,738	15.48	239,616		14,360	----	----
1977*	----	---	----	---	----	---	21,539	----	----
1977*	----	---	----	---	----	---	23,926	----	----
1978	833,130	28.25	625,263	41.55	423,130	76.59	30,120	----	----
1979*	946,227	13.57	710,131	13.57	480,570	13.58	33,132	----	----
1979*	1,000,000	5.68	763,904	7.57	534,343	11.19	----	37,500	40,600
1980º	1,125,000	12.50	888.904	16.36	659,343	23.39	----	42,187	45,675
1981*	1,248,750	11.00	1,012,654	13.92	783,000	18.75	----	48,776	52,264
1981*	1,293,750	3.60	1,057,654	4.44	828,090	5.76			
1982	1,487,812	15.00	1,251,716	18.35	1.022,152	23.43	----	56,100	60,100
1983*	1,656,347	12.00	1,430,253	14.26	1,200,689	17.47	----	62,832 + 56,100 (1)	67,312 + 60,100(1)
1983*	1,716,336	3.00	1,480,243	3.50	1,250,679	4.16			
1984	1,885,070	10.00	1,661,491	12.20	1,363,290	0.10			

º In 1980, FP2 began to be subsidised.

* The years thus marked are divided into two periods.

(1) The first amount corresponds to Grade1; the second, to Grade 2.

SOURCE: DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR PLANNING AND INVESTMENT OF THE MEC.

in the non-religious centres, this percentage was 18. For the rest of them the Government is currently fostering the trend towards total subsidy: Type A. Whilst in 1982 only half the classrooms with subsidy were 100% subsidized, the 1984 percentage will be 80.

b) Special Education began to be heavily subsidized in 1980 (table IV. 7)and follows the E.G.B. course, adapted to suit the special characteristics of the centres and classrooms where such education is given.

c) The situation in F.P. is approximately the same as in E.G.B. Almost all the private education is subsidized, both in F.P.1, which is compulsory and in F.P. 2, which is not. In F.P. subsidies have not, up to now, been granted per unit or per classroom, but per pupil. The development of the module per pupil can be seen in table IV. 17. The amount which the centres can charge the pupils has been limited to 450 pesetas in F.P.1 and to 750 pesetas in F.P.2 since 1980.

d) The situation in the Bachillerato, where there are no subsidies, is completely different. As we have seen, state education, at this level is totally free (with the exception of some limited fees); however, private education is relatively more expensive. Monthly fees of between 10 and 15,000 pesetas (i.e. between 100 and 150.000 pesetas a year) are not at all unusual at this educational level. The amounts paid for private

nursery education are more varied and lower.

Two question arise from these data. Firstly, whether this financing by subsidies is sufficient or insufficient for the running of the centres. Secondly, how much family <u>really</u> spend on private education, including other expenses which we have not taken into accountup to now, such as complementary activities and services.

a) Are the subsidies sufficient? This question has been polemic since the very beginning of the subsidy system in 1973. The L.G.E. established that the subsidies should be to the value of a State school place. However, the organizations which own private education maintain that the subsidies are insufficient and are less than the real cost and than that of a state school place. Various studies, almost all of which have been made by the University of Deusto (4)have shown that the private educational centres run at a deficit, thanks to the religious staff which work in them without contracts. Nevertheless, not only the religious centres, but also the lay ones, continue to run, and many of the latter do not lack the desire to make a profit. In fact, the basic difference between their proposals and the policies which the governments have been putting into practice up to now is with regard to the payment of the depreciation of the buildings. When all is said and done, the cost of personnel is clearly specified in the collective agreements made in the sector and the general expenses are extremely variable. With regard to the remainder, the difference in the situations of centres complicates any attempt

at exact calculations. Thus, the argument is still continuing, together with the bargaining with the State with regard to the amounts which guarantee free education.

b) Do these centres use sources of finance other than those which are authorized? The question takes us to the subject of the real cost of families of private education. In addition to the fees for education, the private centres cannot charge more than 1,100 pesetas for supplementary activities (languages, etc.) and cannot make any kind of profit from the complementary services (school lunches, transport, etc.). In reality, according to a Report by E.G.B. Inspectors (5), more than half the centres charge more than is permitted for the fees, but also, according to the same report, a fifth charge less; with regard to supplementary activities, the Inspectors could not establish whether or not they existed, in half the centres, whilst it is practically impossible to find out whether or not any profit is made from them.

If we trust the data obtained from the poll, we can return to table IV.11. According to this, the average monthly cost in subsidized centres is 3,100 pesetas per child in E.G.B. Of this amount, a little more than a third, i.e., about 1,250 pesetas, is spent on schooling. Considering the legal modules and the distribution of the three modules of subsidy, the figures should be approximately 1,000 pesetas. This

slight difference can be explained in various ways. It could be assumed, for example, that the parent's answers are not reliable. In addition, this would explain the fact that the public centres also, which are completely free, cost the parents an average of 150 pesetas a month.

In any case, it is known that many centres, particularly those of F.P.2, get round the legislation by various methods: they charge more than is permitted, they keep former pupils on their books, etc.

But it cannot be said that these irregular proceedings are systematic or general and much less that subsidized education is good business from the economic point of view.

4.2.3. THE ROLE OF GRANTS

A part of these family expenses in education is financed from public funds through the system grants and study aids.

The system in its present form dates from 1960, in which year a Patronato para el Fomento de la Igualdad de Oportunidades (P.I.O) (Equal Opportunities Trustee Committee) was created, nurtured by funds from the recently-established income tax. In 1975, the INAPE (Instituto de Asistencia y Promocion al Estudiante) (Institute for the Aid and Advancement of the Pupil) was created and this was integrated, as an autonomous body, into the

normal system of financing of public offices. Recently the INAPE has lost its autonomous nature and has become an integral part of the Central Administration.

After 1970, when the policy of pupil concentration was started, the funds of INAPE were devoted to both granting personal study aids (grants) and the financing of transport or school lunches (complementary services). Table IV 8 shows the development of the budgets of this body; in Table IV 18 we can see the development of the number of students with grants since 1975. As can be seen, the development of this budgetary chapter shows increases which are much more modest than those of the subsidies to private education. At all levels, there are study aids which are only for the purchase of individual schooling material (books). In nursery education, there are also aids for schooling; in FP transport and residence are included, and in BUP/COU, all these items, i.e. books. schooling and transport or residence.

At the levels we are dealing with, in the academic year 1983-84, some 60,000 study aids were granted to preschool children, the average sum being 25,000 pesetas. In EGB, the number of awards was 400,000, which were exclusively for the purchase of books, as the rest of this education is free. In FP1 the number of awards was 17,600 of 8,000 pesetas each for the purchase of books, and 21,000 for other items, the average amount of which was 45,300 pesetas. 9% of the total number of pupils, therefore, have grants.

At these levels, the only criterion for the awarding of grants is the financial situation of the family. Once the amount of the different components of the grants (teaching,

TABLE IV. 18 DEVELOPMENT IN NUMBER OF GRANT HOLDERS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVELS

	PRESCHOOL	E.G.B.	BUP - COU	F.P.	OTHERS	UNIVERSITY
1975-76	-	118.5	99.6	48.8	4.1	24.7
1976-77	-	18.3	100.7	50.5	4.6	39.8
1977-78	10.6	24.3	127.0	58.0	4.8	49.0
1978-79	16.5	10.8	175.8	60.4	3.1	43.6
1979-80	25.1	24.3	172.6	81.4	4.8	63.3
1980-81	58.9	25.1	162.6	55.2	4.4	80.9
1981-82	50.8	147.2	138.3	57.5	3.5	78.1
1982-83	47.2	126.8	81.3	32.8	1.4	77.2
1983-84	60.0	400.0	124.8	61.9	2.3	86.9

SOURCE: INAPE ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION DEPARTMENT

transport or residence, school material) has been fixed, they are awarded to the poorest applicant, as far as the available funds reach.

In BUP and COU and F.P.2, the grants are awarded taken into account a combination of family income and school reports. It is necessary for the pupil to have passed the last two academic years with normal marks and to be below a determined level of family income per capita (which is obtained by dividing the total income available by the number of members of the family, with certain allowances for special circumstances). In the last academic year, there were 125,000 grant-holders in BUP. 1,000 only had grants for books (6,000 pesetas) and 74,000 for other items (average amount: 51,000 pesetas). The percentage of the total number of pupils for BUP and COU is slightly more than 10% of the registered pupils. In F.P. 2, there were 23,300 grant-holders, 10,000 of which had grants only for books (8,000 ptas) and the rest for other items. Together, they were 13% of the total number of registered pupils.

Taken as a whole, therefore, this system finances a small part of the private expenditure of families. In fact, only an element of the direct expenditure (books, transport, maintenance, all the schooling) is paid for in the case of a proportion of pupils which is also small (always less than 15%).

In the last academic year 1983-84, the INAPE spent approximately 2,000 million pesetas on nursery education and E.G.B. together, 4,000 on BUP and COU and 2,000 on Formación Profesional.

5. THE FINANCING OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

In view of the fact that the strictly private universities are not of great importance in Spain, we shall study only the financing of state universities, including University Colleges, which, as we shall see later on, depend on them academically, although they are financed through the co-operation of private and local entities, such as Cajas de Ahorros (Savings Banks), municipalities and "diputaciones" (Local Councils).

5.1. UNIT COSTS

Although there are various estimates available, some of which are very complex, of what a university student costs, we shall reflect here only the simplest. This is the result of dividing the total budgets of the universities by the number of students registered in them. The round figures are 150,000 pesetas for students not following experimental courses, 200,000 pesetas for students on experimental courses, with an overall average of 165,000 pesetas.

Naturally, in the cost of university education must also be counted things like private expenditure on board, lodgings and materials. On this point we have a number of studies to hand. The results obtained by Quintás for 1978-79 (6) in Santiago de Compostela, brought up to date for 1983, look like this:

Room	86,000 pesetas
Food	90,000 pesetas
Other expenses	80,000 pesetas

Registration, books	50,000 pesetas
TOTAL	306,000 pesetas

In university education the starting point is that it is practically free. The state offers free university education to everyone who pays the appropriate registration or academic fee, and the individuals bear the rest of the costs (individual material, transport or board and lodgings). This approach gives rise to two questions about which there has been a great deal of argument. First, to what extent should individuals pay for university education? Second, to what extent should the state help certain individuals with the other expenses, in order to foster equality of opportunity? Thus the problem of distribution of expenditure arises here as the problem of the policy with regard to fees and grants.

5.2. THE AMOUNT OF THE FEES

The argument concerning the amount of fees is on the one hand linked to the question of the Public Treasury, and on the other, to matters of efficiency and justice in distribution. Although expenditure per pupil in Spain is among the lowest in the world, the growth in the number of students, which went from 366,734 in 1972-73 to 742,000 in 1983-84, has meant an increase in general expenses and investment of the

TABLE IV. 19 NUMBER OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND STATE UNIVERSITY EXPENDITURE

YEAR	NUMBER OF STUDENTS REGISTERED	BUDGETS (IN MILLIONS) CURRENT VALUE PESETAS	PESETAS AT 1972 VALUE	EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL 1000s OF 1972 PESETAS	AVERAGE SUBSIDY	AVERAGE RATES
1972	366.7	5,069.7	5,069.7	13.8	9.4	1.2
1973	360.0	5,837.1	5,238.4	14.55	10.8	1.6
1974	398.7	7,099.8	5,506.3	13.8	9.7	1.8
1975	445.2	8,893.4	5,872.1	13.2	9.4	1.6
1976	532.3	11,025.1	6,381.7	12.0	8.2	2.3
1977	569.6	17,221.9	7,981.6	14.0	9.1	2.8
1978	649.3	20.374	8,104.3	12.5	8.1	3.3
1979	621.1	25.380.4	8,489.6	13.7	8.4	3.7
1980	639.5	29,888.1	8,853.2	13.8	8.6	3.9

SOURCE: REPORT OF THE BUDGETARY SITUATION OF THE UNIVERSITY, THE CONFERENCE OF UNIVERSITY RECTORS MADRID 1981.

universities. This expenditure grew "pari passu" with the number of students, in such a way that the expenditure in constant value pesetas per student was the same between 1972 and 1980, as can be seen in table IV. 19. The consequence of this were constant complaints about the impossibility of raising the standard of university education due to the lack of resources.

In this situation of financial hardship, arguments based on justice in the distribution make the idea of increasing the student's contributions attractive.

From 1965 to 1975, the university fees were at a constant level of 3,000 pesetas, but this was not of much help to those who had not been able to finish secondary education, a great part of which was private, with prices ten times higher than those of university. Thus, using taxes paid by everybody, in a fiscal system which was not at all progressive, the university studies of the upper classes were financed. Thus it seems fair, in addition to efficiency, to bring the university fees closer to the real cost. This was what was proposed by U.C.D.'s frustated bill on University Autonomy.

The main opponents to the rise in the academic fees were and are, the university students. Their basic argument is that an increase in the fe s would increase the class discrimination at the university, making it more difficult for the poorest people to go, this being even more the case when the Spanish grant system is extremely defective.

As can be seen in table IV. 19, increases in the fees in real terms, particularly since 1975, have been the only additional source of income for the universities, the State subsidy per student having remained stationary. The fees have come to constitute approximately a third of the cost of the studies, whilst ten years ago, they did not even cover a tenth. Since 1975, when their growth began, the fees increased 3.5. times more than the cost of living, although their total amount (40,000 pesetas in 1984-85) implies that less is still paid in order to study in a public university than for private education at any other level and that the fees are 10% of the previously estimated direct costs for a university student.

5.3. THE GRANTS POLICY

Families with low economic resources are particularly sensitive to the increase in fees. The university grants of the INAPE include automatic exemption from fees. In any case, an adequate system of university grants generally seems to be a good method for avoiding the class-discriminatory effects of the rise in fees.

Table IV. 20 shows the number of grant-holders in BUP, COU and university, the percentage of the total number of students registered which this means, and the development of the amount of the maximum grants in constant-value pesetas.

TABLE IV. 20 DEVELOPMENT IN THE NUMBER OF SCHOLARSHIP HOLDERS SINCE 1970 AND FIGURES ON THE "MAXIMUM SCHOLARSHIP AWARDED FOR B.U.P.,C.O.U. AND UNIVERSITY STUDIES

YEAR	SCHOLARSHIP HOLDERS		% OF TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS		MAXIMUM AMOUNT (CONSTANT VALUE PTS.)	
	BUP-COU	UNIVERSITY	BUP-COU	UNIVERSITY	BUP-COU	UNIVERSITY
1970-71	180.0	20.7	11.7	6.1	24.0	35.1
1971-72	183.0	21.1	13.7	6.0	22.2	32.4
1972-73	197.0	28.8	15.5	8.0	34.0	43.8
1973-74	156.0	30.1	15.3	7.6	18.4	42.3
1974-75	132.8	24.2	16.8	5.4	22.6	34.0
1975-76	101.2	30.0	12.3	5.6	16.8	28.9
1976-77	100.7	39.8	12.0	6.9	16.6	23.2
1977-78	127.0	49.0	14.5	7.5	16.1	22.6
1978-79	176.0	43.6	17.6	7.0	16.2	19.5
1979-80	172.6	63.3	16.4	9.9		
1980-81	162.6	80.9	15.0	12.4		
1981-82	138.3	78.1	12.3	11.7		
1982-83	81.3	77.2	7.0	11.2		
1983-84	124.7	86.9	10.8	11.7		

SOURCE: STATISTICAL DATA FROM INAPE (SEVERAL YEARS)

As can be seen, the percentage of the grant-holders between 1970 and 1979 was about 6% of the students registered at university. Between 1979 and 1980, the percentage doubled fairly quickly and, since then, has remained constant. With some years of delay, therefore, the rise in the registration fees was followed by a rise in the number of grant-holder, all of whom are exempt from paying these fees.

As the conditions for obtaining a grant have been more or less constant and the fund available did not increase at the same pace, the increase in the number of grant-holders has come about at the expense of a decrease in the grants, both in BUP & COU and at university. The highest grants, the development of which is reflected in Table IV. 20 in constant value pesetas of 1970, have been cut by more than half in the course of the years. In 1983-84 this grant was 100,000 pesetas plus the exemption of the fees, meaning that it covers approximately a third of the expenditure which, as we have seen, a student who cannot live with his family must bear.

As at the other levels, therefore, the participation of the Public Administration in the selective financing of private expenditure on education is very low. It bears approximately a third of the direct expenses of 12% of university students. It is evident that the special grants system is very much inferior to that of the majority of the O.C.E.D. countries. The steps which are being taken to improve it will be briefly described in the last chapter.

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As can be seen, the percentage of [illegible] between 1970 and 1979 was about 6% of the students registered [illegible] doubled fairly quickly and, since then, has remained constant. With some years of delay, therefore, the rise in the registration fees was followed by a rise in the number of grant-holder, all of whom are exempt from paying these fees.

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CHAPTER V

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

A thorough report on educational research in Spain could not be done under the conditions nor reflected in the space available here, in view of the diversity of activities included under this title and other similar ones, their dispersion and, frequently, the insufficient information on them. Therefore, this will be a brief report of a general nature, a basis for receiving additional information and for a wide debate.

The subject is set within the bounds of two main lines of reference. On the one hand, education and the principal changes which have occurred in it during recent years, and on the other, the state of education sciences and their research capacity. A good deal has been written on the latter, and not without some basis, stressing the traditional obstacles and limitations to research in general and social research in particular in our country, which is evidently behind comparable countries. With this background, however, it must be said that since the sixties, education sciences have experienced a notable degree of animation, though some more than others and some earlier than others, and there has been a quantitative and a qualitative improvement, together with progress more on a level with similar activities in other countries.

Naturally, this has occurred under the impulse of changes in education and in other sectors, particularly the economic and political ones, which accompanied and encouraged the educational ones. This is why it is essential to study the subject over time, with a simple and highly summarised overview of the successive situations of these sectors, and, finally, of the sector under consideration here:- educational research. This will be the subject of the first section, the areas of subjects for research being left to the second, and we shall end with personal interpretations, an even more risky matter.

1. EVOLUTION AND PRESENT SITUATION

In educational research, as in education itself, there is one date which it is easy to set: 1970. Another, less obvious perhaps, but also distinguished, is 1980, not only becasue it marks the end of the period set for its own application by the General Education Act, but also because important reforms were in preparation, and, as far as research was concerned, the central organism of fomentation and co-ordination, the INCIE*, was abolished. This is the justification for the periods used hereinafter.

1.1 BEFORE 1970

The preparation and introduction of the educational reform

*Instituto Nacional de Ciencias de la Educación (National Institute of Education Sciences), set up to co-ordinate the activities of the ICEs in 1974 instead of the CENIDE. (see next page).

of 1970 signified a great mobilisation of opinion and resources in the education world and, no less, in the world of research on education. Prior to this time, naturally, there had been educational research, but on a different scale and orientation. It must be recognised that the situation of the country in the preceding years scarcely offered possibilities or other stimuli than the purely academic and personal motivation of the researchers. Thus, in a situation of particularly non-existent social and administrative demand, the research that was done was mainly of an individual and occasional nature, being predominantly historical, philosophical and-, to a large extent, doctrinaire. (1) In any case, it was small in quantity, while its subjects, treatment and results could not go beyond the narrow bonds of the possible and the allowable.

1.2. THE NINETEEN SEVENTIES

Though the political and ideological contexts claimed to be unchanged, those margins were gradually extended by admitting certain changes and demands and encouraging others, especially of an economic nature. The intended development policy demolished not a few barriers and undermined others outside the economic sphere as such, including the field of education.

Mobilisation for the reform included educational research among the indispensable elements, as it also included international technical counselling, both due to a conviction as to its value

and usefulness for indirect advantages (good image, powerful arguments against doctrinair attitudes, etc.) Therefore, organisms were set up, the Institute of Education Sciences, (ICE) in each University, and the National Centre for Research on the Development of Education (CENIDE); research programmes were drawn up, a vast number of seminars, national and international congresses, etc., were held, a great quantity of prestigious international assistance was obtained, with a view to training specialists and researchers, official publications were issued on related subjects, and so on.

Thus there came about in Spain a type of educational research, which, in scope and orientation, was very close to work being carried on in other countries with more resources and tradition. It was research directed towards the practical, guaranteed by a demand for planning and management in the first place, and subsequently by a demand for teachers, having greater or lesser resources, but nonetheless having resources, where previously there had been none. In these new, and for us, privileged conditions, a new direction was embarked on, and this, with some ups and downs, has been followed until the present.

The decade was not a uniform one, and the initial thrust was not kept up. The so-called counter-reformation, which was consolidated before the middle of the decade, necessarily affected research, and did so in a very negative way. The conse-

quences could be summarised as isolation and bureaucratisation of educational research and freezing of resources, a direct consequence of the fall in interest and the demand which had stipulated it. The curious thing, up to a certain point, is that these consequences arose under the appearance of a 'strengthening' of educational research, this apparent 'strengthening' being clothed in a new and more powerful organisation, the 'autonomous organism' INCIE, which possessed its own budgetary resources, though these were smaller and fixed for a number of years.

Time and those responsible pushed things down this slope of deterioration until, in 1980, there was a political and administrative consequence - the logical outcome of the disastrous procedure followed until then - the abolition of the organism of encouragement and coordination, the INCIE.

1.3. SINCE 1980

It may perhaps come as a surprise to foreign observers to discover that the research activities of this abolished organism did not cease with the abolition, in theory so decisive, nor with the transfer of what was left of it from the Ministry of Education to the Ministry of Universities and Research, and from there to the Ministry of Education and Science. Indeed, with the exception of one year, 1980, these activities continued, and, what is more, enjoyed the benefit of more resources. The explanation, insofar as there is one for some, lies in the very

reasons that prevented the disappearance of educational research in the previous period of decadence. These were administrative inertia, personal relationships, and the fear of attacking the scientific research idol, together with the interest, certainly highly varied, of many persons to continue doing what is called educational reserach.

Thinking of foreign observers, it may be as well to mention that this decline and institutional abolition were not, as in other lands in those same years, due to a crisis and adoption of a new approach in the activity itself or to a reconsideration of its usefulness. Here, such critical and revisionist positions have scarecely been attained, though they would have allowed the activities to be relaunched on more solid and up-to-date bases.

In any case, there have been signs of evident recuperation since 1981, and more decidedly since 1983. A new central organism, the National Centre for Educational Research and Documentation (CIDE), replaced the INCIE, the budget was increased and made more flexible, the personnel has achieved permanent tenure, and so on. What forces are acting now? To a large extent, the old ones in an up-dated form: important reforms are underway or in preparation, a need is felt for greater rationality, etc. Be this as it may, today though educational research repeats signs and accompaniments, it has

a very different echo and meaning.

A totally new change of gear with enormous implications for the immediate future of this small but persistent research experience, is the transfer to the Autonomous Governments of these activities and their resources. The fact in itself has positive and negative aspects, and the final balance is for the time being uncertain.

This recent development and others of different types make it quite impossible to undertake a useful study in time of the number of projects approved by the Ministry of Education and Science or concluded with its funds. For different but also definitive reasons, it is also impossible to undertake an analysis over time of research (mainly academic) undertaken outside the "network" INCIE/CIDE - ICEs. This consists of numerous minor theses (of first degree courses) and a few doctoral theses; their studies are no more than partial, and they do not go beyond 1976. (The idea of setting these subjects was one more project of the "network".) In any case, the conclusions of a basic nature on the numerical evolution of this working group coincide: growth with considerable variations due to causes beyond the research itself.

2. PRIORITY AREAS AND SUBJECTS

Though with the important limitations indicated in the

Table, V.1 it may prove useful for the analysis of subjects to consider the statistics of projects, not including (for the reasons given above) those of academic research outside the "network".

Table V.1. PROPORTION OF RESEARCH PROJECTS CONCLUDED (1981-84, PASSED) IN DIFFERENT PERIODS, BY SUBJECT AREAS, THROUGH THE NETWORK OF THE I.C.E. - INCIE (CIDE)

SUBJECTS	1970-74	1974-78	1978-81	1981-84
1. Curriculum	21	7	7	6
2. Teaching staff	11	10	12	13
3. Methodology and Media	12	15	13	18
4. Sociology of Education	10	10	10	11
5. Psychology of Education	11	7	7	11
6. Evaluation and Achievement	5	17	19	20
7. Structures and Planning	19	11	14	7
8. Special education	3	5	5	8
9. Professional Training and employment	8	13	10	5
10. Others	-	5	3	1
	131	96	95	219

Notes to the Table

Sources: First three columns - ALONSO HINOJAL, 'Nuevas investigaciones educativas: continuidad y riesgo', in Educational Research of the INCIE-ICE network, 1978-1982. M.E.C. 1982. Appendix.
Last column - information supplied by the CIDE.

Observations:

- While the first three columns refer to research undertaken, the last one shows projects which were passed.
- The overlapping of the periods is in order to try to include in each period all the projects approved during the same, though they may have been finished during the following one.
- The last two years of the period 1981-84 do not include the projects approved in the Autonomous Regions to which educational responsibilities have already been transferred.
- In no case were included work projects of the so-called "programmes of educational innovation".

On starting to comment on the Table, it must be stressed (to summarise the peculiarities mentioned in it) that the two intermediate columns are really the homogeneous ones, since they refer to research projects which have been concluded in a single organisational period, that of the existence of the INCIE. These same columns show a similarity in the subjects under research, and the number of projects also practically coincides.

In relation to this central period, the preceding one (1970-1975) from an organisational point of view corresponded to the CENIDE and in general terms to the beginnings of the network and its research projects, and logically displays a high proportion of projects devoted to the curriculum and to planning, and a lower proportion to work on evaluation, professional training and employment. The differences coincide with the characteristic features of the two periods.

Compared to this central period, the latter one shows a relative increase in projects on methodology, special education and psychological aspects, and a reduction in those on planning and professional training. These changes are also to be expected, though with the exception of the reduction in attention paid to professional training, which allows various interpretations, including the fact that the statistics being used exclude the work being undertaken in those Autonomous Regions with transfers of educational responsibilities.

If we consider the fifteen years covered by the data, and despite the limited information available, some points do emerge clearly. The two areas which received most attention in the first stage (CENIDE) - curriculum and planning - received least in the last stage (CIDE). The two subjects which received least attention in the first period - evaluation and results, and special education multiplied their percentages by four, the first

of them occupying the first place in number of projects approved. Finally, the attention paid to the teaching staff and sociological and psychological studies has scarcely varied.

3. FINAL COMMENTS

These will inevitably be brief, and will go from the most specific and quantified aspects to the most general and qualitative ones.

The most elementary and safe affirmation is that educational research, and particularly applied research, has increased notably, though with variations, over these fifteen years.

Projects financed by the Ministry have undergone variations in the choice of subject matter, mainly in accordance with changes in the educational situation.

This same research made under the auspices of the Administration, with its continuity and increase in the number of projects (especially if those of innovation are included), has enormously increased the participation in the "network" of specialists from all over the country and teachers themselves, contributing to a higher value being placed on educational research itself in the various centres at different levels, but particularly in the Faculties of Education Sciences and the Teaching Training

Schools. (The "climate" in this respect is incomparable to that prevailing a few years ago).

All this, and particularly the continuity, has been achieved on highly inconsistent and changing bases, as though by accident. (On occasion, I have spoken of this "small Spanish miracle"). (2) It has mainly been due to some coincidences of a personal nature, and not to the normal bureaucratic (in its positive sense) operation of the system. It has had to bear the burden of the drawbacks found in all bureaucracies (negative aspects), and of the consequences of the political and administrative whims of each moment. A minimum degree of flexible planning on an adequate time scale has, therefore, been lacking.

In the last stage transfers of responsibilities in this matter to the Autonomous Communities have introduced new elements of uncertainty . Though on the one hand it may be possible to point to positive aspects, such as the greater proximity of research to the problems, greater cooperation between researchers and "users", easier application of results, and so on, yet on the other hand it is already possible to observe drawbacks or negative consequences, at least in the first moments. The lack of overall information and the break-up of that small, emerging "scientific community" is evident and of consequences easy to imagine. The increased cost of research may be another drawback, and the

diversion of some resources to activities "less connected with research".

With regard to the period as a whole, I should like to say a few words on efficiency and efficacy. On these two questions it is difficult to answer with anything more than a hypothesis, unless laborious prior study is undertaken. The INCIE period, for which most information is available, both on costs and on products (research projects concluded), seems to have offered a high return on the resources employed. The two hundred research projects completed (3, 4 and 5) may have had an average cost of one million pesetas each.

But what use have these and the other work projects been? Here is the great question. If direct utility is sought, of an economical and technocratic nature, hoping to see results translated almost immediately into products and educational techniques, it must be admitted that the utility has been slight or almost non-existent. If, as I believe corresponds to educational and social research in general, an indirect and diffuse utility is sought, then the answer can be clearly positive. This would be an evaluation taking into account the climate attained in the country today on research in education; the introduction and use of concepts and ideas which are indispensable to get to know the sector; the improved differentiation of problems and their complexity; or the outstanding number of social researchers who have entered the

field by working in the area of education.

There is also another and more specific benefit. There is a respectable number of research projects undertaken at a level equal to that found in any other country.

As possible clues to confirm these suppositions I would suggest reading the minutes and contents of the numerous congresses, seminars, courses and symposia on education held during recent years. As an example, during the first year of publication of the education supplement of EL PAIS, over twenty research projects of the "network" were reported.

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PART TWO: STRUCTURE AND RUNNING OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

1. BEFORE 1970

1.1. THE POSTWAR PERIOD

As can be imagined, the political regime which took over in Spain after the Civil War made a marked impression on education. The new regime did not bother to design a schooling system which was different from that already in existence, as can be seen by the fact that it passed no laws to organise all levels of the educational system as a whole. Those laws which dealt with specific levels --some of which came rather late on in the history of the regime-- paid more attention to the ideological orientation of the education than to the teaching structures themselves. In these first years, education only interested the government as a vehicle for the putting across their own ideology. They were indifferent to its structure or internal organisation, as long as it fulfilled its task of indoctrination. This explains the proliferation of ministerial orders and decrees which constantly reiterated the same idea: that education should be Catholic (in the religious sense) and patriotic.

A brief list can be given, categorising the characteristics of the postwar educational system:

A. Catholic Teaching, based on three fundamental premises: education according to Catholic mores and dogma, obligatory religious education in all schools, whether public or private, and the right of the Church to inspect all teaching centres. "...In the face of educational secularity of the Second Republic, religious education in the three afore-mentioned senses was introduced into all occupied territory, within an atmosphere of triumph and rhetoric which was taken to extremes. The Spanish episcopate, with a few noble exceptions, all took part in this. Thus, the ministerial orders of 21st September and 9th December 1936

stipulated the compulsory nature of religious education in primary and secondary schools; the circular of 1st March 1937 established compulsory prayers in primary schools, the intensification of the teaching of Christian doctrines during Lent and the receiving of the Holy Sacraments by children. The circular of 7th April of the same year established those special exercises "to be carried out by the teachers with their pupils" in May (the "Month of the Virgin Mary", when children took First Communion and special emphasis was laid on religious practices). It can be observed immediately that within this concept, the underlying base for the nationalistic and totalitarian political values was formed by the "traditional" religious values of the Spanish Church which, as the depositary for those values, acted as the arbitrator for education in the New State". (1)

B. Politicisation of education, by means of a doctrinaire orientation in all teaching matters. The factual nature of the contents was granted only subsidiary importance: History, Geography, Latin or Language had the overriding mission of "enlightening the new man" and guaranteeing the values of a regime which supported totalitarianism, patriotism (understood as a unilateral declaration of a certain vision of the Fatherland), traditionalism, nationalism, etc. An authoritarian centralism exercised political control over all teaching, especially at university level, where rectors had to be members of the Falange (the Spanish fascist party).

C. The subsidiary role of the State in the realm of education, since society was seen as being competent in this field. Article 5 of the Fuero de los Españoles (Spanish People's Charter and one of the Fundamental Laws of the Franco regime) is indicative of what was meant by this: "All Spaniards have the right to receive education and instruction, and the duty to acquire them, with the free choice of doing so either within the family or in private or public centres. The State will ensure that no talent is undeveloped simply because economic means are lacking." This subsidiary role was not understood in the liberal sense of other times. Rather, it meant that the State wanted nothing to do with education and left responsibility for it in the hands of the Church --as the only legitimate institution to take on such a task-- and

the family --as the nominal depository of the children's right to education. The application of this principle brought down the level of state teaching and caused more teaching to be done in the private sector by religious orders.

D. Total rupture with the previous regime, an absolute rejection of the unprecedented advances of the Second Republic in the organisation of teaching methods and the improved intellectual level of teaching. This was shown in the "purge" of the teaching materials and books at all levels, as well as the teachers themselves. Those teachers who had fought with the Popular Front or whom the "purge committees" considered as sympathisers, were dismissed. School libraries were decimated, in accordance with the new practice, which only allowed for "books which meet with the principles of the Christian religion and morality, and exalt patriotism" (Ministerial Order, 4th September 1936).

E. Separation of the Sexes, by the prohibition of co-education. Girls and boys could not, under any pretext, receive education together. Teaching centres were all-girls or all-boys, save in a few exceptions where it was impossible to have separate centres, in which case rigid classroom separation was observed. From an intellectual point of view, females received an even poorer education than did males. "Primary education should prepare females for home life and domestic crafts and industry." (Primary Education Act, 17th July 1945).

F. Elitism and discrimination in teaching. This was shown, firstly, in the existence of a "two-tier" educational system --one tier for the elite, who received higher education (bachiller and university level) from the age of 10 to 17, and one tier for the more underpriveleged classes, who received primary education until the age of 13. Secondly, it was shown in the preferential treatment given to the priveleged "tier" (secondary and university level education) as compared with the lack of attention paid to the primary stream (until 1945 there was no law to regulate primary education, and it did not become a truly compulsory level until 1964).

During this period, four important Laws were passed to deal with education. The first was the Law for the Reform of the Bachillerato (High School Education), passed on 20th September 1938. In accordance with the elitist mentality mentioned above, the first concern of the Franco regime was to offer adequate education to the ruling classes, as was made quite explicit in the preamble to the Law: "A thorough modification of this school grade is the most efficient instrument to bring about a rapid transformation of society and the intellectual and moral training of its future ruling classes". Along the same lines, a Law on University Planning was passed on 29th July 1943. But no law was drawn up to regulate Primary Education until 17th July 1945, and vocational education was ignored by the Ministry of National Education until the Law on Industrial Vocational Training was passed on 16th July 1949. We shall not go into considerations as to the content of these laws, but it is easy to see how they formed a two-tier educational system, with one tier made up of the Bachillerato level (which was based on an entrance exam, for which the Primary level was not obligatory) and University level, and the other made up of Primary level and Vocational Training.

1.2. THE FIFTIES AND THE SIXTIES

When, in the 1950's, Ruiz Jiménez --today Ombudsman-- took over the Ministry of Education, the world of education began to open up slightly. The predominance of the Church and religious values persisted, but not quite so much emphasis was placed on nationalism and the preponderance of political indoctrination over technical training and general education.

During this period, three Laws were passed, with importance implication for the entire teaching system as a whole, as well as for each separate level.

The Law of 26th February 1953 on Secondary Education Planning signalled a new line being followed for education, which was --within the limits of possibility at the time-- less dogmatic and paid more attention to the intellectual quality of teaching. However, it also entailed a first step towards the generalisation of education up to the age of 14. Although the two-tier system was retained --preferential treatment still being given to

the secondary level over the primary level, as before-- secondary education was divided into two stages, and became accessible to a higher number of children. The first stage (Bachillerato elemental - elementary school-leaving certificate) showed marked increases in enrollment. Later on, the creation of afiliated sections in Institutes in the outskirts of big towns for the teaching of Bachillerato elemental contributed to this increase. Another law which was of decisive importance to the education of the child population was the law of 22nd December 1953 on The Building of Schools (ammended by the Law of 16th December 1964, which is still in force). Its importance lay in the establishment of a system of agreements between the State and town and county Councils on the building of schools. This meant that, for the first time since the Civil War, the State took on responsibility for the provision of school places, and also that a specific formula was drawn up to make the creation of new schools possible.

In certain ways, the Law of 20th July 1957 on Technical Education made further contributions to the "normalisation" of the system, by incorporating Engineering and Architectural Schools into the University system, which had previously been under direct government control for the training of public officials. They were now also opened up to a higher number of students, by abolishing the entrance exam which had made them accessible only to a minority.

In the 1960's, economic expansion, the process of industrialisation, the unrest in schools and the internal tensions in the political system, caused the educational system to start to crack. The system was badly planned, with few and badly-distributed school places, and it was no longer possible to mend each crack separately. A thorough-going, overall reform was called for.

2. THE GENERAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1970 : THE CURRENT EDUCATIONAL SYTEM

Law 14/1970 of 4th August, the General Act on Education and Finance for Educational Reform, regulated and structured the entire Spanish educational system for the first time in this century, ever since the long-past Moyano Law of 1857. Its scope was wide, and it aimed at overcoming all the internal contradictions which had arisen in the system, due to a succession of partial reforms in separate sectors, which had been insufficient to keep up with the acceleration of social and economic change in Spain at the time.

The Act took a traditional liberal approach towards education, and entailed implicit recognition of the failure of authoritarian education over the last thirty years.

The Introduction to the Report (2) which preceded the General Education Act offered a critical analysis, with firm technical underpinnings, of the situation of education in 1968. It gave a schematic summary of the innovations which the Act would bring in: "A new list of reforms should be made, including reforms in areas as significant as the following: free, compulsory basic general education up to the age of 14; overcoming the inequalities of educational opportunities in rural and urban areas; intensive, accelerated vocational training for all Spaniards, prior to joining the workforce; unified, polyvalent or comprehensive education at bachillerato level, which should become free and be able to be extended to all those with the necessary degree of intelligence; access to University, without discrimination, with three stages of study, following a first orientation year; autonomy of universities and creation of new universities; new interdisciplinary university degrees, meeting the need for new intermediate-level careers; the introduction of a real university degree for teachers of different levels and with different functions; etc."

2.1. THE STRUCTURE OF THE SYSTEM

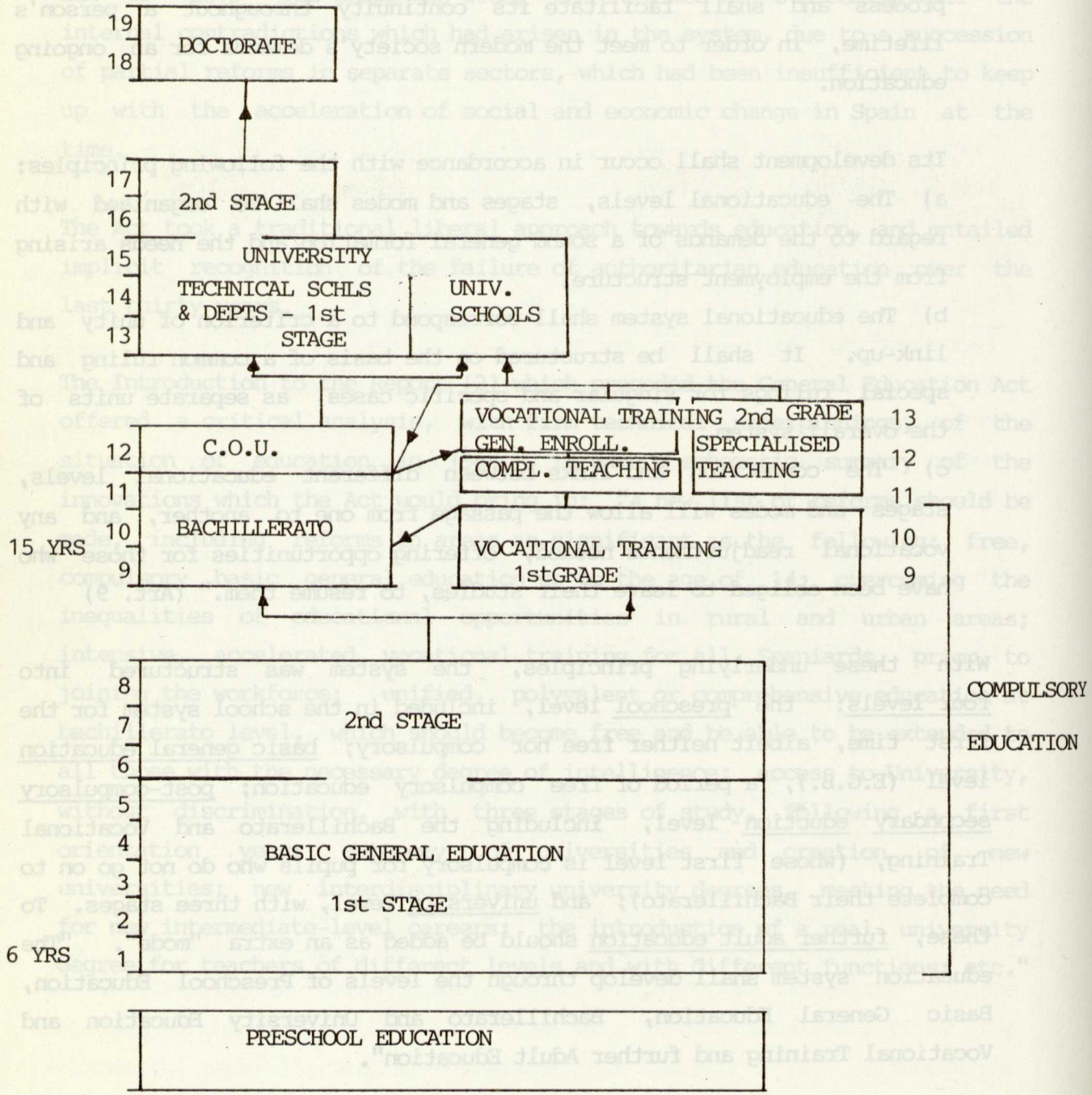
From the broad perspective of "permanent education", the General Education Act designed a unitarian system (i.e. it abolished the two tiers at the first levels) based on flexibility (creating several "bridges" and possibilities to move from one branch to another at higher levels). In the first section of the Law, these three principles were made clear:

> "The educational system shall ensure the unity of the educational process and shall facilitate its continuity throughout a person's lifetime, in order to meet the modern society's demands for an ongoing education.
>
> Its development shall occur in accordance with the following principles:
> a) The educational levels, stages and modes shall be organised with regard to the demands of a sound general formation and the needs arising from the employment structure.
> b) The educational system shall correspond to a criterion of unity and link-up. It shall be structured on the basis of a common ruling and special rulings for singular and specific cases, as separate units of the overall system.
> c) The connection and links between different educational levels, stages and modes will allow the passage from one to another, and any vocational readjustments needed, offering opportunities for those who have been obliged to leave their studies, to resume them." (Art. 9)

With these underlying principles, the system was structured into four levels: the preschool level, included in the school system for the first time, albeit neither free nor compulsory; basic general education level (E.G.B.), a period of free compulsory education; post-compulsory secondary eduction level, including the Bachillerato and Vocational Training, (whose first level is compulsory for pupils who do not go on to complete their Bachillerato); and university level, with three stages. To these, further adult education should be added as an extra "mode". "The education system shall develop through the levels of Preschool Education, Basic General Education, Bachillerato and University Education and Vocational Training and further Adult Education".

Thus, the structure of the educational system introduced by the 1970 Act and currently in force in Spain is that which can be seen in Figure I.1. The diagram alone is sufficiently expresssive to require no further comment. Furthermore, the details on each of the levels will be given in later chapters. However, we shall discuss the general characteristics of the system and its most relevant points.

Figure I.1. DIAGRAM OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF THE 1970 ACT



2.2. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SYSTEM

Although we run an obvious risk of oversimplification, as we are dealing with sufficient material for an entire book, we should now like to give a brief outline of the characteristics of the Spanish educational system, both as it was conceived in the 1970 Act and as it has grown to be in reality up until 1978. In other words, we shall omit intentions which never got off the drawing board, in order to concentrate exclusively on what became reality. We shall only allow ourselves a limited degree of Utopianism in quoting part of the preamble to the Act, which states its aims: "Amongst the objectives proposed by this Act, the following are of special importance: to make the entire Spanish population participate in education, basing its orientation on the most genuine and traditional ingrained virtues; to complete general education with some sort of vocational training to capacitate the individual for a fruitful working life; to offer equal educational opportunities to all, without further limitations beyond that of capacity to study; to establish an educational system characterised by its unity, flexibility and inter-relatedness, whilst offering a broad scope of possibilities for ongoing education and close links with the needs arising from the dynamics of economic and social evolution in the country. The ultimate objective is to construct a system of ongoing education, which has not been conceived to act as a selective sieve, but is capable of developing the capacity of each and every Spaniard to the full."

We could not claim that these last paragraphs reflect the reality of Spanish education over the last few years, but it would be unfair not to recognise that they mark a tendency, a goal which has been aimed at.

Within this framework of guidelines laid down for the system as a whole, are some more specific characteristics of this system:

A - The most important achievement is undoubtedly the generalisation of education for all the population between the ages of 6 and 14. Generalisation is used here with two different meanings: firstly, that of integrating all children within this age-group into a single, non-discriminatory system, and secondly, a 100% school enrollment. Indeed, over the last decade, rates of school enrollment in the 6 - 10 and 11 - 14 year-old age-groups have gone up from 64% and 34% respectively in 1968 (3) to rates of practically 100% since 1975 (see chapter III). This full enrollment is an achievement which marks a decisive step forward for all the countries in Southern Europe (4) in the last few years.

B - Another characteristic of the Spanish Reform of 1970 which distinguishes it from all other reforms (4) is its marked concern for teaching quality. The Act did not only entail the extension of education in quantative terms, but also the attempt to improve its quality for all. To this end, all teaching timetables, contents and methods were reformed and a great effort was made to improve the equipment in teaching centres, teaching material and teacher training. Although it cannot be claimed that the degree of quality desired has been reached, a noteworthy improvement has taken place over that of earlier periods, at least in the Basic General Education. Clearly, there are still some underpriveleged areas, single-unit schools, children taught under bad conditions, the big gap of fees for preschool education, and a lot of work still to be done in the renovation of syllabuses and teaching methods. Nonetheless, looking at it from a long-term perspective, it is obvious that important progress has been made from the time of the post-war authoritarian school which was uninterested in the technical aspects of teaching, to the 1970-style school.

C - The General Education Act rejected the principle of the subsidiary role of the State which was implicit in the approach taken towards education until 1970. In the preamble to the Act, the educational function of the State is recognised to be to assume responsibility for the educational planning and to ensure the provision of school places: "Such flexibility does not, however, prevent State management of all

educational activities, since this is the responsibility of the State, and thus this Act stresses the essential function of formulating the policy for this sector, of planning education and evaluating teaching at all levels and in all teaching centres. ... All this must be carried out following careful planning, such has already been begun, at a national, provincial and local level, based on a map showing the distribution of our teaching institutions and on meticulous studies and research which enable the State to detect with certainty the educational needs which will arise over the next years and, as a result, be able to arrange for the necessary resources with which to meet them."

D - Despite the foregoing, i.e. that the State plans and controls education, like the public service which it is, the Spanish system is characterised by a marked presence of <u>private teaching</u> at non-university levels. Table I.1. gives an idea of the ratio of state to private teaching and its trends over the last few years. It can be seen that the ratio differs from level to level, and that it has shown significant variations over five years (except in E.G.B.). However, the average ratio of state to private education is 2:1, which means that although the proportion of private teaching has diminished, it is still of great importance within the system as a whole.

This dichotomy between public and private teaching --especially the financing of the latter-- is one of the points which the Act treats in a most ambiguous manner, and has given rise to several problems over the last few years. Obviously the tensions do not only arise from economic factors, but also from ideological principles. However, quite apart from these two aspects which we shall not delve into (the 2nd for obvious reasons, and the 1st because it has already been dealt with quite sufficiently in Part 1, Chapter IV), it is clear that the existence of such widely-spread private teaching is a peculiarity of the system from the educational point of view, since it includes variety in the supply. By this, we mean --again, with apologies for the necessary over-simplification-- that in <u>public centres</u>, people can be sure of finding an acceptable average quality which is quite standardised throughout all centres (within certain margins of

TABLE I.1. HISTORICAL TRENDS IN STATE AND NON-STATE SECTORS AT THE DIFFERENT TEACHING LEVELS -- FROM 1975-76 TO 1981-82

	1975-76			1981-82		
LEVELS	TOTAL	STATE	NON-STATE	TOTAL	STATE	NON-STATE
PRESCHOOL	100	37.7	62.3	100	56.1	43.9
E.G.B.	100	60.5	39.5	100	63.5	36.5
VOCATIONAL TRAINING	100	39.3	60.0	100	55.9	44.1
BUP	100	44.5	55.5	100	64.0	36.0
COU	100	67.4	32.6	100	71.0	29.0

Source: Preschool, EGB, Special Education and Further Adult Education Statistics and Bachillerato and COU Statistics - various years. Madrid. Min. of Ed. Drawn up by FOESCA 1983.

variability and a few exceptions), whilst in private centres they can find very varied quality in all aspects. Some centres are small and poor, lacking in installations and equipment, whilst others are large, modern and comfortable, sometimes to the point of luxury. Some centres are extremely traditional in their teaching ideas, whilst others are innovatory and even ahead of the times. Some centres work hand in glove with the Roman Catholic Church, whilst others are based on wildy divergent ideologies, or have no stated ideology at all, etc. etc. Such variety is important when we come to understand and evaluate the system. Furthermore, they also engender another peculiarity, which is the transport of pupils in big towns, since pupils are not necessarily sent to schools because they are near to home, but on the basis of their parents' choice of type of education, which sometimes entails sending their children far from home. If one adds this form of transport to that in rural areas where pupils are taken to county or regional schools (see part 2, Chapter III), one sees a volume of transport, so large that it could be said to constitute a "para-school" problem.

E - One could also say that the Spanish system is not very selective in structural terms, when compared with systems in other countries. This was the declared intention of the General Education Act ("the ultimate objective is to construct a system of ongoing education, which has not been conceived as a selective sieve...") and has been the principle behind the establishment of the system of continuous evaluation. Apart from being a specific way of measuring the pupil performance and the dynamics of classroom teaching, such evaluation entails no examinations beyond each pupil's own process of educational formation (whether carried out by the State, the School Inspectorate, local authorities, or any body outside the teaching centre). There are no exams to pass from one level to the next, not even to move up from Primary to Secondary Education. It is true that there is a double qualification at the end of E.G.B. (one which enables the pupil to start studying for the Bachillerato, and another which does not), which is, indeed, a means of selection. However, even with the selection carried out in this way, the Spanish educational system is still one of the least competitive, compared with other systems where there is an exam to

qualify pupils to move up from Primary to Secondary level. In Spain approximately 65% of the pupils who finish E.G.B. obtain the certificate which qualifies them to study for the bachillerato. This figure is comparable with that in England, where the pass rate for such exams is around 60%, and way above those in France and West Germany, with pass rates of 20% and 15% respectively (5). This has nothing to do with whether pupils who could go on to the Secondary stage do so or not, or whether they choose to abandon the Secondary studies half way through, on social or economic grounds.

However, in Spain there is a selective examination for university entrance. But nearly all student who sit for it, pass the exam, in one or more sittings, and only the exams for those few degree courses with a "numerus clausus" are truly competitive.

F - One of the concerns of the Educational Reform of 1970 was to establish links between the educational system and the job world. Such links were intended to exist at two levels. Firstly, education was to be seen as preparation for a later career: "The system should pay attention to the specialised preparation for the large number and great diversity of jobs required by modern-day society... It should complete general education with a professional training which capacitate the individual for a fruitful working life" (Preamble to the Act). Secondly, there were to be constant possibilities for switches between the worlds of jobs and education: "At any moment in the educational process, once the Basic General Education has been completed, the pupils will be offered possibilities of professional training, as well as possibilities to take up studies at any stage in their working careers" (Ibid.).

This concern led to the incorporation of Vocational Training into the educational system, and the attempt to link up such training with the system of production: "Vocational training will have the specific goal of capacitating students to follow their chosen career, as well as to continue their overall education. Its organisation and aims should maintain close ties with the employment structure and needs". (Art. 40.1).

Of the four possible systematic approaches to professional training in Spain (×), the "independent system" has been chosen. This means that training is organised as part of the school system and is subject to its rules, without being fully subject to the needs of the system of production or the employment structure. During periods of expansion, this system gives good results, but within the context of the present economic crisis, with the existence of high unemployment rates, it creates sharp inbalances between the worlds of education and work. Furthermore, the lack of connection with the job world is almost total at other levels of education (E.G.B., Bachillerato and University). There is no system for "job-study alternation", in-situ practicals are limited to a few university degree courses, school visits to companies and public services, etc, are infrequent, vocational guidance is not institutionalised, and teaching of technical skills occupies a very secondary place on the curriculum at all levels. However, since 1970 some progress has been made along these lines, and although the times are not exactly favourable, the forging of links between the educational and employment systems is an objective which is very gradually being reached.

(×) According to the classification made by educational experts in the Council of Europe (6), these four systems would be:

a) Training in companies (as in Switzerland)

b) Independent training, i.e. training in schools, independently of the system of production (as in France)

c) Pragmatism: various different solutions, adapted to circumstance (as in the U.K.)

d) Substitution, i.e. professional training organised by Ministries other than the Min. of Education (as in Portugal).

G - One of the most common criticisms of the 1970 Reform is that it is basically undemocratic and that its system is highly centralised.

Indeed, the General Education Act --and its later development in study plans, methodological guidance, etc.-- was drawn up by a group of experts, whose consultations with a limited number of social groups were more formal than real. There was little participation from the sectors involved in teaching and education. This was natural in Spain, given its special political circumstances. But it should be noted that participation in educational planning did not really constitute an exception within the worldwide context of the 1970's. According to the results of an I.E.A. survey of this subject in various countries, it can be seen that curricula were, practically speaking, almost entirely the outcome of work by the Ministries of Education and their administrators, except where there was participation from teachers and Teacher Training Colleges, which was not uncommon. (7).

Centralisation --and the consequent uniformity-- has been a constant characteristic in the Spanish educational system, and has remained so since 1970, despite the declarations of intent in the Act: "The independence of centres which this Act promulgates...", "Universities shall enjoy autonomy and self-determination...". Planning, central, the details of academic organisation have all been centralised by the Ministry of Education, with small margins for decision making at local and school level.

Both matters --decentralisation and participation in educational planning-- have become especially topical since the declaration of the 1978 Constitution, as will be seen below.

3. THE 1978 CONSTITUTION: REPERCUSSIONS ON THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The general structure of the prevailing educational sys tem was designed under the 1970 Act. However, the change in the political regime, shaped by the 1978 Constitution, has naturally brought about a change in overall focus, as well as partial modifications.

Article 27 of the Constitution establishes the general principles for all educational legislation:

1. Everyone has the right to education. Freedom of teaching is recognised.

2. The object of education is the full development of human character and respect for the democratic principle of social co-existence and basic rights and freedoms.

3. The public authorities guarantee the right of parents to ensure that their children receive a moral and religious education which is in accordance with their own convictions.

4. Basic education is free and compulsory.

5. The public authorities guarantee the right of all to education, through general planning of education with effective participation from all sectors affected by it, and the creation of teaching centres.

6. Individuals and corporate bodies are recognised as having the freedom to create teaching centres, provided respect is shown to constitutional principles.

7. Teachers, parents and, where applicable, students, shall participate in the control and management of centres set up by the State with public funds, on terms set by law.

8. The public authorities will inspect and standardise the educational system in order to guarantee the fulfillment of the law.

9. The public authorities will help teaching centres which meet the requirements established by law.

10. The autonomy of universities is recognised, according to the terms set by law.

In order to carry out the principles and rights established in this article, two Organic Laws have been passed, and a third is pending appeal before the Constitutional Tribunal. Organic Law 5/1980 of 19th June, which regulates the School Statute (LOECE), has the objective of developing points 3 and 9 of article 27 (the first two paragraphs can be considered as constant general guidelines). The Right to Education Act (known in Spanish as LODE, passed by the Plenary Session of the Congreso de Diputados on 15th March 1984, will come into effect when the Constitutional Tribunal declares the constitutionality or unconstitutionality of some of its articles) deals with the same matters, and will repeal the first, once it comes into force. Both regulate both public and private teaching at non-university level, but each from a different political and ideological viewpoint (as is natural, since they are the work of two different political parties). Each of the two laws basically establishes a framework for the relationship between the public authorities and private rights, and between the public sector and the private sector with regard to education, and regulate democratic participation in the field. However, firstly, whereas the LOECE does no deal with the important aspect of finance for private teaching at compulsory levels (which it expressly leaves for a later law), the LODE goes into it in detail. And secondly, the LOECE only regulates the participation of the educational community in the teaching centres, whilst the LODE also establishes the channels for generalised participation in teaching (×).

(×) Since this chapter is only intended to give an overall view of the system, we shall not go into further details on the two laws. Chapter III and IV in Part 2 will deal with specific aspects of the LOCE and its application, whilst the final chapter will provide thorough discussion of the LODE.

Section 10 of article 27 was developed in the Organic Law 11/1983 of 25th

Section 10 of article 27 was developed in the Organic Law 11/1983 of 25th August on University Reform, whose objective was to finally realise the old aspirations for university autonomy, which had already been expressed in the General Education Act. (×)

The Constitution has also affected the educational system in two important points. The first point is decentralisation of teaching administration (××) with its resulting transfer of competencies and functions to the Autonomous Communities and all that this implies for the breaking up of the "uniformity" of the system (but not the unity, which is maintained, since it is still the State which dictates the basic rules for the development of article 27, and the State which is competent for the general organisation of the educational system, the setting of minimum teaching levels and the regulation of academic qualifications, with regard to teaching centres, contents, organisation, hours, etc.)

The second important point is the teaching of (and in) vernacular languages in the autonomous communities with languages other than Castillian Spanish. Article 3 of the Constitution has the following to say about the different languages in Spain:

1. Castillian is the official Spanish language of the State. All Spaniards have the duty to understand it and the right to use it.

2. The other Spanish languages will also be the official language in their respective Autonomous Communities, in accordance with their by-laws.

3. The richness of the different linguistic patterns in Spain is part of the cultural heritage which shall be the object of special respect and protection.

(×) Chapter V, Part 2 will deal with this law in depth.

(××) This is discussed in Chapter III, Part 1.

Article 148 includes within the competencies of the autonomous communities "the encouragement of culture, research, and, where applicable, the teaching of the language of the Autonomous Community".

Thus, the Spanish State, as such, is monolingual, but "territorial bilingualism" exists in those communities where another language is also spoken, i.e. the Balearic Islands, Catalonia, Galicia, the Basque Country and Valencia. In these communities teaching of the local languages has been instigated through five decrees (one for each community) and several further order to extend them, regulating both their use as the working language in school centres and their teaching as a second language.

The reason for choosing the territorial formula rests upon the low linguistic dispersal within the Spanish State. "In the Spanish case, the linguistically differentiated communities maintain a high degree of territorial linguistic concentration. In other terms, there are many Castillian-speakers in non-Castillian areas, but the large majority of citizens who speak a non-Castillian language live within a limited territory." (8).

However, the existence of numerous Castillian-speaking minorities in the Autonomous Communities with their own language, requires that the territoriality of the linguistic rights be combined with the personal character of the speaking of the same, such that the right to be taught in the official State language be protected. (×)

Nonetheless, in certain cases the linguistic problems create rather complicated educational situations. The following quotation gives a brief, but clear reflection of what is happening in Spain in this field: "In the educational ambit, the criterion of territoriality means that the schooling language tends to be, as a rule, that of the linguistic community in which the school is located. The educational system tends to incorporate minorities with a different mother-tongue into the language of the community. This does not prevent the establishment of hypothetical cases

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(×) Ratified by a Constitutional Tribunal Ruling on 27th October 1983.

in which certain situations are recognised which are protected by the exercise of individual linguistic rights. The personal model, in principle, entails free decision by the parents regarding which language should be used to impart education to their children. In those countries where full territoriality is not in force, the types of bilingual educational programmes will definitively establish different degrees of schooling and levels, capable of producing a practical integration with the official State language." (9)

Teaching in and of vernacular languages has been reality since 1978 -- following a previous, somewhat wavering attempt by the General Education Act to introduce "native" languages on an experimental basis. It shows great diversity, according to the language, according to the area, and according to the specific circumstances. It also presents certain problems which will have to be resolved over time.

In this chapter, we have attempted to briefly sketch the structure, general characteristics, specific subjects and broad trends of the Spanish educational system. The following chapters will deal with each level in greater detail.

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CHAPTER II

PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

1. PRESCHOOL EDUCATION AND THE GENERAL EDUCATION LAW: PREPARATORY SCHOOLING IN INFANCY

The 1965 Primary Education Law divided primary education into two stages, as follows:

- Preschool, further divided into escuelas maternales× (up to the age of 4) and párvulos× (from the age of 4 - 6).
- Compulsory education, from the age of 6 - 14.

The "White Book" on Education in Spain (Basic concepts for an educational policy), published by the Ministry of Education and Science in 1969, makes the following statement:

"There is strong social pressure for the creation of nurseries and infant schools, brought about, amongst other things, by the increasing number of women in the workforce. There are several obvious reasons --both social and pedagogic-- why it would be advisable to satisfy this demand. One very important reason is that such schools help reduce school absenteeism during the compulsory education period... This demand for preschool education has not been satisfied adequately over recent years, as priority has been given to the schooling of children within the compulsory education age group. Although this criterion can be justified in general terms, there is an obvious need for special attention to be paid to the provision of preschool education in areas of highest female employment, and preferential treatment should be given to those areas of greatest economic need. The lack of preschool education is an obstacle to mothers wishing to find work, and creates disturbances in the care and education of children in those cases where the mother is obliged to work of necessity." (1)

× Escuela Maternal - henceforth translated as Nursery School
Escuela de Párvulos - henceforth translated as Infant Schools

The General Education Act 1970 (henceforth L.G.E.) includes Preschool Education within the structure of the Spanish educational system, as the first level of individuals' full-time education. Its basic aim is the harmonious development of the child's personality. This level of education is optional and lasts until the child is five years old. It is divided into two stages, which take place in:

- The Jardin de Infancia× for two- and three-year olds. During this stage, although schooling is organised systematically, it should resemble the home environment.

- The Infant School for four- and five-year olds. Education for this age group should be aimed at increasing children's potential.

The law prescribes the following contents in the Preschool Timetable: "Games, language activities (including native language, where applicable), rhythmic and three-dimensional expression, observation of nature, logical and pre-numeric exercises, development of community spirit, religious principles and moral attitudes." At the same time, the methods "shall be predominantly active, to ensure the development of spontaneity, creativity and responsibility." (2)

Preschool education is declared free in all State Centres where it has been introduced, and no pupils may be required to pay fees. Likewise, "...this could also be the case in non-State centres which voluntarily seek such an agreement".

The L.G.E. states that the educational system established for preschool education should be carried out gradually, according to the possibilities of creating new centres and the training of specialised teachers.

Few provisions have been added to this law to extend its contents with regard to preschool education.

×Jardines de Infancia -- henceforth translated as Kindergartens

The teaching guidelines laid down in 1973 establish the following general objectives for preschool education:

- To achieve the harmonious development of the child's personality in physical, mental and social aspects.

- To encourage the expression of originality in dynamic artistic and linguistic activities as well as in observation and reflection.

- To encourage the three aspects of group integration: communication, collaboration and responsibility.

- To help the child acquire moral and religious values and behaviour.

- To create a rich environment for the child, which encourages sytematic development of behaviour and activity.

- To attempt the achieval of the foregoing objectives through play.

In accordance with the provisions of the L.G.E. on the attention to be given the native language from first-level education onwards, the Decree of 30th May 1975 authorised the experimental inclusion of the different native Spanish languages into the timetable as optional subjects for pupils at ×Basic General Education (henceforth EGB) and Preschool Education Centres. (3)

×EGB is the first stage of compulsory schooling.

2. PRESCHOOL EDUCATION FIGURES

2.1. EDUCATIONAL DATA: 1970-1980

According to Ministry of Education and Science figures, during the year in which the L.G.E. came into force (schoolyear 1970-71) there was a total of 20,745 preschool units (nursery and infant schools), of which 44.4% were State centres and 55.6% were non-State centres.

In this same year (1970-71), 819,914 pupils were enrolled at preschool level. 44.3% of the total number of pupils were enrolled in public centres and 55.7% in private centres. (Table II. 1).

If we compare these data with those for the 1975-76 schoolyear, we can see that there has been a 20.5% increase in the number of preschool units since 1970-71. During the 1975-76 schoolyear, there were 24,991 preschool units or classrooms in existence, of which 39% were State controlled and 61% were based on private initiative. (Table II.1.)

In 1975-76, 920,336 pupils were enrolled for preschool education, 12.2% more than in 1970-71. This increase was due to the 25.5% rise in the number of pupils enrolling for private education, since there was a 5.6% decrease in the number of pupils enrolling for state education.

During a period of obvious growth for the education system, it was paradoxical that the number of pupils at one kind of preschool centres should decrease, despite continued reiteration of their inadequacies.

The cause seemed to lie with the effects of the educational concentration policy effected in the State sector.

TABLE II.1. PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

NUMBER OF UNITS, PUPILS ENROLLED AND NUMBER OF PUPILS PER SCHOOL UNIT

COMPARATIVE DATA FOR SCHOOLYEARS 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1979-80

	Nº UNITS	/ PERCENTAGE	PUPILS ENROLLED	/ PERCENTAGE	PUPILS / SCHOOL UNIT
1970-71					
TOTAL	20,745	100	819,914	100	39.5
State Centres	9,220	44.4	362,940	44.3	39.4
Non-State Centres	11,525	55.6	456,974	55.7	39.7
1975-76					
TOTAL	24,991	100	920,336	100	36.8
State Centres	9,738	39.0	347,026	37.7	35.6
Non-State Centres	15,253	61.0	573,310	62.3	37.6
1979-80					
TOTAL	34,735	100	1,159,854	100	33.4
State Centres	19,124	55.1	611,496	52.7	32.0
Non-State Centres	15,611	44.0	548,358	47.3	35.1

SOURCE: Schoolyear 1970-71, Data and Figures on Teaching in Spain.
Schoolyears 1975-76 and 1979-80, Statistices for Preschool, General Basic, Special and Permanent Adult Education. Min. of Education and Science. Statistics Section

One of the reasons for the decrease in the number of two- to five-year olds attending State centres could be parents' reluctance to send small children to school outside the local area or simply away from home.

The ratio of pupils to school unit or classroom improved slightly. There were 39.5 pupils per school unit in 1970-71, whereas in 1975-76 there were 36.8. The situation improved by 38 points in State education and by 2.1 points in private education. (Table II.1).

Let us now go on to give the data for the 1979-80 schoolyear and make a comparative analysis with 1975-76.

In the 1979-80 schoolyear, there were 34,735 school units of which 55% were State run and 45% private. This showed a significant increase in the proportion of State-run units at this level. (Table II.1.)

During this same period, there were 1,272,820 preschool places, of which 54% were in State establishments and and 46% in private establishments. The lower number of State-school places in relation to private-school places had altered in only 4 years since 1975-76, when State schools only offered 38.5% of the places available at preschool level. The efforts made in this sector are worthy of note, as is their importance in extending this educational period. (Table II.2).

There were 329,020 more school places, a 35% increase over the 1975-76 schoolyear. The relative increases in the State and private sectors were 90% and 0.5% respectively.

Table II.2 SCHOOL PLACES FOR PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

Comparative data: Schoolyears 1975-76 and 1979-80

	NUMBER OF SCHOOL PLACES	PERCENTAGE
1975-76		
TOTAL	943,800	100
State Centres	363,493	38.5
Non-State Centres	580,307	61.5
1979-80		
TOTAL	1,272,820	100
State Centres	690,063	54.2
Non-State Centres	582,757	45.8

Source: Preschool, General Basic, Special and Full-time Adult education statistics. Min. of Science and Education Statistics Office.

There were 1,159,854 pupils receiving preschool education in 1979-80, 26% more than in 1975-76.

The composition of the school-age population by type of centre attended showed significant variation. 53% of pupils attended State centres, a 76% increase since the schoolyear 1975-76. 47% of the pupils attended non-State centres, showing a 4% decrease in enrollment since 1975-76. (Table II.1).

There were 33.4 pupils per school unit or classroom in 1979-80. This number was reduced to 32 pupils in State centres and went up to 35.1 pupils in non-State centres. The ratio of pupils to school unit is equivalent to the pupils/teacher ratio, since the timetable and organisation at this level entails a total identification of the two concepts. This is why the pupils/school unit or classroom is such an important indicator of teaching quality.

There was a 3.4% decrease in the general ration in State centres in the schoolyear 1975-76, and a 2.5% decrease in non-State centres. (Table II.1).

The figures showing the levels of preschool attendance at the end of the decade under study, are as follows: (Table II.3).

- 10.55% of two- and three-year olds attended Kindergartens.
- 80.88% of four- and five-year olds atended Infant Schools.

Table II.3 PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN RECEIVING PRESCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLYEAR 1979-80

PRESCHOOL	PUPILS	POPULATION	PERCENTAGE
KINDERGARTENS	136,037	1,288,694	10.55
INFANT SCHOOLS	1,023.817	1,265,774	80.88
TOTAL	1,159,854	2,554,468	45.40

SOURCE: Min. of Education and Science, Statistics Office. Ibid.

More children attended infant school every year. In 1977-78 67.8% of the infant school age-group were enrolled in preschool education, in 1978-79 74%, and in 1979-80 (as already mentioned) 80.88%.

Finally, we shall give the data on the preschool teaching staff. During the 1979-80 schoolyear, there were 34,188 preschool-teachers, of which 54.6% worked in State-run centres, and 45.4% in private centres.

There was an increase of 38.9% over the schoolyear 1975-76, resulting from the 94.2% increase in the number of State teachers and a 3.3% increase in non-State teachers, 9,075 and 492 teachers respectively. This is shown in the following table.

Table II.4 PRESCHOOL TEACHERS
Comparative data: Schoolyears 1975-76 and 1979-80

	Nº TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE
1975-76		
TOTAL	24,621	100
State Centres	9,578	38.9
Non-State Centres	15,043	61.1
1979-80		
TOTAL	34,188	100
State Centres	18,653	54.6
Non-State Centres	15,535	45.4

Source: Min. of Education and Science, Statistics Office. Idem.

2.2. CURRENT SITUATION

Below, we give the most significant data on schooling at preschool level in 1982-82, to provide a clearer picture of the situation in this sector.

a) School units and places

In the schoolyear 1982-83 there were 38,160 preschool educational units, 59.1% of which were in the public sector and 40.9% in the private sector. Table II.5 shows the percentage distribution by sectors.

Table II.5 PRESCHOOL EDUCATION UNITS, CLASSIFIED BY SECTOR
Schoolyear 1982-83

	PERCENTAGE
Total: units	38,160
Percentage	100.00
Public	59.1
Ministry of Education and Science.....	57.2
Other Ministries	1.0
Local Corporations	0.6
Other public bodies	0.3
Private	40.9
Private initiative	25.9
Roman Catholic Church	12.8
Other sectors	2.2

Source: Min. of Education and Science, Statistics Office, Ibid.

63.7% of the privately-run preschool units received grants, despite the fact that education is not compulsory at this level. (Table II.6).

Table II.6 SUBSIDISED PRESCHOOL UNITS, BY SECTOR

LEVEL	SECTOR			
	Total Private	Private Iniciative	Catholic Church	Others
Preschool Education				
Total units	15,435	9,774	4,811	850
Subsidised units	9,837	5,309	3,958	570
Percentage of total receiving subsidies	63.7	54.3	82.3	67.0

Source: Min. of Education and Science, Statistics Office. Ibid.

The capacity of the educational system at preschool level was 1,336,636 places. Of these, 58% were in the public sector, whilst 42% were in the private sector.

The rate of classroom/school unit occupation was 0.87%. This shows that 13% of preschool places were not filled. The rate was higher in the private sector, where it was 0.89%, as compared with 0.85% in the public sector.

The numbers of pupils in each school unit is an important indicator of the quality of the teaching given, since it is equal to the number of pupils being taught by one teacher. In this schoolyear, there were 31 pupils per school unit or classroom. In the public sector, this figure was lower (30.5 pupils) than in the public sector (32.7 pupils). These are obviously only average numbers, and some units had more or less pupils.

b) Pupils enrolled

In 1982-83 1,187,617 pupils received preschool education. Distribution by sector was as follows: 683,220 pupils, i.e. 57.5% of the total, were enrolled at public centres, whilst 504,397, i.e. 42.5% of the total, were enrolled in private centres.

Table II.7 shows the distribution of preschool pupils by age and level. The figures for Kindergartens and Infants Schools showed wide variation. 116,776 pupils (two- and three-year olds) attended Kindergartens, whilst 1,070,841 pupils (four- and five-year olds) attended Infant Schools, i.e. 9.8% and 90.2% of the total age-groups respectively.

Similarly, the distribution by sectors at these two levels was also extremely varied. The private sector absorbed 87.7% of the age group receiving Kindergarten education, whilst the public sector only absorbed the remaining 12.3%. The scarcity of educational provision at this level evidently influenced the low level of enrollment in the public sector. Many public centres would only accept children over four-years old. In the Infant Schools, the distribution by sector is quite different from that in Kindergartens. 62.5% of pupils attended public centres, whilst the remaining 37.5% attended private centres. (Table II.8)

50% of children aged between 2 and 5 received preschool education.

The situation varied widely between Kindergartens, attended by 10% of the two- to three-year old age group, and the Infant Schools, attended by 85% of the four- to five-year old age group. There were also significant variations from year to year in the percentage of pupils in each age group. Only 5% of two-year olds received education; 15% of three-year olds; 75% of 4 year-olds, and almost 95% of five-year olds. (Table II.9).

Table II.7

Pupils enrolled in Preschool Education - Course 1982-83

AGE	KINDERGARTEN		INFANT SCHOOL		TOTAL	
	Pupils	%	Pupils	%	Pupils	%
Public Sector						
2 year-olds	3,207	0.47	-	-	3,207	0.47
3 year-olds	11,170	1.63	-	-	11,170	1.63
4 year-olds	-	-	275,152	40.27	275,152	40.27
5 year-olds	-	-	393,691	57.63	393,691	57.63
TOTAL	14,377	2.10	668,843	97.90	683,220	100.00
Private Sector						
2 years-olds	23,812	4.72	-	-	23,812	4.72
3 year-olds	78,587	15.58	-	-	78,587	15.58
4 year-olds	-	-	188,276	37.33	188,276	37.33
5 year-olds	-	-	213,722	42.37	213,722	42.37
TOTAL	102,399	20.30	401,998	79.70	504,397	100.00
BOTH SECTORS						
2 year-olds	27,019	2.27	-	-	27,019	2.27
3 year-olds	89,757	7.56	-	-	89,757	7.56
4 year-olds	-	-	463,428	39.02	463,428	39.02
5 year-olds	-	-	607,413	51.15	607,413	51.15
TOTAL	116,776	9.83	1,070,841	90.17	1,187,617	100.00

Source: Statistics for Preschool, Basic General, and Adult Education.
Min. of Education and Science, Statistics Office

Table II. 8 PRESCHOOL PUPILS: DISTRIBUTION BY LEVELS AND SECTORS

Schoolyear 1982-83

LEVEL	PUBLIC CENTRES	%	PRIVATE CENTRES	%	TOTAL	%
Kindergarten Pupils	14,377	12.3	102,399	87.7	116,776	100
Infant School Pupils	668,843	62.5	401,998	37.5	1,070,841	100
TOTAL	683,220	57.5	504,397	42.5	1,187,617	100

Source: Preschool, Basic General, Special and Adult Education.
Min. of Education and Science, Statistics Office

Table II.9 PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN RECEIVING PRESCHOOL EDUCATION Schoolyear 1982-83

AGE	PERCENTAGE
2 year-olds	4.52
3 year-olds	15.30
2 and 3 year-olds	9.87
4 year-olds	74.71
5 year-olds	94.10
4 and 5 year olds	84.60
2 to 5 year-olds	48.49

Source: Min. of Education and Science, Statistics Office. Ibid.

This rapid increase in percentages from one age group to the next shows that there is a greater demand for education for children approaching compulsory school age, i.e. the age for enrolling in the EGB programme. However, these differences are clearly also influenced by the fact that the level of supply of school places for two- to three-year olds is far lower than that for four- to five year olds.

c) Teachers

37,343 teachers were directly responsible for preschool education in the schoolyear 1982-83. 60% of these taught in the public sector, whilst 40% taught in the private sector.

One of the factors influencing teaching quality was the relation between the speciality in which the teachers trained and the speciality which they teach professionally.

Table II.10 shows that two thirds of preschool teachers did not posses specialist qualifications for this level. The situation in the private sector was worse than in the overall situation, with only a quarter of private-sector teachers possessing preschool specialist qualifications. In the public sector, however, the situation was better in relative terms, since 38% of teachers had specialist qualifications for this level.

One of the pressing problems now, when one of the objectives of educational policy is the extension of preschool education, is the training of teachers to deal with the increased number of preschool pupils expected.

Table II.10 PRESCHOOL TEACHERS AND SPECIALISED TEACHERS AT PRESCHOOL LEVEL Schoolyear 1982-83

	PUBLIC SECTOR		PRIVATE SECTOR		TOTAL	
	Nº.	%	Nº.	%	Nº.	%
Teachers providing preschool education	22,339	100	15,004	100	37,374	100
Preschool teachers working in their speciality	8,523	38.2	3,788	25.2	12,311	33.0
DIFFERENCE	13,816	61.8	11,216	74.8	25,032	67.0

Source: Min. Of Education and Science, Statistics Office. Ibid.

3. ATTENTION GIVEN TO PRESCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN

The General Education Law provides a clear statement of its relationship to general educational development planning. The third Additional Provision reads: "In future Development Plans, the investment required to meet the needs established in this Law shall be allocated."

The Third Economic an Social Development Plan established education objectives and priorities for the four-year period 1972/3-1975/76. The strategy for preschool education specified in this plan can be summed up as follows: "Given the absolute priority of EGB, the development of preschool education --at least during the period in which the 3rd Plan is in force-- shall be subject to the objectives of first-class education at the compulsory schooling level. For the same reason, much care must be taken over the current strategy for introducing this educational level, according special attention to those areas of highest female employment outside the home". (4).

The priorities for the preschool level during the four-year period were defined along similar lines:

- Provision of the necessary educational preparation for infants (four- and five-year olds) to ease their incorporation into the compulsory education phase.

- Preferential provision of preschool education where women are working in agriculture, industry or services.

- Provision of preschool education where contact with the school is necessary to improve performance.

- Provision of preschool education where problems of bilingualism exist.

The documentation for the Fourth National Development Plan (1976) --Technological Development and Scientific Research and Education-- gives an analysis of the evolution of preschool education in which it qualifies the situation in Spain as "critical". According to the documentation, the cause is that "the EGB requirements, which are priority objectives for the education of all Spanish children, have over-ridden those for preschool education." (5).

Likewise, it refers to the quality of preschool teaching in the following terms: "...It is very variable; along general lines, some preschool classes are well-equipped, both in terms of teachers and of suitable installations and teaching materials; others are badly directed and on occasions give a premature basic education with marked ill-effects for the children themselves, whilst a third group are installed in small flats in inadequate conditions, such that they can hardly be considered as real schools for education."

Amongst the problems which affect this level, one of the most important is that of the teachers. "The State sector consists of national teachers who have gone through the competitive exam for running nursery and infant schools. However, some teachers in the private sector do not have teaching qualifications and come from varied backgrounds. The Primary Education Law of 1963 substituted training through a competitive exam system with specialised courses in Normal Schools; however as these centres were transformed by the 1970 G.E.L. into University Colleges for EGB Teachers, this system of specialisation has not been implemented."

To sum up, the quality of preschool education over these years was conditioned by the following:

- The lack of in service training of teachers

- The non-existence of a training plan for preschool teachers.

- The material conditions of the centres.

- The demands for premature adaptation to the General Basic Education syste,.

- The non-use of suitable media, indispensable for this age groups and different from those used at other levels.

One of the objectives of this 4th Development Plan was the "democratisation of education", i.e. the achievement of a certain degree of compensation for the social inequalities which condition the educational process, conceiving education as a tool for social upgrading. Specifically for the preschool level, it was hoped that "the compensatory role of preschool education for socially less-favoured children be intensified and extended."

Within this framework, the programme for public investments projected included the education of 1,300,000 four- and five year olds and the creation of 291,000 new preschool places.

In 1976 the Report drawn up by the General Education Law Evaluation Commitee referred to the problems facing preschool education in Spain in the following terms: (6)

- Preschool Centres: regulations were laid down for Preschool Centres, whether these were integrated within Centres for various different levels, or whether these were totally independent.

  Administrative regulations for the EGB level, related to pupils, teachers, hours, methodology and timetable, as well as the quality of education provided.

- Teaching staff: The serious problem concerning teaching staff was the almost total absence of institutionalised specialist training.

Preschool education doubtlessly requires specialisation which should be given as a follow-up to a block of common training for all teachers, either after the obtention of a teaching qualification for EGB, or within the training course for teaching qualifications as another speciality (similar to the system used for medical specialisation).

At present, courses have only been organised in three University Colleges for Teacher Training, in the UNED (equivalent to Open University) and in some I.C.E.s (Institutes of Educational Science), but do not meet the need for practical training required, and are not governed by standardised rules.

- Educational Policy: An educational policy for levels and quality of teaching cannot ignore the preschool level, but the fact that no separate budget exists exclusively for this level results in a series of problems which camouflage reality: the creation of EGB units which admit preschool children or the dismissal of preparatory education as something which does no more than create inequalities in the first years of EGB and a feeling of insecurity in society.

- Co-ordination: The problems of co-ordination with and transition to other levels are also important, since these will affect children at an especially difficult moment in their lives --when they are six-- which has been called a "first adolescence" by many psychologists because of the difficulties which are intrinsic to it and to which a non-co-ordinated change of level adds.

The Moncloa Agreements (October 1977) established objectives for educational policy for 1978. (7).

The goals set for preschool education were: the gradual increase in the supply of preschool places, until there was a place available for every child within the age-group nearest to the compulsory education level (4 and 5 year olds), plus a sufficient margin to enable minimum rates of enrollment in the younger age-group (2 and 3 year olds) to be maintained.

One of the aims of the educational policy for this period was: the universalisation of free preschool education (at infant level, for 4 and 5 year olds), not only for social reasons, but also because of the growing belief amongst families and society in general that education in these early years is of decisive importance.

The situation of preschool education in the schoolyear 1976-77 is reflected in the following indicators:

- National level of preschool enrollment: 36.2% (10.6% for 2 and 3 year olds and 62.1% for 4 and 5 year olds).
- Serious differences in the level of preschool enrollment between different provinces, varying between 20.4% and 62.5%.

In 1976 the potential demand for school places at this educational level was as follows:

- Estimated population of 4 and 5 year olds 1,306,291
- Enrollment for schoolyear 1976-77 814,687
- Deficit 1976-77 491,604
- Increased needs for 4 and 5 year olds due to growth in numbers and population displacements (1977-78 and 79) 65,382
- Total expected demand increase up to 31.12.79 556,986

In order to cope with such demand, the following number of places were created within State schools:

1977	30,280 places
1978	200,000 places
TOTAL	230,280 places

At present the situation of preschool education in Spain could be characterised as one of "diversity". This definition has already been mentioned, and is based on the existence of various types of Centres, which differ in the organisations running them and their economic structure. In an attempt to classify them, we could refer to the following: (8)

- Escuelas Infantiles Laborales*: subsidised by the Ministry of Labour. These were created from the National Fund for Job Protection in order to protect female workers.

- Escuelas Infantiles del Instituto Nacional de Asistencia Social*: These aim to provide "assistance" by taking charge of children whose family conditions make special attention advisable.

- Escuelas Infantiles de Empresa*: Institutions attached to workplaces/companies where the parents work.

- Escuelas Infantiles Municipales*: There are three different types of these schools, with municipal grants, which differ as to their management and administration:

  . Council-subsidised Preschool Centres, which conserve their status as non-profit-making private centres.

* Escuelas Infantiles Laborales: Labour Preschool Centres
Escuelas Infantiles del Instituto Nacional de Asistencia Social: Nat. Inst. of Social Security Preschool Centres
Escuelas Infantiles de Empresa: Company Preschool Centres
Escuelas Infantiles Municipales: Municipal Preschool Centres

. Municipal Preschool Centres, where the Council is responsible for the building, staff, management and administration.

. Municipal Trust Preschool Centres, where the Trust acts as management and has its own juridical status.

-Escuelas Infantiles Privadas×: amongst which, some receive grants from entities such as County Councils, Savings Banks, etc.; others are non-profit making and structured on a co-operative basis, both at the economic and internal management level; and the rest are profit-making institutions which are hard to classify and are either defficient or very defficient in terms of general conditions (materials, staff, pupil/teacher relationship, etc.)

One should emphasise that this classification is not complete, since it only includes Preschool Centres and thus does not cover preschool-level pupils at other institutions. A high number of pupils in this age-group receive schooling at:

- Preschool Units in Public Centres which also teach EGB.

- Preschool Units in Private Centres for EGB.

Nonetheless, these preschool units generally give exclusive attention to the Infant School level, i.e. children between the ages of four and five.

Given the diversity of these situations, which has been brought about by a lack of legal planning in the sector, a Draft Bill for Preschool Centres has been drawn up in recent months. This lays down the bases for the reorganisation of child education, recognising the period from birth to six years as an educational stage and regulating the teaching criteria so that the said law will be enforced.

4. EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND TIMETABLE: REORGANISATION OF PROGRAMMES

In 1981 the General Basic Education (EGB) was restructured into three phases: preliminary, intermediary and advanced (Royal Decree 69/1981 of 9th January).

New programmes for preschool education were established that same year in accordance with the teaching guidelines behind the reorganisation of the preliminary phase. The most significant characteristics of the Reorganised Programme can be summed up as follows:

- The comprehensive nature of the teaching. The Ministry of Education considers that teaching at this level should become thoroughly comprehensive, but that it is the teacher who should organise the contents in such a manner, depending on the pupils, their characteristics and degree of maturity.

  In accordance with the above, the educational objectives are still grouped into the following broad areas of learning:

  . Language
  . Mathematics
  . Experience
  . Art Education
  . Physical Education
  . Affective/Social Behaviour

  The convenience of such grouping of objectives is based on the following requirements:

  . To offer teachers as in-depth studies as possible on each of the educational sectors, with its specific methodological implications. This will enable teachers to make a deeper analysis of each area.

. To help teachers to build up comprehensive units, in accordance with the characteristics of the pupils in their classes.

. To specify the aims, contents and methodology of each of the areas, to facilitate the development of adjustment programmes for children who need compensatory education in certain aspects.

- The Establishment of Basic Reference Levels. Teaching in Preschool Units will be carried out according to the so-called "Basic Reference Levels". The Ministry of Education intends these to serve as guidelines, specifying only what the pupil should know and be able to do at the end of the preschool phase. Their basic objective is to provide teachers with a reference point to enable them to make as precise a diagnosis as possible of their pupils' position in relation to what we call the basic skills in the different areas.

- The Structure of the Reorganised Programmes. The new programmes aim to offer a coherent vision of the different areas of teaching, and are thus not limited to the presentation of a series of unrelated objectives. To this end, they were structured by consideration of the following:

a) Subject Blocks: Subject matter is arranged around these "subject blocks", which include several interrelated "work topics". This enables an overall, systematic concept of the relevant area to be built up, and at the same time gives meaning to the objectives and basic refence levels which might otherwise appear to lack coherence.

b) Work Topics: the "subject blocks" are subdivided into so-called "work topics" which, due to their own specificity, may be considered as independent and treated separately, although they constitute a basic part of each subject block.

c) Basic Reference Levels: These are included within each "work topic" and constitute the obligatory aims which must be achieved. These basic levels have bearing on the overall scope of human conduct. This may be taken to mean the full set of knowledge, attitudes, assimilated values, habits, work skills and techniques which pupils should have acquired by the end of the preschool phase.

d) Activities: All the actions and experiences which are put forward as ideal means to the achievement of the proposed objectives. These are suggestions and not obligatory.

- Subject Blocks and Work Topics for the Preschool Level. The Basic Preschool Levels (Objectives) and the activities in each educational area are structured on the basis of the following Subject Blocks:

AREA: LANGUAGE

Subject Blocks:

1. Look and listen comprehension
   Work Topics: aural comprehension and perception. Visual observation and perception.
2. Oral Expression.
   Work Topics: Elocution. Vocabulary. Dialogue.
3. Reading.
4. Writing.

AREA: MATHEMATICS

Subject Blocks:

1. Experiences with separate and continuous materials. Introduction to classification and serialisation.
   Work Topics: Experiences with separate and continuous materials. Introduction to classification and serialisation. Experiences with handling and measuring.

2. Exploration of space and first steps in geometry.
   Work Topics: Experiences in space exploration. Topological and geometrical experiences.
3. Prenumerate experiences.
   Work Topics: Wholes and relations. Enumeration.

AREA: SOCIAL AND NATURAL EXPERIENCE

Subject Blocks:

1. Self-knowledge
   Work Topics: Knowledge of the body. Body care. The body in movement.
2. Knowledge of the environment
   Work Topics: Discovery of Nature. Observation of changes in Nature.
3. Development within the environment
   Work Topics: Who do we live with? Our home. Games and work with peers and friends: the class. School. The street. Working persons. Games and hobbies. Trips and excursions. Communication media. Consumption of goods and services.

AREA: ART EDUCATION

Subject Blocks

1. Visual Art Education
   Work Topics: Free expression of emotions. Perfecting of sketching techniques. Expression through pictures.
2. Musical Education
   Work Topics: Rhythmic training. Voice training. Aural training.

AREA: PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Subject Blocks:

1. Contact with objects.
2. Knowledge of body and body adaptation.
3. Perception and structuring of space.
4. Perception and structuring of time.

AREA: AFFECTIVE/SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

Subject Blocks:

1. The search self-identity.
2. Integration into physical and social surroundings.
3. Preparation for sexual education.
4. Values and conduct.

Finally, the programmes entail the co-ordinated planification of educational activities for EGB and preschool teachers, in order to ensure continuity in the pupils' learning process, paying special attention to aspects related to the methodology for introduction to and learning of instrumental skills.

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CHAPTER III

COMPULSORY SCHOOLING

1 - GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION

General Basic Education is the name given to that period of compulsory comprehensive schooling which all pupils between the ages of 6 and 14 are normally expected to undergo. Lasting 8 years, it therefore embraces what is referred to as primary and lower level, secondary education in other countries.

This form of educative grouping was introduced in 1970 to replace the two tier system which had existed prior to the passing of the General Education Act. Until this time children could either study at primary level up to the age of 10, and then go on to study for the Baccalaureate, or they could continue their primary education at a lower level up to the age of 12. Leaving aside the question of the Baccalaureate for the moment, let us look briefly at the state of the Spanish Primary Education prior to 1970.

The Primary Education Act of 1945 was a direct result of the spirit of National Catholicism which at the time lay behind all the Acts and actions of the government. Thus the introduction explicitly states: "This new Act proclaims religion to be its principal and most fundamental source of inspiration. In keeping with the traditions of its greatest days, Spanish education must be, before all else, Catholic." As a result of this the Church

was granted the power to establish and administer schools completely free from the control of lay authority. The Church was thus entrusted with the job of carrying out primary education in Spain, its only "pedagogical" consideration being that it should achieve the "Christian, patriotic and intellectual

of Spanish children" (the order of the objectives is

and undoubtedly intentional).

It was moreover a markedly discriminatory law given that it would "guide the pupils, according to aptitude into what they were suited for higher education, a career in industry or business or agricultural activities." If one bears in mind the fact that this "guidance" took place at the age of 10 when the pupil was either about to begin to study for the Baccalaureate with which he could then go on to university or would continue his primary studies for a further two years, the injustice of this system can be appreciated, especially if we consider that often children were not evaluated by aptitude but on the socioecoomic status. To this must be added the shortage of both schools and teachers and how little emphasis was placed on the compulsory nature of the schooling.

As can be seen in section 37 of the Act the syllabus was to consist of the following areas of knowledge:

a) The Functional aspect, that is, those notions and habits which are essential to the study of the different teaching subjects and practical academic exercise. Under this

heading are to be included interpretative reading, graphic expression (writing, spellling, composition and drawing) and arithmetic.

b) The Formative aspect, that is, those factors which constitute the basis of the pupils's moral and intellectual education. This aspect consists of four orders of knowledge: first, religious education; second, the infusion of a national spirit, Geography and History to be included under this heading, specially those of Spain; third, intellectual education, consisting of the Spanish Language, and Mathematics and fourth, Physical Education, that is, gymnastics, sports and organized games.

The complementary aspect, that is, such activities as will serve to complete the minimum level of primary learning by means of an introduction to the Natural Sciences, through the arts (music, singing and drawing), or through practical subjects (handicrafts, woodwork and metalwork, and needlework for the girls.)

The defects inherent in this syllabus speak for themselves, firstly its vagueness, it took twenty years for question papers for the different subjects to be produced, nor was there any indication of how long was to be devoted to each section nor even how each course was to be structured. We might also question the way in which the different scholastic activities have been classified; the way, for example, in which reading and writing are to be cosidered as one activity and the Spanish Language as

another and similarly with arithmetic and Mathematics. Furthermore, the idea that the Natural Sciences should be designated as "complementary" would appear to be somewhat anachronistic to say the least.

This Education Act, with certain modifications which were introduced during the sixties, a period when changes were felt in school conditions, the number of children receiving education and a marked improvement in teaching materials, was in force until 1970.

1. 1 INITIAL REGULATIONS FOR E.G.B. (General Basic Education) AND ITS ORIGINAL FORM: THE LGE (General Education Act)

The Education Act of 1970 marked a milestone in modern Spanish education especially with regard to primary and lower secondary levels. The two basic objectives of the reform, its main aims, its founding principles were on the one hand to democratize education (more education for everybody), and on the other to improve the quality and the results of the teaching (a better education for all). From this point of view, E.G.B. was to play a decisive role. Schooling for all children between the ages of 6 and 14 was the foundation from which it would be possible to democratize education as a whole. However, at the same time, this schooling had to be first rate and for everyone otherwise it would be more than a useless formality.

Raising the standard of education at this level was fundamental for different reasons, firstly E.G.B. is the longest stage in a child's education, secondly it's the only one which is compulsory

and lastly, the years between 6 and 14 are decisive insofar as a child's opinions and capabilities are concerned. Thus E.G.B. was considered the corner stone of any reform of the education system and upon it depended the success or failure of education in Spain.

1.1.1. THE PURPOSE OF GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION

In the introduction to the Act there is a paragraph which clearly shows the aim of this new educative grouping called E.G.B. "The period of E.G.B. which will be compulsory, free of charge and the same for all, sets out to erradicate all forms of discrimination in education within the period of this Act coming into force and will thenceforth constitute the essential basis for equality of educative opportunities, equality which will be extended to all stages of the educative process."

The objective of the reform which had been undertaken was to achieve equality of opportunity for all children through the establishment of an educational level to be compulsory, free and the same for all. In order to do this, it was essential to do away with the discrimitation caused by sending children to different schools at the age of ten and thereby effectively predetermining their future.

An educational level of this kind, that is to say, one which is to be the same for all and also comprehensive in that it is self-contained must, of necessity, have some very special features since it must be flexible enough to include children from very different backgrounds, socioeconomic statuses ,

geographic areas, etc. and besides has to equip the pupil for both later studies and for life itself. These characteristics are reflected in the Act in the following way:

"The aim of General Basic Education is to supply a comprehensive education, which will be the same for all but which wherever possible can be adapted to the aptitude and capabilities of each individual.

In E.G.B. education will be aimed at the acquisition, development and functional utilization of learning habits and technics; the pupils will be encouraged to use to the full their powers of imagination and their capacity for observation and reflection; it will also seek to instil in the pupils certain habits and ideas of a religious or moral nature while preparing them to take their place in society fostering a sense of "belonging" to the local, national and international community of which they form part; E.G.B. will also endeavour to initiate the pupils into artistic appreciation and expression, develop their civic responsibility and finally, to stimulate their capacity for sports and physical exercise.

The principal characteristics of E.G.B. are, firstly, that the formative aspect outweights the purely academic, and secondly, the way in which it seeks to provide for the pupil as both individual (by developing the abilities of each child at his or her own speed) and as a member of society (by instilling social habits and a sense of "belonging" to the community).

This idea was both ambitious and unprecedented especially since it was not mere wishful thinking but rather represented the real proces of change which had already begun in Spanish schools, and also, since the guiding principles behind this plan implied a completely different way of cosidering the content, methods, teaching materials, school organisation and the relationship between the teacher and pupil, all of which would have far reaching practical consequences.

1.1.2. STRUCTURE OF E.G.B.

The eight years of study which make up EGB are divided into two different stages.

a) The first stage lasts five years (from the age of 6 to 10 approximately) and its chief characteristic is the comprehensive nature of the teaching (all subjects being taught by one teacher). The academic, or informative aspect takes second place to the formative dimesion and the only purpose of the subjects to be learned is to stimulate the pupils's intellectual faculties help him or her to feel a part of society and foster their creative inclinations. Thus it is that priority is given to functional techniques and the fostering of the different forms of expression (oral, written, corporal, artistic, etc,).

b) The second stage consists of three years (between the ages of 11 and 13). During this stage, a diversification of the different areas of knowledge is undertaken (each subject being taught by a different teacher) and greater

importance is placed on acquisition and systematization of knowledge, even though the different forms of expression continue to be fundamental. In this stage scholastic guidance is essential in order to help the pupil to make sense of his formative experience which are now considered separately, and to make it easier to choose between the various options which await him or her at the end of the period of compulsory education.

At the end of E.G.B. those pupils who have passed all eight courses will normally be given the title of Graduado Escolar (School Graduate). However, those pupils who have studied all eight courses but who have failed to reach the required academic standards will receive the Certificado de Escolaridad (School Certificate)*. This is possible because the Education Act of 1970 establishes that it is compulsory for pupils to move up into the next course at the end of each academic year. It is also possible to obtain the title of Graduado Escolar by passing a maturity test which is aimed at those people who have never studies E.G.B. or who have never attained the required academic level.

A pupil who attains the School Certificate may only go on to attend a "Centro de Formación Profesional de Primer Grado"

(*) At present it is no longer compulsory for a pupil to move up automatically into the next course, therefore the School Certificate can be attained with 8 years of schooling (between 6 and 14 years) irrespective of whether these correspond to the 8 courses of E.G.B

(Vocational Training (FP) Grade 1) or can apply for jobs which are relatively unskilled.

On the other hand, a school pupil with the diploma of 'Graduado Escolar' can go on to study for the Baccalaureate. This certificate is also considered essential when applying for any kind of skilled job.

This two-tier system of certificates has been criticised since it establishes a posteriori the very discrimination which EGB had sought to do away with. Once again it clearly discriminates between those who, at 14, may continue to study, and those others who may not. The existence of two certificates has meant that people tend to look down on Vocational Training, regarding it as the refuge of the intellectually less well-endowed.

1.1.3. Syllabuses: Aims and Contents

In improving the quality of education the role of the syllabus is fundamental. As is to be expected on this point, the Act gives only a few general guidelines: 'At this level (EGB) educational activity will consist of : command of language; this will be achieved through the study of Castillian, the national language, the learning of a foreign language, and, where applicable, the cultivation of the mother-tongue; the fundamentals of religious culture, awareness of the reality of the cultural and social world with reference to Spain; the study of physics, mechanics and mathematics, domestic and any other activities to

prepare the pupil to study for the Baccalaureate, finally the pupil's capacity for practical activities will be developed so as to prepare him or her for admission to the first level of FP.

Syllabuses and Pedagogical Guidelines were later established by the Ministery of Education and Science by means of the Ministerial Orders dated 2nd December 1970 and 6th August 1971. The first new feature of this syllabus was that it was not a fixed set of rules which had to be rigorously adhered to, but rather a collection of guidelines and suggestions to do with the educational task. It was intended to offer the teachers something to work with that would be in keeping with the objectives laid out in the General Education Act, but something which could be adapted to the geographical, socioeconomic or personal conditions of every school and its pupils.

The second innovation in this syllabus is the way it is programmed towards a series of objectives. Objectives, some general, others specific and laid down for each area of knowledge and contents and activities aimed at achieving them are proposed.

The General Aims were as follows:

"Development of the pupil's capacity of imagination, observation, reflection, analysis and synthesis.

Acquisition of the basic knowledge in order to familiarise the pupil with the realities of the world which surrounds him and its natural and social dimensions.

Development of moral and religious beliefs, habits and values.

Development of the basic attitudes to facilitate the adaptation of the pupil and his integration into society, and to reaffirm his sense of belonging to the community, be it local, national or international.

Development of the pupil's capacity for aesthetic appreciation and expression, a real awareness of artistic creation as part of his own life.

Physical fitness, development of agility and strength.

Acquisition of those habits and techniques which are essential to learning, study and personal work.

Acquisition of such knowledge, attitudes and personal habits which will help the pupil to decide upon his future vocation or profession.

The general aims and scientific and cultural contents, subdivided as they are into broad areas of learning, are the third innovatory feature of the syllabus. There is no fragmentation of subjects at the first stage, and while this does take place to a moderate degree in the second stage, there is always coordination of subjects in the

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same area. The area dealing with the different forms of language is designated as the "Area of Expression". The term "Area of Experience" covers not only the scientific content but also those technical or cultural aspects that the pupil is surrounded by in life. In the first stage the "area of experience" is presented as a whole through different points of interest which are neither compulsory nor uniform for all schools but rather are selected at the teacher's discretion since they must be adapted to circumstances. On the other hand, in the second stage, the "area of experience" is divided up into the different branches of science.

The following diagram will show all the areas and subjects which were laid down in the E.G.B. syllabus for 1970.

Table III.1 LEARNING AREAS IN E.G.B.

	STAGE 1	STAGE 2
Area of Expression	Area of Language	Spanish Language Foreign Language
	Area of Artistic Expression	Arts Pre-technological training
	Area of Physical Expression	Musical and Movement Physical Education and Sports
	Area of Mathematics	
Area of Experience	Possible Options within the Areas of Natural & Social Studies	Social and Cultural Area & Subsection on Civic Education. Natural Sciences
	Area of Religious Education	

Finally the pedagogical guidelines show the level of the contents of each area of learning for all stages of E.G.B. Exactly what must be taught is set out in the form of operational objectives(to be evaluated by the teacher himself) and also as series of contents which become increasingly more difficult thus corresponding to the development both psychological and biological of the pupil.

1.1.4 TEACHING METHODS, SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ASSESSMENT.

The teaching methods which are put forward in the educational reform of 1970 are aimed at developing in the pupil the capacity of "learning how to learn" in order to make it easier for him to take his place in a constantly changing world where it is no longer true to say that one finishes learning when one leaves school.

The direct reference to teaching methods contained in the Act is short but to the point: "The teaching methods to be employed during E.G.B. must be aimed at fostering the pupils'originality and creativity, while at the same time developing in them the capacity for cooperation, with the pupils and teachers working together like a team. Widespread use is to be made of audiovisual techniques".

In the Pedagogical Guidelines specific instructions are given for every area with regard to methods,techniques, activities and teaching materials, suggesting which would be most effective in order to attain the proposed objectives. At all times teaching is to be considered as something active and individualized.

Closely related to the Pedagogical methods is the question of School Organization not only with regard to the human aspect (for example, relations between the different members of the scholastic community, and the distribution of the different duties and professional responsibilities) but also with reference to considerations of time and space available.

In the Pedagogical Guidelines each of these points is dealt with explicitly and in some detail:composition of governing bodies, the setting up of departments with reference to learning areas and the creation of the post of "area coordinator"; the importance of having a department whose job it is to offer the pupils guidance, creation of the post of Tutor for each class, flexible grouping of pupils with regard to the activities they are to practise, time distribution by learning areas and type of activity, etc. All of this in order to foster creative learning, the spirit of cooperation and new teaching methods.

The subject of assessment is dealt with extensively in the Act:"In assessing the pupils' performance it will be necessary to combine the formative and academic requirements of each course or educational level with a system of tests which will enable the teacher to assess all aspects of the pupil's education and his or her capacity for further study".

"A confidential written record will be kept for each pupil, which will consist of such information and observations regarding to level of intelligence, aptitude, etc .... for his education and guidance..."

"The grade alloted to each pupil at the end of every course will be based fundamentally on assessment of progress made throughout the school year".

"During the period of General Basic Education the progress of the pupil will be considered primarily with regard to his own capabilities".

"During the first stage the end of course assessment will be carried out by the child's own teacher based on a global evaluation of the results attained by the child during the educational process. In the second stage flexible level tests will be prepared by a team of teachers in the pupil's own school".

Those pupils who, while not requiring to attend special schools, fail to attain a satisfactory assessment at the end of each course will go on to the next course, but will be expected to attend complementary remedial classes".

It is obvious from this that the question of assessment is considered very important in this Act and that the way in which it is dealt with, differs completely from what had gone before. It is conceived as an integral part of the educational process and is to be continous, based on a comprehensive appraisal of the pupil, bearing in mind all the elements which play a part in learning.

A much more detailed explanation of the instructions as laid down in the Act is found in the Pedagogical Guidelines where definite suggestions are made regarding the initial assessment, continous assessment, final assessment and self assessment and the procedures which are to be followed in order to evaluate the different areas, and progress and aptitude tests which are to be used by the guidance departments.

1.1.5 SUMMARY

It is to be hoped that the foregoing exposition has shown to what extent the General Education Act of 1970 sought to improve the standard of basic education in Spain. In the following sections we shall see just how successful or not this has been. We will finish this part by looking at the synthesis of the basic traits of the new E.G.B. as put forward by the people who framed the Reform: "Personalized Education", this implies the individualization of the educational process; the development of the social dimension of the pupil's personality through team work and effective relationships within the school community; flexible grouping of pupils which will allow them to take part in large scale group activities or collective projects; attending to the pupil while respecting the principle of continous progress.

Planning the syllabus around the areas of expression and experience the two interacting mutually, which will provide the necessary harmony at every academic level and will ensure the continuity and consistency of the educational process.

Conformity of Education to the continous progress of science with regard to both contents and methods, while allowing the personnel of both teaching and research departments the opportunity and the time to keep up to date with developments.

Educational Innovation, the progressive introduction of those new approaches, methods, techniques and materials that, after being extensively tested have been shown to be effective and therefore will be of most benefit to the educational process.

Practical effective knowledge of the enviroment and the participation of the school in the local community with activities and time set aside for this, for example through excursions, visits, interviews, etc.

Permanent guidance and tutoring of the pupils this is a task to be shared by all the persons involved in their education which demands continous cooperation between the family and the school in order to achieve the fullest, most harmonious development of each pupil's personality.

Continuous assessment of the pupils by means which are in keeping with the achievement of the real objectives or their education. This assessment is planned not only to evaluate performance but also in order to provide where necessary the means by which the pupil can be helped to remedy mistakes or deficiencies.

Coordination by the teaching staff of the syllabuses and work schedules of the distribution and organization of activities, of the assessment and guidance of the pupils and organization of the school.

The creation in each school of its own style, with the support and active encouragement (of the Ministry of Education) for its ventures, experiments and positive achievement.

Continous readjustment of the educational system and its schools based on the results of general experience and keeping up with the needs of society in a changing world. (1)

1.2. SCHOOLING UNDER GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION

1.2.1. The Process of Implementation of the 1970 Act and Facts Relating to School Education in Spain: 1970-1980.

According to the "Calendar for the Implementation of the Education Reform Bill" (Act of Parliament 2459/70, dated August 20th) during the first year (1970-71) the first four courses of E.G.B. were established simultaneously; during the following year (1971-1972) the fifth course was established, thus in the first two years the complete first stage of E.G.B. was generally introduced. The sixth course was introduced during 1973-74, and the eighth and final course during 1974-75.

a) Schools and Teaching Units

The concept of Centre which is to be found in the statistics is that "Scholastic establishment" and as such makes no mention of the number of classes/teaching units in each one, which can vary greatly from as few as one up to ten or twenty or more.

To analyse the evolution in education in the ten years between 1970 and 1980 (*) we will use the concept of teaching units although it will be useful at a larger stage to come back to the point of centres available when we come to look at the effects of how the pupils are concentrated.

During the school year 1979-80 the number of school units increased by 49.6% (58,266 units) when compared with the school year 1970-71. Of this increase 25.5% (29,997 units) corresponded to state education and 24% (28,269 units) to private schools and colleges. The progressive increase in the number of units available during these ten years owed as much to the conversion of what up till then had been Elementary Baccalaureate units (during the first few years of implementation of L.G.E.) as to an increase in numbers of pupils educated at this level.

At the same time as an increase in the number of school units there was a decrease in the number of schools. The drop in the number of schools during these ten years can be attributed to the policy of "educational concentration" which had been begun on the early sixties and which reached its peak in the first few year of implementation of the L.G.E. when it was thought that continuing education in schools of restricted size (those of less than eight units) would prove to be a serious obstacle to the extension of the educational reform.

(*) See table III 2

Table III.2 E.G.B. TEACHING UNITS (& PRIMARY)

HEADING	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80
TOTAL NUMBER OF UNITS	117.369	117.859	118.126	149.267	159.922	161.484	166.773	167.968	171.858	175.635
STATE	87.312	94.332	94.545	94.400	99.423	102.016	106.017	109.773	114.347	117.309
NON-STATE	30.057	23.527	23.581	54.867	60.499	59.468	59.756	58.195	57.195	58.326

SOURCE: Spanish Eduction Statistics. INE, 1982.

NOTE: This series refers to Primary Education in 1970-71, to both E.G.B. and Primary (being abolished) in 1971-72, 1972-73, 1973-74 and refers exclusively to E.G.B. from 1974-75 onwards.

During the academic year 1974-75, by which time E.G.B. had been introduced in its entirety, there were a total of 30,720 centres, of which 21,864 belonged to the state education system and 8,856 non state centres (71.2% and 28.8% respectively). Of the non state centres 30% (2,659) receive state subvention.

The progress made in concentrating the pupils in "Integral Centres" (those with a minimum of 8 units) was considered an improvement since it meant that the pupils were concentrated in homogeneous groups.

According to the statistics for 1975 good progress was made:

- 82.5% of the E.G.B. pupils were enrolled in "Complete Centres", whether state of private (shools with a minimum of 8 units).
- 11.1% in Escuelas Graduadas (*) (Incomplete Centres, with from 2 to 7 units)
- 6.4% One teacher schools, co-educational/single sex (Incomplete Centres: 1 teaching unit).

The falling trend in the number of centres levelled out somewhat in later years since, as more and more centres attained the minimum number or more teaching units, then it became less and less possible to further reduce the number of centres).

(*) Grade Schools.

TABLE III.3 SCHOOLS OF GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION

YEAR	COMPLETE CENTRES: (MINIMUM OF 8 TEACHING UNITS)		INCOMPLETE CENTRES: (FROM 2 TO 7 TEACHING UNITS)		SINGLE SEX/CO-ED SCHOOLS (1 TEACHING UNIT)	
	STATE	NON-STATE	STATE	NON-STATE	STATE	NON-STATE
1970-71	45.804	12.729	23.321	21.134	26.850	2.899
1974-75	72.480	49.409	13.613	7.269	13.485	1.146

SOURCE: FIGURES OBTAINED BY THE GENERAL SUB-DIRECTORATE FOR SCHOOLING. FROM THE RECORD CARDS SUBMITTED BY THE PROVINCIAL DELEGATIONS OF THE M.E.C. REFERRING TO THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1974-75.

In the academic year 1979-80 there were 24,832 centres, some 19.2% fewer than in 1974-75. State schools represent 69.4% (17,234 centres) non-state centres the other 30.6% (7,598 centres) of the total number of existing schools. (Source: E.G.B. Statistics. Statistics Section of the Ministry of Educacion and Science. 1975 & 1980).

As can be seen in the following table, 95% of the non-state centres were reliant upon either the Church or private enterprise. 54.8% of these centres received state subvention which represented a considerable increase on 1974-75.

Table III.4 - NON-STATE SCHOOLS OF E.G.B. (ACADEMIC YEAR 1979-80)

BACKER	Number of schools	Percentage
Local Corporations	160	2.11
The Church	2,508	33.00
Private Enterprise	4,725	62.19
Other Backers	205	2.70
T O T A L	7,598	100.00

Source: Statistics on Preschool Education, E.G.B., Special Education and Adult Education. Statistics Section of the M.E.C. 1980.

TABLE III.5 ENROLEMENT IN GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION (AND PRIMARY)

HEADING	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80
PUPILS ENROLLED IN STATE CENTRES	3,929,569	4,182,029	4,460,801	4,945,774	5,361,771	5,473,468	5,544,639	5,579,662	5,590,41	5,606
MALE	2,831,920	2,960,473	2,933,282	3,061,178	3,229,863	3,311,493	3,399,311	3,460,267	3,491,195	3,528
FEMALE	1,488,482	1,552,387	1,542,966	1,613,183	1,701,017	1,757,162	1,806,250	1,840,260	1,860,161	1,883
NON-STATE CENTRES	1,343,438	1,408,086	1,390,316	1,447,995	1,527,946	1,554,331	1,593,061	1,631,034	1,631,034	1,644
MALE	1,097,649	1,221,556	1,527,519	1,131,908	2,161,975	2,145,328	2,099,219	2,099,219	2,099,219	1,078
FEMALE	481,561	541,196	719,022	903,825	1,025,161	1,034,251	1,025,867	1,003,598	1,003,598	982
	616,088	680,360	808,497	980,771	1,106,747	1,127,724	1,119,461	1,095,228	1,095,621	1,096

SOURCE: SPANISH EDUCATION STATISTICS. INE, 1982.

NOTE: THIS SERIES REFERS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION IN 1970-71, TO E.G.B. AND PRIMARY EDUCATION (BEING PHASED OUT) IN 1971-72, 1972-73, 1973-74 AND REFERS EXCLUSIVELY TO E.G.B. FROM 1974-75 ONWARDS.

b) PUPILS AND EDUCATIONAL PLACES AVAILABLE.

In table III.5 we can see the continued increase in the number of pupils undergoing E.G.B. in the ten years between 1970 and 1980.

According to these figures during the academic year 1979-1980, there was an increase of 42.6% (1,677,281 pupils) when compared with the figures for 1970-71.

There are two reasons for the increase as a whole, firstly there was a real increase in the number of children of the corresponding ages undergoing education and secondly it was due to the change in the educational system.

It will also be observed that the upward trend in enrolment for E.G.B. wasmore pronunced in the first few years of the implementation of E.G.B., and tailed off in the later years. This is the logical result of having extended education to practically all of the children in this age group: any increase was due to the natural increase of the population.

Beginning in 1970-71, when the first four courses of what had until then been Primary Education became General Basic Education, the new level gradually began to take over from Elementary Baccalaureate which was steadily done away with in order to make way for a comprehensive educational cycle covering from 6 to 14 years of age.

TABLE III.6 PUPILS ENROLLED IN PRIMARY AND ELEMENTARY BACCALAUREATE

YEAR	PRIMARY EDUCATION	ELEMENTARY BACCALAUREATE	TOTAL
	(1,000 pupils)		
1970-71	3,929.6	1,235.3	5,164.9
1971-72	4,182.0	921.7	5,103.7
1972-73	4,460.8	772.9	5,223.7
1973-74	4,945.8	431.2	5,377.0
1974-75	5,361.7	128.0	5,489.7
1975-76	5,473.5	69.6	5,543.1
1976-77	5,544.6	-	5,544.6

SOURCE: STATISTICS ON PRESCHOOL EDUCATION; GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION AND ADULT EDUCATION. STATISTICS SECTION OF M.E.C. 1977.

For a breakdown by sexes of those pupils attending both state and non-state centres during the ten years in question, see table III.5.

The numerical superiority of those pupils attending Public Centres is due almost exclusively to the fact that it was precisely those schools which were responsible for educating those children from poor suburban or rural backgrounds. We would get an entirely different picture if we were to compare enrolment in complete centres and in

large cities.

In the following table the number of places available in the two types of centres during the academic years 1974-75 and 1979-80 can be seen:

Table III. 7. NUMBER OF PLACES IN E.G.B.

Year	State Centres	Non-State Centres	Total
1974/5	3,617,137	2,326,485	5,943,622
1979/80	4,225,719	2,244,194	6,469,913

Source: Education in Spain. Statistics Section of the M.E.C. 1975 & 80.

According to these figures during the academic year 1974/5, 60% of all educational places corresponded to state centres and 39% to non-state centres. In the academic year 1979/80, the ratio changed with 65% of existing places corresponding to State centres and 35% to non-state centres.

At the end of the decade under analysis, in the academic year 1979/80 the ratio between the number of existing places and the number of teaching units was 37 to 1 for the total number of existing centres; that is, 36 to 1 in State centres and 38 to 1 in non-state centres. As regards the total number of pupils per teaching unit the figures were: to the total number of

existing centres 31.9 pupils per unit, that is 30.1 in the State centres and 35.6 to 1 in the non-state centres. (Source E.G.B. Statistics. Statistics Section of the M.E.C. 1980).

c) NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDERGOING EDUCATION

In the years immediately prior to the publication of the L.G.E. the idea of an effective compulsory education had already begun to make itself felt and this was on the increase: already 90% of the 6 to 13 age group were undergoing education. During the academic year 1970/71 there was a noticeable increase when the proportion reached 96%. In the course of the years following the progressive implementation of E.G.B., the ratio improved yet again to the stage where in the academic year 1974/75 it stood at almost 100%.

The number of children undergoing E.G.B. during the academic year 1974/75 can be seen in table III.8. The first point to note in these figures is that there would appear to have been 245,336 more pupils studying E.G.B. than was physically possible given the school population for that age group at the time. The reason for this apparent anomaly is threefold:

1. The figures for the school population in 1974 were not exact, the calculations being based on the 1970 census adjusted in accordance with the death rate.

2. In spite of the legal provisions prohibiting pupils from

TABLE III.8 SCHOOLING FIGURES IN EGB

COURSE	PUPILS	POPULATION	
FIRST	783,528	629,307	124.51
SECOND	721,187	745,785	111.68
THIRD	712,294	640,408	111.23
FOURTH	727,707	650,237	111.91
FIFTH	747,924	666,936	112.14
SIXTH	665,542	641,886	103.69
SEVENTH	541,908	627,334	86.38
EIGTHT	461,681	614,542	75.13
TOTAL	5,361,771	5,116,435	104.80

SOURCE: EDUCATION IN SPAIN. STATISTICS SECTION OF M.E.C. STATISTICS FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1974-75

repeating a course, this did in fact, occur, hence pupils older than the stipulated age of 13-14 years were to be found undergoing E.G.B.

3. However, the primary course would appear to have been that in certain rural areas where there were no Pre-schools centres but more than enough E.G.B. places, then some Pre-school level pupils were included in the first course of E.G.B.

The most important point to note, however, is that by 1975 E.G.B. had been extended to reach almost all the pupils in the 6 to 13 age group, with only 25,000 children of this age not undergoing schooling for various reasons. Diverse reasons were connected with the massive influx of population into the suburban areas of the major cities, the dispersed nature of the rural population, absenteeism, etc. One of the factors which caused this problem was the population movements within Spain at the time.

In the academic year 1979/80 (see table III.9), the figures show that just as in previous years for all practical purposes, an almost total level of education was achieved. This, of course, does not mean to say that there were not real problems in different places from time to time.

Once again the figures reveal that in practically all courses

of E.G.B. at that time the percentage of the population under going E.G.B. at that time exceeded 100%. One of the most important reasons for this anomaly was the inclusion of children who were in fact under six or over thirteen but who were considered to be within the group covered by compulsory education. The appearance of figures showing education levels of more than 10%% is often to be found in those countries where maximum education levels have been reached.

d) Concentration of Pupils in County or Regional Schools and in Boarding Schools.

The principal objective of concentrating the pupils in specific centres can be summed up in the following way:

1. To facilitate the compulsory education of those pupils who live in areas where the population is either sparse or widely scattered.

2. To abolish a large number of schools were the ratio of students per teacher was too low, thus cutting costs and considerably improving the educational level of the centres.

The presence of children of mixed E.G.B. levels had a distinctly negative effect on the teaching and given the stated aim of the L.G.E. of achieving equality of opportunity for all

TABLE III.9 SCHOOLING FIGURES IN EGB

COURSE	PUPILS	POPULATION	ENROLMENT RATIO
FIRST	754,057	631,644	119.38
SECOND	723,169	635,397	113.81
THIRD	710,917	642,601	110.63
FOURTH	706,752	640,316	110.37
FIFTH	713,959	657,350	108.61
SIXTH:			
NON-REPEATERS	640,844	654,052	97.98
REPEATERS	116,405		
SEVENTH:			
NON-REPEATERS	586,388	655,745	107.17
REPEATERS	81,204		
EIGHTH:			
NON-REPEATERS	514,717	657,042	90.70
REPEATERS	58,438		
TOTAL	5,606,850	5,174,147	108.36

Source: La Educación en España, INE, 1979-80

this was inadmisible. This detrimental effect was even more severe in the second stage of E.G.B.

The Regional or County Schools situated in the regional capitals were equipped with dining rooms and school transport for taking the pupils to and from school every day. These schools were seen as being the best alternative for those E.G.B. pupils living in small centres of population, and who up to that time had attended small co-ed/single sex or Escuelas Graduadas whose size made their continuing existence untenable. The concept of concentrating these pupils in regional centres meant improving the standards of education, and being able to do away with those small schools of often doubtful efficiency.

In those areas where the population is widely scattered due to geographical reasons and the daily transport of the pupils is impossible, the centres are equipped with Boarding facilities: these are the Boarding Schools.

The policy of concentrating the pupils in these centres was the mainstay of rural education policy: it reached its peak in the first few years of implementation of the L.G.E. In 1973, it came to a standstill but later continued with greater vigour under the auspices of the Special Investment Programme agreed in the Moncloa Agreement. (Autumn 1977).

According to the figures supplied by the Education Service of

the Directorate General for E.G.B. for 1974/75 the number of pupils who were taken to and from school was 298,164 a further 38,214 pupils attending Boarding Schools.

e) Schooling Deficiencies

The passing of a law which called for a basic education which was to last eight years and was to be both "compulsory and the same to all" created an ever increasing demand for E.G.B. places and lead to emergency measures being taken to deal with the demand.

In the academic year 1975/6, the number of pupils who were suffering from these deficiencies in their education was calculated as some 524,000 (Figures provided by the Education Service of the Directorate General for E.G.B., Table III.10).

When considering the deficient conditions of education as regards E.G.B. it is vital to bear in mind the difference between rural areas and urban ones.

During 1975/6 in rural areas there were srill more than 10,000, one teacher school thus affecting 6.4% of the school population.

Those deficiencies which are to be found in the rural areas affect those provinces away from the coast which are less developed and/or very mountainous. Another important factor as regards educational deficiencies is the density of population.

In urban areas the deficiencies seem to arise from the excessive demand for school places (fundamentally in the State sector) in relation to the possibilities the centres have to offer.

The urban areas which are most affected by the educational deficiencies are those which hace undergone large increases in their levels of population.

TABLE III.10 SCHOLASTIC DEFICIENCIES IN E.G.B. (1975-76)

TYPE OF ANOMALY OR DEFICIENCY	Nr. of Pupils Affected
Pupils being taught in classrooms which have been programmed for demolition	201,010
Pupils undergoing E.G.B. in 2 shifts	52,923
Pupils undergoing E.G.B. in classrooms in bad conditions in "complete centres".	97,289
Pupils undergoing E.G.B. in classrooms in bad conditions in "incomplete centres",	34,522
Pupils being taught in classrooms containing more than 40 pupils.	36,049
Pupils being taught in Co-ed/Single sex Schools with low enrolment the concentration of whom is considered urgent.	76,537
TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	499,537
25,000 pupils at present not being taught	25,000
TOTAL	524,330

SOURCE: Directorate General for Basic Education. Schooling Service.

The situation of E.G.B. at the end of 1976-77 can be summed up in these three points:

- No physical shortage of places except in a few isolated cases, on a very local level.
- Functional shortage of places calculated at around 803,200.
- Unequal distribution of this shortage in the different provinces.

The Moncloa Agreements (October 1977) set out in a section dealing with Educational Policy the objectives which this policy should aim at during 1978 (2).

The objectives established for General Basic Education were: "Education in adequate conditions for all of the population between six and thirteen years of age and all pupils studying at this level, whether it is due to slowness or their repeating a year".

Some of the stated aims of this policy were:

- To make up the functional shortfall in the number of places required (it should be remembered that this is not a physical lack of places since there are many more places available than children of school age to fill them) and to make available to all a school place of the same standard.

- To distribute fairly all available resources, and to equip all E.G.B. centres uniformly, even to the extent of giving preference to regions, provinces, towns and centres which have hitherto been at a disadvantage.

- To make E.G.B. effectively free of charge, by abolishing those payments known as "Permanencias" and compensating teachers by means of an additional sum to be added to their wages (in force since the start of the academic year 1978-79) and by sufficiently subsidizing the non-state centres.

- Effective implementation of equality of opportunities, by correcting the still all too obvious inequalities due not to the educational system itself, but rather to geographical factors (rural/urban areas, suburbs/city...), lack of pre-school education; lack of intellectual stimuli or motivation in certain areas, communities, families ..., the causes then are complex and some would require solutions which are outwith the scope of academic education.

- To carry out a policy which will satisfy the teachers' demand.

1.2.2. The Situation at Present.

Finally in order to complete this general appraisal of General Basic Education since its inception with the General Education Act, let us examine the data dealing with the academic year 1982-83.

TABLE III.11

SCHOOLS CLASSIFIED BY BACKING AND NUMBER OF E.G.B. UNITS, 1982 - 1983

INTERVALS OF E.G.B. UNITS	PUBLIC ED.	PRIVATE ED.	TOTAL
1 UNIT	4418	291	4709
2 UNITS	1559	166	1725
3 UNITS	606	155	761
4 UNITS	459	91	550
5 UNITS	296	74	370
6 UNITS	223	62	285
7 UNITS	187	45	232
8 UNITS	1202	1855	3057
FROM 9 TO 12 UNITS	1199	632	1831
" 13 " 16 "	1787	955	2742
" 17 " 24 "	1914	564	2478
" 25 " 32 "	511	149	660
MORE THAN 32 UNITS	153	70	223
Total NUMBER OF CENTRES	14514	5109	19623

SOURCE: STATISTICS ON E.G.B. STATITICS DEPARTMENT OF THE M.E.C., 1984

a) Schools, teaching units and places

During the 1982-83 academic year the number of centres continued to decrease as a result of the policy of concentration, which in the last six years has meant the closure of some four thousand centres.

In Spain in 1982-83 there were still 4,709 one-teacher schools, belonging to the state; and some 1,725 two-teacher schools, 90% of which belonged to the state. (See table III.11).

The policy of academic concentration has meant that those schools referred to as mixed or unitary (one-teacher schools) have gradually been disappearing. This policy and the increased use of busing has made possible the steady erradication of a host of mainly rural schools where children of all ages were taught by one teacher. These have been replaced by schools where the children are graded by age.

Over the last six years this erradication of centres has meant the disappearance of 800 schools a year on average; however in the academic year 1981-82 this figure dropped to 615 and in 1983 dropped even further to 171 which would appear to indicate that the policy of concentration is itself being dropped.

There can be no doubt that the total abolition of schools with only one or two teachers could be a mistake since it is necessary to compare the advantages to be gained with the negative factors involved as regards the distance to be covered or the roughness of the terrain etc.

The decrease in the number of centres has not in fact meant any cutback in the educational capacity since both the number of places and the number of teaching posts have continued to rise.

In table III.12 we can see the number of teaching units which exist in both state and non-state centres.

90.4% of all private E.G.B. centres receive some form of subsidy from the State. In the centres owned by the Catholic church the E.G.B. posts are subsidized to the tune of 98.3%, this percentage being higher than that received in the private enterprise centres which get 85.5%.

The average number of school places per teaching unit is 32.2 in the state sector and 38.6 in the private sector. (see table III.13).

The figures on the use of classrooms (see table III.13) show that 14% of E.G.B. places are empty. The progressive fall in the birth rate, 19.47 per 1,000 in 1974 dropping to 13.44 per 1,000 in 1982 would suggest that educational planning should be carefully considered.

TABLE III.12 TEACHING UNITS PER BACKER 1982-83

BACKER	TEACHING UNITS	
	PRESCHOOL EDUCATION	E.G.B.
TOTAL Nr. OF UNITS	38,160	180,618
DISTRIBUTION AS PERCENTAGE	100.0	100.0
PUBLIC	59.1	67.1
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE	57.2	66.7
OTHER MINISTRIES	1.0	0.3
LOCAL CORPORATIONS	0.6	0.4
OTHER PUBLIC ENTITIES	0.3	0.2
PRIVATE	40.9	32.4
PRIVATE ENTERPRISE	25.9	17.6
THE CATHOLIC CHURCH	12.8	13.4
OTHER BACKERS	2.2	1.4

SOURCE: Preschool Education, E.G.B. and Adult Education. Statistical Studies Section of the M.E.C., 1984

TABLE III.13

TEACHING UNITS AND RATIO OF CLASSROOM UTILIZATION CLASSIFIED BY BACKING .-

1982 - 83

HEADING	PUBLIC EDUCATION	PRIVATE EDUCATION	T O T A L
TOTAL NUMBER OF UNITS	128,551	60,266	188,817
TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	3,547,873	2,050,065	5,597,938
NUMBER OF SCHOOL PLACES	4,306,381	2,220,291	6,526,672
RATIO OF UTILIZATION TO PLACES	.82	.92	.86

SOURCE: STATISTICS FOR E.G.B., STATISTICAL STUDIES SECTION OF M.E.C., (1984)

b) Pupils and ratio of Education

In the academic year 1982-83, 5,633,518 pupils underwent E.G.B. The following table shows the distribution of pupils by sex and type of centres:

TABLE III.14

TYPE OF CENTRE AND ATTENDANCE BY SEX

	PUBLIC STATE CENTRES		PRIVATE CENTRES		TOTAL	
	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%
BOYS	1,919,172	53.6	977,755	47.7	2,896,927	51.4
GIRLS	1,663,266	46.4	1,073,325	52.3	2,736,591	48.6
TOTAL	3,582,438	100	2,051,080	100	5,633,518	100

SOURCE: Preschool Ed., E.G.B. Special and Adult Education. Statistical Studies Section of the M.E.C., 1984.

The number of pupils undergoing education is an important factor to consider when evaluating the standard of teaching. (See table IV.15).

TABLE III.15 RATIO OF PUPILS/TEACHING UNITS AND COMPLEMENTARY SERVICES ACCORDING TO BACKING 1982-83

HEADINGS	STATE EDUCATION	PRIVATE EDUCATION	TOTAL
PUPILS	3,582,438	2,051,080	5,633,518
UNITS	123,163	57,760	180,923
PUPIL/UNIT	29.09	35.51	31.14
RESIDENTIAL FACILITIES			
PLACES	39,260	58,520	97,780
USERS	31,469	31,316	62,785
PLACES/USERS	80.16	53.51	64.21
SCHOOL DINING FACILITIES			
PLACES	501,889	403,970	905,859
USERS	476,758	352,339	829,097
PLACES/USERS	94.99	87.22	91.53
No. OF PUPILS BUSED AS AN AVERAGE	393,370	304,571	697,941

SOURCE: E.G.B. STATISTICS. STATISTICAL STUDIES SECTION OF THE M.E.E. 1984.

As regards the ratio of pupils undergoing E.G.B. (See table III.16) it is still possible to observe the previously mentioned anomaly of figures which appear to show ratios of over 100% for every age group; there can be no doubt that there exist mistakes in the two variables upon which these figures are based: the number of pupils enrolled and the number of Spanish children in those age groups.

These mistakes not withstanding, it does seem certain that practically all children in these age groups were undergoing E.G.B. This can be deduced from the fact that actual numbers of pupils remain virtually stable with only minor changes from one year to the next. These numbers always appear to be higher than the figures provided by the National Statistics Unit for the estimated population of the country.

c) The Complementary Services.

The complementary school services help towards raising the standard of education and also to eliminate or reduce to some extent the inequalities between pupils be they caused by geographical, social or economic reasons.

During the school year 1982-83 there were 97,780 residential places for the use of the pupils: 40% belonged to the public sector and 60% to the private one. In total 64% were occupied

that is, 80% if the public places and 54% of the private ones. For the last few years there has been a downward trend as regards the number of residential facilities available.

As regards school dining facilities there were 905,859 places available: 55% in public centers and 45% in the private. Taken as a whole the ratio of utilization was 92%, that is, 95% in the public sector and 87% in the private. In comparison with 1981-92 and increase of 1% can be observed and this gentle increase has continued during the last few years.

TABLE III.16 RATIO OF SCHOOLING BY AGE AND SEX

ACADEMIC YEAR 1982-83

SEX AND AGES	POPULATION	PUPILS	RATIO
BOYS 6 YEARS	342,892	352,111	102.69
7 "	337,119	355,421	105.43
8 "	340,845	350,230	102.75
9 "	332,678	345,654	103.90
10 "	333,118	343,444	103.10
11 "	331,732	342,852	103.35
12 "	329,302	336,744	102.26
13 "	328,719	325,756	99.10
GIRLS 6 YEARS	323,121	334,248	103.44
7 "	317,834	337,135	106.07
8 "	326,390	333,733	102.25
9 "	318,026	328,853	103.40
10 "	317,202	328,040	103.42
11 "	316,821	324,605	102.46
12 "	313,670	320,891	102.30
13 "	313,675	311,191	99.21
Total 6 YEARS	666,013	686,359	103.05
7 "	645,953	692,556	105.74
8 "	667,235	683,963	102.51
9 "	650,704	674,507	103.66
10 "	650,320	671,484	103.25
11 "	648,553	667,457	102.91
12 "	642,972	657,635	102.28
13 "	642,394	636,947	99.15

SOURCE: E.G.B. STATISTICAL STUDIES SECTION OF THE M.E.E. 1984.

On average 697,941 pupils used school transport:56% of whom attended public centers and 44% private ones. (Source E.G.B. Statistics. Statistics Section of the M.E.E. 1984).

1. 3 E.G.B. CENTRES: FACILITIES AND ORGANIZATION, E.G.B. TEACHING STAFF.

1.3.1 Facilities: The School Buildings.

The General Education Act set out the characteristics the new educational centres were to have and this was fundamentally for educational reasons, for example in order to introduce the principles of continuous advance, personalized education, organizational flexibility, etc...

The construction of new schoolbuildings after the implement ation of the Act was to follow three separate "Programs" which were to be very different in their founding concepts.

- Program of educational needs prepared for the E.G.B. project in 1971: This plan was considered the most advanced from an educational point of view. Among the characteristics of the schools to be built following this program it is worth nothing:

These buildings were to represent a complete break with the classic school building.

These centres were to be adapted to a specific type of education.

The space available was to be diversified.

These centres were to break with the idea that each group of pupils would always occupy the same space.

There were to be more classrooms than number of courses.

However in practice this program was severely limited by educationsl reality. The characteristics of any educational building must be based on the kind of schooling to be carried out and at that time in Spain education followed very traditional lines: homogeneous grouping and unidimensional, frontal teaching.

The new buildings were used for syllabuses for which they had not been designed, much to the discomfort of both teachers and pupils.

It was thus decided to "reconvert" them to more traditional lines.

- Programs of educational necessities set out in the E.G.B. projects in 1973 and 1975.

These programs were based on the results of the previous plan and their main characteristics were the following:

- With regard to the 1971 program there was to be a return to more traditional solutions which were to be more in keeping with the educational reality of the country.

- With regard to the 1972 program more use to be made of the space available.

- The number of square metres of space alloted to each pupil was to be reduced. Certain "new" spaces, such as tutors'rooms were to be maintained.

A study carried out by the Inspectorate for Basic Education in 1979 in order to assess E.G.B. Centres while examining "the characteristics and physical conditions in the centres and their equipment" disclosed the following facts: (3)

In general the Inspectors were able to give a very favourable appaisal of the centres in this respect, the average rating being around 2.8 out of 4. However it must be noted that a lower average. 2.2 was recorded in the section dealing eith equipment, section 1.7. Thus it may be concluded that according to the Inspectors, in general, the E.G.B. centres had installations of an acceptable standard although more and better equipmente needed to be provided. (School furniture not included).

If we analyse the Inspector's report by sectors some interesting points are revealed: For example the report says that non-state Centres were in general better off in terms of installation and equipment in comparison with state centres. The low grades awarded gy the Inspectors with regard to "other installations" and "equipment" (2.05 & 1.9 respectively) in state schools

compared unfavourably with the grades awarded to the non-state centres. In fact, the private centres even managed to achieve an average of 3 on other items. The differences were not so significant in those centres with around 16 units althogh those centres with more tan 16 units did appear to enjoy a slight advantage as regards installations.

1.3.2 Organization and Administration of Educational Centres.

The new educational theories put forward in the Education Act were reflected in the internal structure and organization of the centres and in the greater emphasis which was to be place on the connection between the centre and its social environment.

The bases for the organization and coordination between the governing bodies of the centres and the Parents' Associations at all levels was taken into account. (Article 57.2 of the Act).

The Committee for Assesing the Education Act (Septimber 1976) revealed that only very small number of centres had managed to attain a truly participative form of organization, in which the teachers the parents and the pupils themselves had a suitable channel through which they could have a say in the running of the centre. The appointment of "tutors" "coordinators" and "head of departments" were in many cases mere formalities, a pretence for the purposes of inspections.

The following observations were taken from the report on th Basic Education Inspection, the object of which was to provide information on the functioning of the Spanish education system.

- The functioning of the Collegiate Bodies: in 50% of the centres the Board of Directors has not yet been constituted, however in the other 50% where this has been done these Boards are functioning correctly.

- Staff meetings: are held with sufficient regularity (this occurs more frequently in Public Centres than in Private ones) however the valoration of their operative capacity is less favourable.

- The Financial Committees: operate well in the Public Centres while in the private Centres these do not exist in 80% of the cases.

- Teaching Departments: it depends on the area as to whether these departments have or have not been created, thus in 60% of the centres both Language an Mathematics Departments have been created, while a Social Science Department is only to be found in 55%. The most significant differences are found in connection with the size of the centres concerned (those centres with more than 16 units tend to have created more departments). The question of whether a centre belongs to the Public or the Private sector is unimportant the relative percentages being the same.

However, those Departments which have been constituted do not meet with sufficien frequency.

- Guidance Departments: The results in this area are certainly not brillant, only 6% of all centres have qualified guidance Staff. In this area there are notable differences between the Public and the Private sectors: in state centres 1.7% have a guidance staff, 2.6% employ a specialist and 68% are completely without any counsellors; in the Private Sector these percentages are 17.1%, 10.2% and 34.7% respectively.

The teaching guidelines for E.G.B. in keeping with the principles of the Act point out the need to make grouping of pupils more flexible. They propose the creation of 4 work modes: large group, medium-size group, conversation group and individual working.

In order to complement this innovation in school grouping, the idea of a "teaching space" in keeping with the flexible nature of pupil grouping was established: see the previously mentioned school building program of 1971.

The result, in practical terms as regards education was concerned, were not really positive even though there were some real attempts at innovation.

The Assessment Committee of the L.G.E. gave these reasons for explaning why it had not been more generally introduced:

. The lack of definite information and the lack of organization of teachers.

. Lack of suitable materials/aids.

. Maintaining the rigid organization of E.G.B. in one year courses.

. The existence of large numbers of teachers who were in favour of more conservative solutions.

The General Education Act deals with the subject of E.G.B. school management in the following terms:

- Temporary management carried out by one of the teachers employed in the Centre.

- Participation by the director of the centre in the teaching activities.

- Turning the job of management into a proffesion in its own right. However in a manner different to how this was envisage in the Primary Education Act since it is intended as a means by which E.G.B. teachers who to run

an E.G.B. could do so after specialization.

The Ministerial Order 2655/1974 of the 30th of August governs the admnistration of National E.G.B. schools following the guidelins laid down in the Educational Act.

According to assessment carried out by the E.G.B. inspection board, in general terms the administration of the E.G.B. centres is being carried out efficently.

1.3.3. GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION TEACHERS

a) Statistics on E.G.B. Teachers

Table III.17 shows the developments that occurred between 1971 and 1980 as regards the number of teachers teaching E.G.B.

Analysis of these statistics lead us to these conclusions:

- During 1971/2 there were a total of 139,610 E.G.B teachers of whom 67.7% belonged to State centres and 32.3% to non-state centres.

- During 1974/5 the teaching staff consisted of 183,844 teachers, 56.9% were employed in State schools and 43.1% in non-state centres.

- In 1979/80 the number rose to 205,550 teachers, 62.6% employed by State schools and 37.4% by private centres.

- These figures show that between 1971/72 and 1974/5 there was an increase of 44,222 teachers (31.6%)

- This figure can be broken down to show that in the public section there was a 22.5% increase while in the private section during the same period, there was an increase of 77.3%.

Table III.17 TEACHERS OF GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION (AND PRIMARY)

Heading	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80
Teachers	-	139,616	155,453	170,485	183,844	198,658	197,706	202,988	205,960	250,550
In State Centres	-	94,523	94,997	97,422	104,517	113,975	115,938	122,797	127,314	128,718
Men	-	-	-	42,819	46,486	51,783	52,684	56,036	57,884	58,386
Women	-	-	-	54,603	58,031	62,192	63,254	66,761	69,430	70,332
In Non-State Centres	-	45,096	60,456	73,063	79,327	84,638	81,768	80,191	78,646	76,832
Men	-	-	-	28,274	30,887	32,436	31,463	29,933	29,158	29,297
Women	-	-	-	44,889	48,440	52,247	50,305	50,258	49,488	47,535

Source: Spanish Education Statistics INE 1982

NOTE: This series refers to Primary Education in 1970/71, to E.G.B. and Primary (Being Phased Out) in 1971/72, 1972/73, 1973/74 and to E.G.B. only from 1974/75 Onward.

- However, if we then go to compare the figures for 1979/80 with those for 1974-75 the situation changed dramatically.

The figures reveal an overall increase of 11.8% (21,700 teachers). In the State Centres there was an increase of 23.1% while in the non-state centres there was a drop of 3.1% in the number of teachers.

According to more up to date figures supplied by the Statistical Studies Section of the M.E.C. in the academic year 1982/3 there was a total of 190,926 E.G.B. teachers of whom 65% were employed by the State and 35% by the private sector.

b) The Teaching Staff: Qualifications and Specialization

There can be no doubt that in all the factors that plan a part in ensuring a high standard of education, the question of the teaching staff is paramount.

In theory any upgrading in the level of qualifications and diplomas necessary to teach E.G.B. should inevitably bring about an improvement in the standard of education.

In practice, however, in relation between the qualificaitons held by a teacher and the standard of education there is a series of factors which contradict this conclusion. We might mention, for example:

* In order to take full advantage of a highly qualified teaching staff the question of distribution has to follow rational criteria. This is to say that in order for the academic qualifications of the teaching staff to have a beneficial effect on the standard of education it is vital that the organization and distribution os said staff be carried out in a way which is consistent with the needs of the centre in question.

* The degree of dissatisfaction among E.G.B. teachers caused by low salaries, the lack of professional status, the discrimination in favour of teachers of other levels, all of this is felt most sharply by the more highly qualified and thus more ambitious teachers.

Together with certain other factors these two points might help to explain the lack of correlation between the real improvement in the academic level of the teachers and the raising of educational standards.

The period of teacher training should be complemented by a system of ongoing improvement of teachers so that the needs of the educational system are always in line with the teacher training.

This is even more important when, as has happened in Spain, the teachers in question have undergone very varying teacher training programs. Aware of this factthe educational administrators

have undertaken an ambitious program of improvement in teacher training which should undoubtedly prove most beneficial.

The efforts of the administrators and the E.G.B. teachers themselves have not unfortunately had the desire effect upon the standard of E.G.B. teaching in practice and this is due fundamentally to the fact that the organization of the centres has not allowed the teachers to put into practice, and to develop those skills they have learned while obtaining their qualifications.

If we now accept that one of most influential factors as regards good teaching is the adjustment of each teachers's speciality to what he has to teach, let us now turn our attention to this aspect of E.G.B. teaching in Spain at present.

In the Advanced Cycle of E.G.B. (formerly known as E.G.B. Stage 2) the different "areas" and subjects are being taught by teachers who are specialists.

During 1982-83 there were 7,455 E.G.B. Advanced Cycle teachers, 44,188 of these were employed in the public sector, 29,356 in the private one and 73,544 in total.

On examination of tables III.18 and 19 we see that there is a surplus os specialized teachers among those who teach the Advanced Cycle but that not all teachers at this level have the required speciality.

Table III.18 Specialized E.G.B. Advanced Cycle Teachers and Total Number of Teachers of this Level.

	PUBLIC SECTOR		PRIVATE SECTOR		TOTAL	
	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%
SPECIALIZED TEACHERS IN THE ADVANCED CYCLE	85,562	100.0	32,159	100.0	11,721	100.0
TEACHERS WHO TEACH THIS LEVEL	44,188	51,6	29,356	91,3	73,544	62.5
DIFFERENCE	41,374	48.4	2,803	8.7	44,177	37.5

SOURCE: STATISTICS. STATISTICAL STUDIES SECTION OF THE M.E.C.,1984

Thus, there is a surplus of 44,177 teachers who although they have some specialization in the Advanced Cycle of E.G.B. are not teaching this level at present time; therefore, these teachers account for 37.5% of the total number of specialized teachers. In the public sector this surplus is proportionally greater, 41,374 teachers (84.4%) than in the non-state schools, 2,803 teachers, (8.7%).

Table III.19 ADVANCED CYCLE OF E.G.B.: SPECIALIZED TEACHERS TEACHING THEIR SPECIALITY / TOTAL NUMBER OF ADVANCED CYCLE TEACHERS.

	PUBLIC SECTOR		PRIVATE SECTOR		TOTAL	
	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%
ADVANCE CYCLE TEACHERS	44,188	100.0	29,356	100.0	73,544	100.0
SPECIALIZED TEACHERS WHO TEACH THEIR OWN SPECIALITY	31,478	71.2	19,288	65.7	50,766	69.0
DIFFERENCE	12,710	28.8	10,068	34.3	22,778	31.0

SOURCE: E.G.B. STATISTICS . STATISTICAL STUDIES DEPARTMENT OF THE M.E.C., 1984.

In connection with the surplus of specialist teachers as compared with the total number of teachers of this level the table reveals another aspect of the question: of the total number of teachers only 69% are specialists in a given subject thus the other 22,777 teachers (31%) are not specialists in any subject; in the public sector the situation is better than in the private, the percentages being 28.8% and 34.3% respectively as regards un-specialized teachers who are teaching a given subject. If we compare

the calculated surplus of teachers with the apparent lack shown in the table then it is obvious that there is a deficient distribution of teachers among the different E.G.B. cycles or levels since even though there are enough specialized Advanced Cycle E.G.B. teachers a large percentage of those involved in teaching this level do not have the required speciality.

1.4. APPROACH TO AND PLANNING OF EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES.

The General Education Act introduced some new thoughts on the approach to, and planning of the educational activities with regard to E.G.B.

However, in practice the objectives to be reached through and in depth renovation of the educational activities proved to be to some extent unattainable. According to the L.G.E. Assessment Committee the reasons for this failure were:

1) It was not possible to incorporate all the teachers in the remodelling of programs and study plans not through any lack of interest upon their part but simply because no practical formulas were put forward which would have allowed the teachers to prepare worthwhile programs and plans.

2) E.G.B. teachers at this level had no time during teaching hours to prepare teaching plans and programs of activities.

3) Many teachers were the prisioners of old habits; for example, they tended to overrate the book as a teaching aid.

4) There were not enough teachers specialized.

5) The way in which the centres were organized did not permit, or ar least did not encourage the formation of the working groups necessary to prepare the plans and programs of acrivities of each centre in a unified way.

In 1980, ten years after the implementation of E.G.B. in schools the State Office for Basic Education produced its "Base Document" for the renewal of E.G.B. programs which made the following points:

The Educational Guidelines which were published in 1970 contained certain flaws that have made themselves apparent when put into practice notwithstanding the basic excellence of their underlying aims. Three of these flaws were:

a) The fact that they were merely indicative was hardly in keeping with the very real needs of all Spanish children to acquire at least the rudiments of culture.

b) The way in which the objectives and contents were laid out in such wide and general terms made it impossible to interpret what the real objectives of learning were and

also to distinguish between what was supposed to be "indispensable" and what was merely "desirable".

c) The lack of means of support for the teacher in developing teaching activities which were to be innovative in nature.

Thus it was that the experience attained during the period of implementation of the Educational Guidelines, together with transformation suffered by the country as a whole and the advances made in science and education were to bring about a review of school organization in order to bring it into line with new conditions and necessities. Thus began a new period of educational renewal.

1.4.1. The structuring of E.G.B. in Cycles

A royal decree in January 1981 established the new format of E.G.B. which was to consist of three phases: Preliminary, Intermediate and Advanced.

By means of this arrangement it was hoped to guarantee all Spanish children a homogeneous cultural basis which could be widened and diversified in keeping with the characteristics of each region or nationality which under the new Constitution would be granted control over education, the extent of the responsabilities of each area being established in their respective Autonomy Statutes.

What had until then been called E.G.B. Stage 1 was for the purposes of syllabuses, assessment and advancement of pupuls to be included in the following cycles:

a) Initial Cycle, to cover the first and second courses of E.G.B.

b) Intermediate Cycle, to cover the third, fourth and fifth courses of E.G.B.

The second stage of E.G.B. was to be called the Advanced Cycle and was to cover sixth, seventh and eight courses.

In order to obtain the "Graduado Escolar" diploma the pupil would have to complete all three cycles.

1.4.2. Structure of the "Renewed Syllabuses"

For each cycle and where necessary for each course certain "Basic Reference Levels" were established that every pupil had to reach before being allowed into the next or where applicable, leave school. This overcame any risk of vagueness in the syllabuses and made it easier to control the performance of not only pupils and staff but also of the centres and the educational system itself.

The grouping of each cycle was to be flexible and therefore a pupil would not "automatically" move up into the next course. The idea behind this was that the pupil would reach the basic reference level of any given cycle even if it was necessary to take another year in order to do so and thus it was hoped the pupil would

be bound to get more out of the following cycle. Compulsory education was to last up to the age of 13 and so it was to be possible to prepare specific programs of "enrichment" and "development" for the brighter pupils catering for their individual characteristics.

The structure of the Renewed Syllabuses allowed the educational process to be adapted to the characteristics of the different Spanish regions as well as incorporating any feature which would add to the studies and school activities.

Special attention was paid to combining the basic education which is the same for all Spanish children, this being guaranteed by the homogenity of school certificates etc., with the encouragement of the cultural values of each region. To this end, the Basic Reference Levels which list the common objectives were intended to be complemented with specific objectives relevant to the area where the school was located.

In order to give a consistent idea of the different learning areas, the new syllabus were to be structured like this:

a) Topic groups:

The subjects to be studied were grouped around "topic groups" which cover various interconnected "work topics". This enabled one to have a systemized global view of the learning area and at the same time gave meaning to the objectives or basic reference levels which might otherwise have appeared to be unconnected.

b) Work Topics:

The "Topic Groups" were further subdivided into so-called "Work Topics" which due to their very nature were to be dealt with individually while at the same time continuing to form a whole within the "Topic Group".

c) Basic Reference Levels:

Included in each "Work Topic" they represented compulsory objectives to be reached.

These basic reference levels took in all aspects of human behaviour. Thus they may be understood as the combination of those attitudes, skills, habits, work, techniques, forms of knowledge and assimilated values which the pupil was expected to have taken in by the end of a given course or cycle.

d) Activities:

A group of actions or experiences which were considered to be suitable in order to achieve the proposed objectives. These activities merely suggested and were not intended to be made compulsory.

1. 4.3. Initial and Intermediate Cycles

The Royal Decree in 1981 established the minimum educational contents for the Initial Cycle which had previously been tried out and discussed during two school years. (Ministerial Order of January, 1981 from the Ministry of Education and Science).

The new programs (Basic Reference Levels) had as their prime objective the idea of giving the teacher a point of reference which would permit him to assess more precisely the pupils' situation in connection with what we call the basic command of the different areas. In short the idea was to ensure that those pupils who were about to begin the third course of E.G.B. had acquired the necessary techniques and had reached the objectives necessary for them to undertake the next course profitably.

For those pupils who began compulsory education without having undergone Preschool Education the E.G.B. centres were to run specific programs of adaptation and preparation in those aspects of language, physical development and logical thinking which would allow them then to undergo Initial Cycle teaching profitably.

Even though the education/teaching at this stage was to be conceived as a whole, the objectives were to continue to be grouped in large "learning areas" for the following reasons:

* The teaching staff would thus be in possession of a highly detailed analysis of every one of the educational sections together with their specific methodologies; this would allow the teachers to carry out an in-depth analysis of each of these areas.

* The teaching staff would thus be helped in the task of preparing comprehensive units adapted to the characteristics of the pupils in each class.

It would thus be possible to express in concrete terms the objectives, contents and methodology of every area in order to facilitate the development of adaptation programs for those pupils who needed complementary education in certain aspects.

The Ministry of Education considered that education should be all-embracing but that it should be the teacher's job to organise the schooling bearing in mind who his pupils were, what their characteristics were and how grown up they were.

Learning Areas

* Spanish language (Castillian)
  Topic Groups : Oral comprehension and Expression-Reading-Writing.

* Mathematics
  Topic Groups: Sets-Correspondence-Measurement-Operations-Numbers-Geometry-Topology.

* Social and Material Experience

  Topic Groups: Self-Knowledge-Awareness of/Integration in Enviroment.

* Artistic Education

  Topic Groups: Free expression of the material world-sketching. Concept of Shape-Representation through consecutive images.

* Musical Education

  Topic Groups: Making contact with objects-corporal Expression Space-Time.

* Social and Inter-Personal Behaviour

  Topic Groups: Affirmation of Self-Integration in the Physical/Social Environment-Preparation for Sexual Education-Values and Modes of Behaviour.

Furthermore, without seeking to prejudice the all-embracing nature of the teaching a suggested timetable was proposed for the teacher:

TABLE III.20 SYLLABUS FOR THE INITIAL CYCLE

A R E A	WEEKLY TEACHING HOURS
Spanish language	7
Experience (social & natural)	5
Mathematics	5
Artistic Education (music, drama & plastic arts)	3
Physical education	2.5
Religious or Ethical Education	1.5
Free Use	1
TOTAL	25.0

b) The Intermediate Cycle

Following a process of gradual implementation, the Royal Decree dated Feburary 1982 established the minimum educational contents for the Intermediate Cycle and a Ministry of Education and Science Order in May governed the teaching of the Intermediate Cycle of E.G.B.

As regards the setting out of educational objectives there were both similarities and differences as far as the Initial Cycle was concerned. Both Cycles are similar in that the objectives were listed in"areas" which in turn form "topic groups" based on the similarity of contents. However, the two cycles are different in that the objectives are established for the different courses in the Intermediate Cycle albeit that they were meant as a guide. The real purpose behind this was to provide the teacher with a possible programme outline which he could then adapt as he saw fire to the real needs of his pupils. The most important thing was that by the end of the cycle all the objectives had been dealt with.

Learning Areas

. Spanish Language (Castillian)

Topic Groups: Oral Language - Written Language, Vocabulary, Introduction to Grammar - Work Techniques.

. Mathematics

Topic Groups: Sets and Ratios - Numeral Units - Measurements

Topology and Geometry.

. Social Sciencies

Topic Groups: Society - the County - the Region - Introduction to the Study of Spain - Introduction to Geography - Work Techniques - Civil and Social Behaviour.

. Natural Sciences

Topic Groups: Self-Knowledge - Awareness of the Environment - Living in one's environment - Work Techniques.

. Artistic Education (Musical Education)

Topic Groups: Communication and Expression through music - Traditional and Communal Music - Sources of Sound-Behavious of Sound in the Language of Music.

. Artistic Education (The Plastic Arts)

Topic Groups: The Plastic Arts as a means of Expression, Communication and Development of the Imagination - Graphic Development of the Imagination - Graphic Development - Introduction to the different Modes in Plastic Arts - Plastic Procedures as means of Expression - Skills and Habits necessary for the Creative Process.

. Artistic Education (Drama)

Topic Groups: Corporal Expression and Gesture - The Drama Game - Static Images - Moving Images.

. Physical Education

Topic Group: Basic Movements - General Dynamic Coordination -

Physical Attributes - Activities in Nature - Games and Presport Activities.

Table III.21 SYLLABUS FOR INTERMEDIATE CYCLE

Area	Weekly teaching hours
Language	7
Mathematics	5
Social Sciences & Civic Education	2.5
Physical & Natural Sciences	3
Religion	1.5
Physical Education	3
Artistic Education	2
Free Use	1
TOTAL	25.0

c) It is necessary to note certain aspects of the new regulations governing the Initial and Intermediate Cycles, these are:

Assessment of Pupils

The assessment of pupils was to be continuous and the pupil's passing on to the next cycle was to be decided by the objective valoration of his performance. The assessment was to be "formative" in nature, in that it was intended not only as a means by which the pupil could be corrected, helped or encouraged in the case of learning difficulties but also as a way of following

the progress of the pupil throughout the Cycle. Only at the end of the Cycle would a grade be given based upon the pupil's command of the proposed objectives.

"Remedial" Activities

Based on the results of the continuous assessment, the teachers would organize remedial activities for those pupils with learning problems. In order to achieve this the time alloted to each subject, or the timetable as a whole was to allow for the teacher to attend to the backward or slower learners while the rest of the class worked on something on their own.

Advancement into the Intermediate Cycle

When those pupils who because of their age should advance into the Intermediate Cycle have not managed to master the instrumental techniques necessary for them to advance profitably into the next course (not having reached the minimum educational requirements) then they would have to remain in the Initial Cycle for another year. The pupil would be able to make up this lost year in the following cycles as laid down in the regulations covering E.G.B.

Those pupils who have attained required educational standard but are too young to proceed into the next cycle would follow programmes which would enable them to develop their abilities to the full but were not to be permitted in any case to advance

into the next cycle without having attained the legal age for doing so.

The Teacher in the Initial and Intermediate Cycles

The same teacher would be responsible for teaching one group of pupils throughout the courses which make up each cycle (two courses in the Initial Cycle and three in the Intermediate), except when the headmaster of the school having consulted the staff should decide that an alternative arrangement would be of greater benefit to the pupils or to the running of the centre.

Finally, it must be added that until the minimu educational contents are established for the Advanced Cycle the "educational guidelines" for the 6th, 7th and 8th courses of General Basic Education continue in force.

1.5 THE RESULTS OF THE TEACHING.

Assessment of the pupils was another area which was restructured in depth in the General Education Act.

Among the changes in this respect we might note:

- The schools were to be made responsible for the assessment of their pupils.
- The assessment was to be continuous and be considered as an integral part of the pupil's education.
- The aim of the assessment was not merely to endorse the results but rather to facilitate the pupil's educational advancement.
- The assessment, far from concentrationg on the merely instructive aspects of education was also to take into consideration the pupil's other skills or capabilities as well as those other factors such as environment and background, etc. which exert an influence upon the child, while he or she is growing up.
- Respons bility for the pupil's assessment rests with the teaching staff who were in charge of his or her education.

The Assessment Committee for the L.G.E. (September 1976) pointed out the problems connected with assessing the pupil's academic

progress. Among which we might cite:

"In connection with the general sense of continuous assessment, it is necessary to clarify certain aspects such as:

- Continuous assessment with freedom of subject matter; this evaluation leads to a very fragmentary consideration of the sciences as subjects.

- There should be a closer identification between the so-called "Evaluation Session", understood at periods in which the teaching staff reflects upon the educational progress of the pupil and the periods allowed for exams.

- Use should be made of different ways of measuring the pupil's progress as the basis for consistent value judgements.

- The criteria to be used when evaluating progress in E.G.B. should be expressed in concrete terms.

In connection with the overall grade for the course:

- The role of the evaluation teams in the formulation of the overall grade for each course should be clarified.

- The relative importance of the different disciplines or learning areas in the overall course report must be defined.

- It is also necessary to define what part the pupil's activities are to play in the final overall grade.

In relation to the guidance of the pupil:

- How the results of the evaluation are to be incorporated into the task of guiding the pupil as regards his future.

- What means, techniques or persons are to form the basis for evaluating the presonal characteristics of the pupil as regards the task of the guidance committee.

In connection with the incorporation of the pupil into Polytechnic education or studying for the Baccalaureate:

- It should be decided whether the actual two-tiered system of certificates should be maintained ("Título de Graduado Escolar/Certificado de Estudios Primarios").

- It should be decided who takes the decision on whether or not the pupil goes on to study for the Baccalaureate.

- Upon what criteria it is decided that the pupil goes on to study for the Baccalaureate or is sent to a Polytechnic".

The post L.G.E. regulations on "pupil evaluation" have done no more than develop and make it more conrete in the terms

already previously used in the Reform of 1970 (see section 2.3 Approach to, and Planning of, the Educational Activities).

As mentioned in the introduction to this section we will now go on to evaluate the results of this educational system, using as our basis the grades achieved by the pupils themselves.

We must, however, bear in mind some limitations which are concomitant with using these figures and why we must interpret these figures with caution. With reference to these limitations we might cite:

a) The standard of grading in the centres is as a rule conditioned in the sense that the characteristics of the pupils as a whole determine to a great extent the grades that the teaching staff award.

b) The level required varies from centre to centre and from teacher to teacher.

c) The criteria used as a basis for the grades vary from one centre to another.

d) The aspects to be borne in mind when awarding a grade also vary from teacher to teacher.

The following figures are the findings of a study carried

out by the Inspection Commitee for Basic Education called "Results and Performance of the School System" and refer to the second stage of E.G.B. (see tables III.22, 23 and 24). Analysis of these figures leads us to conclude that:

- The quality of education diminished significantly between the academic years 1974-75 and 1978-79 as the basis for our conclusion the grades awarded by the teaching staff.

- The results in the second stage of E.G.B. in every type of centre are very low.

- The fewer teaching units a centre has the greater are the possibilities of educational success.

- Pupils attending non-state centres have a greater chance of educational success.

In order to explain the apparently greater success of the non-state centres (based on the grades awarded by the centres themselves) we might venture the following hypotheses:

Non-state centres:

- Are less demanding.
- Are more efficient.
- Select their pupils.
- Are not found in rural areas.
- Their grading criteria are more uniform

Table III.22 PUPILS' PERFORMANCE STATISTICS FOR 1974-75 (E.G.B)

	State Centres	Non-State Centres
Percentage of Pupils who Completed the Course with Positive Grades	68.72%	76.25%
Out of 100 Pupils, Number who Failed	31	21
Recovery of every 100 Pupils given Overall Negative Grades in June; Total Number who then obtained Positive Results in September	43	47
Percentage of Recusants in September		
Percentage of Recusants in September	65.71%	53.26%
Percentage of Pupils who Completed the Course with Positive Grades:		
In Centres with From 1 to 7 Units	75.56%	82.94%
In Centres with From 8 to 15 Units	70.24%	77.01%
In Centres with more than 15 units	66.55%	74.53%

Table III.23 PUPILS' PERFORMANCE STATISTICS IN E.G.B. FOR 1978-1979

	State Centres	Non-State Centres
Percentage of Pupils who Completed Course with Positive Grades	62.24%	71.38%
Out of 100 Pupils, N° who Failed	38	29
Recovery of Every 100 Pupils Given Overall Negative Grades Who the Obtained Positive Results in September	32	42
Percentage of Recusants in September	68.11%	58.33%
Percentage of Pupils who Completed the Course with Positive Grades:		
In Centres with between 1 and 7 units	73,35%	74.26%
In Centres with between 8 and 15 units	70.24%	70.38%
Centres with 16 and more Units	61.19%	71.88%

Table III.24 PUPILS' PERFORMANCE STATISTICS FOR E.G.B. (STATE AND NON-STATE CENTRES)

	Academic Year 1974/75	Academic Year 1978/79
Percentage of Pupils who Completed the Course with Positive Grades	72.20%	66.05%
Percentage of Pupils who Completed the Course with Negative Grades	27.80%	33.95%
Percentage of Pupils who Achieved Positive Results after Summer Remedial Work	39.69%	37.72%

During 1983 the Inspection Committee for General Basic Education published a new report on E.G.B. results for the 1981-82 academic year. Using this report we will now turn our attention to the positive success rate of pupils undergoing the Initial Cycle and the second stage of E.G.B. (overall national results) (5)

It must be remembered that this report was based upon the evaluations awarded by each and every one of the E.G.B. teachers employed in Spanish centres and therefore when a pupil's performance is described as "unsatisfactory" all this means is that this was one teacher's opinion.

It must also be noted that 1981-82 was the first time that a school"year" completed the Initial Cycle.

Table III.25 PUPILS WITH OVERALL POSITIVE EVALUATION IN THE INITIAL CYCLE (AS A PERCENTAGE)

Type of Centre	June
Public Centres	83.04
Private Centres	89.38
Public + Private	85.31

Table III.26 PUPILS WITH AN OVERALL POSITIVE EVALUATION IN STAGE 2 OF E.G.B. (AS A PERCENTAGE)

Type of Centre	June	September	June/Sept.
Public Centres	44.91	27.80	60.01
Private Centres	51.67	38.82	70.30
Public + Private Centres	47.56	31.77	64.05

From an analysis of these figures we can see that:

. The overall percentage for successful pupils significantly higher in the Initial Cycle when compared to those for the Second Stage.

. In both the Initial Cycle and the Second Stage, the Private Centres have a higher percentage of passes than the Public Centres, although the difference is smaller in the Initial Cycle (6.36 points) than in the Second Stage (10.29 points).

. The difference between the passes awarded by the Public

and the Private Centres can be seen to have increased in September (11.02 points) as compared with June (6.76 points difference).

Table III. 27. OVERALL RESULTS IN THE SECOND STAGE OF E.G.B: 6th , 7th & 8th COURSE (Public & Private, total expressed as percentages of overall positive evaluations.)

Type of Centre / Course	6th	7th	8th
Public Centres	56.32	55.03	70.23
Private Centres	70.09	65.63	75.34
Public & Private Centres	61.27	59.80	72.46

An increase in the percentage of passes can be observed in the 8th course as compared with the 6th and 7th courses.

The differences between Public and Private Centres are confirmed when we consider each course individually. It is significant that this difference becomes less and less marked during the three courses of the Second Stage.

- 13.77 points in the 6th course
- 10.60 points in the 7th course
- 5.11 points in the 8th course

Those passes awarded at the end of the 8th course correspond in turn to the percentage of pupils who at the end of the period of E.G.B. obtained the diplomaof"Graduado Escolar".

- 70.23% in Public Centres
- 75.34% in Private Centres
- 72.46% as National Average

Table III.28 OVERALL NATIONAL RESULTS WITH REFERENCE TO THE STRUCTURE OF THE CENTRES

Initial Cycle

Number of Units Per Centre	Percentage of Overall Passes	Difference From National Average
1 unit	85.01	-0.30
2 to 7 units	83.58	-1.73
8 to 15 units	85.47	+0.16
16 or more units	85.50	+0.19
National Average	85.31	

Second Stage

Number of Units Per Centre	Percentage of Overall Passes	Difference From National Average
1 Unit	82.76	+ 18.71
2 to 7 units	64.94	+ 0.89
8 to 15 units	64.76	+ 0.71
16 to more units	63.26	- 0.79
National Average	64.05	

In the Initial Cycle it can be seen that the "Size of the Centre" has no appreciable effect on the school results.

In the Second Stage, however, just as was previously seen, the tendency seems to be that the number of passes is in inverse proportion to the size of the centre. The difference is most obvious in those centres with only one teaching unit.

It appears paradoxical that it is precisely in those centres with one unit, and one teacher for all levels and specialities of E.G.B. which show the highest proportion of passes, when if considered objectively, the structural deficiencies of those centres should give rise to academic deficiencies and more failures. We believe that the explanation for thie phenomenon should be sought in other factors which are not strictly

speaking academic. Those factors of a social and/or professional nature which are practically inexistent in bigger centres.

Finally, according to the figures for academic year 1982/83 (Statistical Studies Section of the M.E.C.) we may note that 20% of the pupils enrolled to study E.G.B. were not studying the course to which their ages corresponded, but were behind. The type of centre is an important factor in this respect: in the public centres 25% of the pupils are behind their studies and in the private section the percentage is 13%. There may be many reasons for such a sizeable difference, for example, that the teaching is better in some private centres and that in others there may be a tendency towards more easy passes for fear of loosing the pupils.

The ratio of pupils who are behind in their studies appears too high for a compulsory, general basic education system and may be an indication that this system is not appropriate for the needs of Spanish children and adolescents. The consequences, often irreversible for the pupils themselves, are also relevant to the number of school places provided, which at this moment exceeds the number of children between the ages of 6 and 13 years old which in turn means that money is being spent unnecessarily.

1.5.1 The Academic Results at the End of E.G.B.

TableIII.29 shows the evolution in the number of pupils who obtained the "Graduado Escolar" certificate or the "Certificado

de Escolaridad"** at the end of E.G.B. in the period from 1974-75 to 1982-83.

In order to interpret these figures correctly, it must be remembered that the Graduado Escolar* certificate is awarded to those pupils who complete E.G.B. successfully while the Certificado de Escolaridad is awarded to those pupils who fail to pass all the required tests.

Thus, Table III.29 shows the distribution of the pupils who go on from E.G.B. to study B.U.P.***, Formación Profesional Grade 1 and those who abandon their studies.

The figures of the last three years show that there was a marked improvement in that the number of pupils who abandoned their studies decreased significantly, a lot more students being enrolled in Formación Profesional (Grade 1) since the figures for enrolment in B.U.P. remained practically the same.

There can be no doubt that the fall in the number of students abandoning their studies represented an improvement since it meant that the educational system is getting nearer to the idea of complete schooling for all up to the age of 16 as was laid down in the L.G.E.

* School Graduate; ** School Certificate;

*** B.U.P. Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente

Table III. 29 NUMBER OF PUPILS WHO COMPLETED E.G.B. & THOSE ABANDONING THEIR STUDIES AT THE END OF E.G.B.

Academic Years	PUPILS WHO COMPLETED E.G.B.			N° OF PUPILS ENROLLED			PUPILS WHO LEFT SCHOOL
	"Graduado Escolar" Holders	"Certificado de Escolaridad" Holders	TOTAL	1st course BUP	1st course F.P.(1)	TOTAL	Pupils having finished the year before thus enrolled in year:
1974-75	322,306	151,602	473,908	-	-	-	-
1975-76	337,265	181,216	518,481	255,014	151,991	407,005	66,903
1976-77	327,358	210,484	582,842	266,208	161,832	428,040	90,441
1977-78	403,710	216,170	619,653	291,171	171,636	468,679	114,163
1978-79	392,392	233,261	625,653	322,440	194,020	516.460	103,420
1979-80	-	-	-	322,848	224,535	547,383	78,270
1980-81	426,038	224,117	650,155	323,118	235,258	558,376	91,717
1981-82	442,045	222,512	664,557	331,908	249,384	581,292	68,863
1982-83	-	-	-	327,566	249,009	576,575	87,982

Source: Preschool Education: E.G.B. Special and Adult Education. Statistical Studies Section of the M.E.C. 1980-84

The Following table shows the distribution of the pupils who having completed E.G.B. went on to B.U.P., Formación Profesional and abandons their studies, as percentages.

Table III. 30 DISTRIBUTION OF HOLDERS OF "GRADUADO ESCOLAR" & "CERTIFICADOS DE ESCOLARIDAD" TAKEN FROM PREVIOUS YEAR AS PERCENTAGE.

Academic Year	1st of B.U.P	1st of F.P.(1)	School Leavers	TOTAL
1975-76	54	32	14	100
1976-77	51	31	18	100
1977-78	50	30	20	100
1978-79	52	31	17	100
1979-80	52	36	12	100
1980-81	50	36	14	100
1981-82	51	38	11	100
1982-83	49	38	12	100

Source: Preschool Education; E.G.B., Special and Adult Education. Statistical Studies Department of the M.E.C. 1980 & 1984.

2. Special Education

The term Special Education refers to the education of those physically or mentally handicapped children who cannot be included within the mainstream of the educational process. When it is a serious handicap these children are attended to in special centres although the present trend is towards the widest possible integration of these pupils into ordinary school. In fact, more and more ordinary E.G.B. centres are being equipped with special classrooms and teachers who are specialized in therapeutics.

Firstly in this chapter we shall look briefly at the administrative and legislative aspects of special education for handicapped children; next we shall examine the statistics dealing with the situation at present, and finally we shall look more closely at the current trends in special education in Spain and the outlook for the future.

2.1. Concern about Special Education: Legislation and Administration

In 1914, the "Patronato Nacional de Anormales" was created which three years later was broken into three different sections, the deaf-mutes, the blind and the subnormal which in turn gave rise to the creation of the State Schools for each section. These three groups of schools took care of special education in Spain

during the first half of this century, the lack of resources being overcome by vocation in many cases, however the standard of special education was satisfactory during this period to the extent that since 1920 there have been specialized teacher training programmes.

On the 17th July 1945 the Primary Education Act was passed and was later improved upon by various dispositions during the fifties and sixties and by the L.G.E. of 1970.

This was the period of real progress in Special Education. Research and technology at all levels lent scientific rigour to Special Education. Teaching for the handicapped was massively promoted by State organisms; parent/teacher associations were formed; the declarations of the United Nations dealing with children (1959) and the Mentally Deficient (1977) were adopted whole heartedly; both petraining and in service training for teachers and others was encouraged; national and international meetings and congresses were held ...

The National Institute of Special Education was created in 1975 which was to be the state office responsible for running, directing and improving Spanish Special Education. One year later, the Real Patronato was created to coordinate the different bodies involved in order to provide comprehensive aid for the handicapped. The result of this was the formulation of the National Plan for Special Education, the Plan for Prevention (of Handicapped children)and the Law of Social Integration for

the Handicapped of 1982 as well as other measures which have since been carried out.

Both the National Institute for Special Education and the Real Patronato have undergone in recent years several legal modifications, the majority of them of no great importance dealing rather with reponsabilities and transfer of same.

In 1979 the I.N.E.E.* was structured organically into what can be said to be three main areas: techniques from an academic point of view, the administrative aspect and the economic one.

The most recent restructuring of the Ministry of Education and Science was established by the Royal Decree of the 27th of April 1983, and it was created the Subdirectorate General for Special Education within the auspices of the Directorate General for E.G.B. and thus the National Institute for Special Education became an administrative body under the direct control of this Directorate General.

The idea behind this was to bring Special Education into line with a notion which is shared by several sections of society and the political class, that of one school for all within the general education system which sould itself be based on the principles of a normal integrated system of education capable of attending to the needs of the pupils, be it in groups or as individuals.

* Instituto Nacional de Educación Especial
(National Institute for Special Education)

A series of basic legal dispositions have come into force in the last few years dealing with Special Education.

a) Firstly, the Spanish Constitution of 1978 which apart from several of the connotations of the articles dealing with education in general devotes an entire article (49), to Special Education in Spain.

b) The Regulations on Special Education in Royal Decree number 2639 of 1982 and the Ministerial Orders which developed it.

c) The Social Integration of the Handicapped Act of the 7th of April 1982. This was the highest level legislation dealing with Special Education which has been passed.

2.2. THE SITUATION AT PRESENT: SOME FIGURES

2.2.1 Pupils and School Places

At present, there are 98.014 pupils registered as undergoing education in the Centres of Special Education and in special classrooms available in ordinary schools, a figure which appears very low in comparison to the population of Spain which is approximately 38 million. However, there are more school places than pupils; in total there are 119,531 places taking into account both public and private centres, thus there is a utilization ratio of 82% of total capacity. This situation defies comprehension, since the

handicapped pupils of school age is apparently higher than the number of these pupils undergoing education according to the estimates based on studies carried out by national and international organisms or in comparison with other countries. It would be necessary to analyze in depth the reasons for this phenomenon: possibly the school places are not where they are needed, or possibly it is due to the reluctance of the parents to send their handicapped children to school, etc..

Approximately 50% of handicapped children are attending special schools and the rest are attending ordinary schools. The number of handicapped children enrolled in Special Education classrooms in ordinary centres is 48,932; 45,186 in public centres and only 3,746 in private centres, or as percentage 92% and 8% respectively. Participation by the private sector in this form of education is very limited. On the other hand, as regards Special Centres, the private sector own 70% of the centres but it must be remembered that 87% of these centres receive public finance either through subsidization or agreements.

By sex, the total number of handicapped children can be subdivided into 30,217 boys and 18,715 girls, or as perventages, 62% and 38% respectively. The same can be said about the Special Centres even though the predominance of the boys is less marked, as percentages 59% vers s 41%.

2.2.2. CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS BY HANDICAP

Table III. 31 shows the number of children attending Special Education Centres, their handicaps, sex and type of centre.

Almost 70% of the total enrolment corresponds to mentally handicapped pupils, while the remaining 30% suffer from one form or another of physical handicap; almost 10% suffer from deafness and those with difficulties of movement account for some 7%.

As regards the mentally subnormal 56% of the total number of those enrolled are classified as being slightly or to a certain extent, backward, a further 13% are classified as severely retarded;* those pupils who have an I.Q. greater than 70 are taught in special classrooms within ordinary centres as laid down in the norms established by the Ministry of Education and Science, in order to facilitate their integration. The presence of a larger proportion of pupils with higher I.Q.'s is logical: firstly because the parents of children who are brighter are probably more interested in their being educated; secondly because according to the ministerial norms, the severely handicapped cannot attend ordinary schools, but rather must be sent to centres where they can be properly looked after, and possibly, because there are, simply, less severely backward children.

As regards the question of sex, Table III.31 shows that there is no appreciable difference in the different types of handicap the pupils suffer from. Neither is there any great difference as regards type of centre, public or private; we might perhaps note that in general there is a greater proportion

* see Table for full classification

of mentally handicapped pupils in the public centres and physucally handicapped in the private centres. For example, there are practically no blind pupils in public centres, probably because the majority are undergoing education in the schools belonging to tne National Organization for the Blind, which are, in fact, private centres.

2.2.3 THE TEACHERS

A) Special Education Units in Ordinary Centres

The number of teachers who are specialized in therapeutics is such that all those who are at present employed in Special Education Units in ordinary centres should be specialists; however, the total number of specialists actually teaching at the moment does not cover the number of teachers currently employed in those centres. (See Table III.32)

At present there is a surplus of 1,340 teachers, 25.6% of the total. This may not be too great a surplus since in Special Education many teachers cannot teach their speciality continuously but rather spend periods in ordinady education; that is why it is necessary for there to be more specialists than posts to fill so that a degree of rotation can be manintained.

In contrast to this surplus of specialists (Table III. 32) we find in fact, that there is in practice, a real shortage of

specialists actually working at the moment. In the public sector 1,782 teachers employed in Special Education Units (48.2%) are not trained specialists. In the private sector there must be a mistake in the figures since, with only 209 teachers employed in Special Education Units, 309 claim to teach their speciality which is obviously impossible unless they are doing so away from their normal teaching post; therefore, the only thing we can say is that in the private section all the teachers are specialists. Thus, between the two sectors, the number of specialists is 1,913 + 209, in al 21,122, which is 54.4% of the total number of teachers and thus the other 45.6% are teaching in Special Education without being specialists.

B) Centres of Special Education

In the special centres, the majority of the teachers are specialists (83%), be it in therapeutic teaching (69%) or Hearing & Speech therapy (14%).

Besides the normal teaching staff in these centres there are also support teams made up of different specialized professionals. In Table III.34 we can see the distribution of these specialists as regards centres and numbers of pupils.

The figures in Table III.34 show how understaffed the centres are as regards specialists and the perhaps excessive number of pupils on average that they have to take care of 20% of the

centres do not have a doctor and those are the specialists there are most of; it is possible that every centre does have a A.T.S.* so that there is at least some medical care. The presence of a psychologist would also appear to be indispensable in these centres and yet 28% of them are without, always supposing that any given centre is not employing more than one. Less than 50% of the centres employ a phsyotherapist and around 30% less than a third, have an occupational therapist or a specialist in handicaps affecting movement.

Although speech difficulties and defects can be dealt with to some extent by teachers specialized in therapy and to a greater extent by experts in hearing and language, a speech therapist would seem to be essential in every centre, however only 54% have one.

Other specialists which at first might not seem as vital, but which are fundamental if it is hoped to fully develop the capabilities of handicapped children, are music and rhythm and physical education: only 24% of the centres have a music teacher and 30% a physical education instructor.

The lack of specialists per centre means that those who are employed have to take care of a large number of pupils; even though it must be remembered that the real number of pupils per teacher is almost certainly lower than shown in the tables since there are

* A.T.S. A kind of nurse

Table III. 31. DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION CENTRES CLASSIFIED BY SEX AND HANDICAP (AS PERCENTAGES)

PUPILS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	CENTRES	
				PUBLIC	PRIVATE
Blind	1,52	1,52	1,52	0,03	2,34
Impaired Vision	0,66	0,63	0,69	0.32	0,84
Deaf	9,91	9,18	10,96	9,73	10,01
Impaired Hearing	1,80	1,81	1,80	3,14	1,07
Mentally Subnormal	69,64	70,10	68,99	71,79	68,45
Slightly Backward: 70>IQ>52	(27,88)	(29,64)	(25,35)	(31.74)	(25,74)
Moderately Backward 51>IQ>36	(28,42)	(27,73)	(29,42)	(28,40)	(28,44)
Seriously Retarded 35>IQ>20	(10,87)	(10,40)	(11,54)	(8,95)	(11,93)
Severely Retarded IQ<19	(2,47)	(2,33)	(2,68)	(2,70)	(2,34)
Physically Handicapped (Movement)	6,54	6,56	6,51	4,42	7,72
Personality Disturbances	5,09	5,12	5,04	4,81	5,24
Autistic	0,98	1,12	0,78	0,87	1,04
Physical Handicap:Haemophilia	0,46	0,43	0,49	0,06	0,68
Other Handicaps	3,40	3,53	3,22	4,83	2,61
TOTAL	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00

Table III.32 TEACHERS SPECIALIZED IN THERAPEUTICS & TOTAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION UNITS IN ORDINARY CENTRES

	Public Sector		Private Sector		Total	
	N°	%	N°	%	N°	%
Specialized Teachers	4,184	100.00	1,060	100.00	5,244	100.00
Teachers in Special Ed. Units	3,695	88.3	209	19.7	3,904	74.4
Difference	489	11.7	851	80.3	1,340	25.6

Source: E.G.B. Special Unit and Adult Education M.E.C.82-83

Teable III. 33. TOTAL N° OF TEACHERS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION IN ORDINARY CENTRES AND TEACHERS SPECIALIZED IN THERAPEUTICS WHO TEACH THEIR SPECIALITY

	Public Sector		Private Sector		TOTAL	
	N°	%	N°	%	N°	%
Teachers in Special Ed. Units	3,695	100.00	209	100.00	3,904	100.00
Teachers who Teach own Specialities	1,913	51.8	355	169.9	2,268	58.1
Difference	1,782	48.2	-146	-69.9	1,636	41.9

Source: E.G.B. Special & Adult Education M.E.C. 1982-83

TABLE III 34 SUPPORT TEAMS: TOTALS OF SPECIALISTS

RATIO OF SPECIALISTS/SCHOOL, SPECIALISTS/PUPILS

SPECIALITIES	TOTAL	SPECIALISTS PER CENTRE	PUPILS PER SPECIALIST
DOCTORS	471	0'80	104
PSYCHOLOGISTS	423	0'72	116
SOCIAL WORKERS	276	0'47	178
A.T.S. (NURSES)	226	0'39	218
PHYSIOTHERAPISTS	255	0'43	193
OCCUPATIONAL THERAPISTS	173	0'29	284
PHYSICAL DISABILITY SPECIALISTS	177	0'30	278
SPEECH THERAPISTS	317	0'54	155
MUSIC AND TYTHMN TEACHERS	138	0'24	356
PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS	179	0'30	275

SOURCE: SPECIAL EDUCATION STATISTICS 1981-82

centres where due to the absence of specialists the children will simply go without these subjects.

2.3. TRENDS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

2.3.1. General Objectives

According to the new approach to Special Education, the following would be the objectives to be sought:

- Integration of the Special Education system into the General Education system.
- Integration of the handicapped pupil into the ordinary school system.
- Foster early access by the handicapped pupil to the educational system.
- Equip the school with the support personnel and services required.
- Improve the training and specialization of teaching staff and auxiliary personnel.
- Institutionalize the channels which guarantee the participation of the handicapped, their families and their representatives in such actions and decisions as affect them.

2.3.2. The Trend Towards Integration

The defence of the human rights has given rise to a philosophy which coming from outside the school, proposes that Special Education should be deinstitutionalized and that the school itself should undergo reform in order to allow handicapped people access to it.

Those in favour of change are running into opposition from the people who wish to maintain the previous system; they claim that the school has too many problems of its own to be able to establish the programs of individual teaching which this integration would require. It is also true to say that some of the handicapped themselves as well as their families have expressed doubts about the proposed integration.

In some parents' associations belonging to ordinary schools where there are handicapped children there is some concern that the handicapped child gets too much attention to the detriment of the others.

However, the program of integration is under way and whether it succeeds or not will depend to a great extent on society being in favour of this measure; on the good will of everybody involved, the will to make it work, convinced that this is the best form of educating the handicapped.

Acceptance by society can only be achieved through information and the experiments which are already going on will provide the

positive results which will facilitate society's acceptance.

The principal objective is to create a school which will allow the handicapped pupil to be as near as possible to his home, his neighbours, his friends; and a school where every pupil will receive the individual attention he or she requires.

Integrating the handicapped child into the ordinary school envirionment means combining ordinary education and special education which will inevitably enrich both.

The process of integration must be gradual but continuous right from the youngest possible age group extending through E.G.B., as well as FP, B.U.P. and university education within a concept of permanent education.

The process of integration also means undertaking the reform of the ordinary school; reinforcing its technical capabilities, introducing specialized teaching staff, interdisciplinary teams of teachers and bringing teachers training up to date.

With a view to dealing with these needs, these plans have been prepared and put into action:

- During 1983/84 an experimental program of integration has been undertaken (Ministerial Order dated June 14th 1983)

It is intended to continue to extend these experiments, controlling and evaluating results in order to reach the conclusion which will allow the Ministry to plan for a widescale implementation of the process.

- Extension of the network of Support Teams and non-teaching staff. The Support Teams, made up of different specialists is seen as a back up to the school as institution. These teams are to consist basically of psychologists, educationalists, doctors and social workers.

- Extra or support teachers to be assigned to the ordinary schools.

- Reinforcing the special services: physiotheraphy, psychomotor skills.

- Reconvert the present network of special centres.

- Channel the investments towards the ordinary centres to facilitate the integration programme.

- Opening up the Polytechnics to the handicapped to a greater extent.

- Development of resource centres.

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2.3.3. Integration of Different Types of Handicapped Pupils

In putting the integration into practice, two aspects must be considered, on the one hand the services which will be necessary to carry this out, and on the other, the pupil himself and his specific requirements.

As regards the services, these are different modes of integration:

- Handicapped pupil is taught in an ordinary classroom and follows the same curriculum as the others with additional help either in class or out of it.

- Handicapped pupil is taught in a special classroom within an ordinary centre by a specialized teacher.

Within this formal different alternatives are foreseen depending on how long the pupil is to remain in the special class or to what extent will participate in the activities of the rest of his class.

In considering the integration of the different types of handicapped pupils, it is important to bear in mind that each case must be taken individually according to the pupil's requirements and personality. Some important factors to consider are the pupil's physical and mental maturity, his social development

and the nature of his disability.

As regards the aforementioned modes of integration, before a decision is taken an exhaustive study of the pupil and his disability must be carried out.

In principle, it is thought that the formula of special class in an ordinary centre would be best for those cases that present most problems either due to severe difficulty in communication or severe mental subnormality.

The concept of teaching in special centres while not being abolished is to be reserved for those cases which are so severe as to mean that any other type of education would be prejudicial.

2.3.4. Ancillary Teaching Staff

The ancillary teacher provides the ordinary centres with specific technical/teaching assistance.

His/her duties are:

- Prevention and early solution of learning difficulties.
- Carrying out remedial programmes to solve specific deviations.
- Creation of teaching resources.
- Advising parents and teachers.

There are ancillary teachers who are assigned to one school and are there throughout the school day and there are others who

work part-time at severe centres.

In either case the ancillery teacher forms part of the staff and his centre(s) and should be in constant contact with the other teachers and the other ancillary services.

2.3.5. Teacher-Training

The teaching staff is vital to the quality of any educational system. Their training and constant improvement must be taken into account when formulating edcuational policy.

In Special Education there are a large number of teachers who have never undergone a sufficiently specific training.

The actual system of Special Education Teacher Training does not prepare the teacher to cope with the disabilities in depth since the general nature of the training does not guarantee sufficient background in either theory or practice.

The importance of the teacher in the process of integration is obvious. This means that it is vital to transform the nature of his training which would mean that:

- The general plans for E.G.B. teacher training should also include a common basic training in Special Education.

- The speciality of Special Education should be established in the general reform of Teacher Training; and should include in its programmes materials referring to the different disabilities in their different aspects, paying special attention to speech and movement handicaps and guaranteeing effective theoretical and practical training in this speciality.

- This training should take the form of postgradual studies.

- In service training course should be organized dealing with disabilities and specific techniques.

2.3.6. Family Guidance

All families need guidance but none more so than the family of the handicapped. This guidance must be relevant and specific and in keeping with their own social and environmental conditions.

The objective of family guidance is to ensure the effective participation of the parents in the pupil's early education and indeed throughout the education process.

Once the family has accepted the reality of their handicapped child, they will be a vital part of the child's education if they are given the necessary technical assistance and specific guidance.

When the child becomes a member of the school community he begins a process of socialization which will be reinforced if the way the child is treated at home is how he is treated at school. That is why close collaboration between the parents and the professionals is vital.

Therefore, it is essential that each individual family receives information from the specialists about the child's characteristics and how he should be treated. The family should also be trained in the general nature of the education the child is receiving so that the family supports and reinforces the work of the school. It is also necessary for the family to receive advice all the time on specific points so that they can assist in particular programmes.

2.4. THE FUTURE OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN SPAIN

At present there is a Royal Decree to control Special Education from which the following points may be understood:

- A change affecting the organization, services and resources of the school, together with the introduction of new methods and new modes of school organization.
- The explicit intention of carrying out a policy of educational integration.

- The explicit intention of carrying out a policy of educational integration.

- The schools are to be assigned ancillary services and personnel who through their specialized intervention at an early age reduce the level of academic non achievement.

- The establishment of the bases for the future cost free nature of Special Education, by linking the services of support and rehabilitation to the educational process: and this will be assumed by the Ministry of Education and Science.

- The formulation of a plan for the initial and in service training of teachers.

- A new concept as reagrds the special centres (for the handicapped) which will become fundamentally resource and support centres for the ordinary schools; those children who due to the severity of their handicap cannot be integrated will continue to be taught in these centres.

- Decentralization of the different services, which being structures in geographic or demographic units will ensure a more efficient use of resources.

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CHAPTER IV

POST COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION (ENSEÑANZAS MEDIAS)

The Spanish term "Enseñanzas Medias" denotes that level of education which is immediately after E.G.B., and is equivalent to what in other countries is called "upper secondary". This name has been used since the Royal Decree of June 30, 1976, to denote upper secondary studies in the two modes, the B.U.P. (Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente) and C.O.U. (Curso de Orientación Universitaria) which are of an academic nature, and the 1st and 2nd levels of F.P. (Formación Profesional).

Therefore we shall divide the chapter into two subsections: education of an academic or general nature, Vocational training and shall move on to a third, in which certain projects for the reform of both types will be examined.

1. EDUCATION OF A GENERAL OR ACADEMIC NATURE

1.1 THE BACHILLERATO BEFORE THE GENERAL EDUCATION ACT

In order to understand better the current situation of the Bachillerato in Spain, we shall take a brief look at it immediate past. This will serve to assist in interpreting and explaning the deficiences which, without any doubt, do exist in the Bachillerato of today, but, also, in making us aware of the differences between the present-day Bachillerato and that in force

during the early years of the Franco dictatorship, which are, in spite of everything, enormous.

In a report of this nature it is impossible to do a review of all the laws and decrees which concern this level of education. However, it would appear to be very necessary to mention two important milestones which occurred before the 1970 Act of the Minister Villar Palasí, and after the Spanish Civil War:

The 1983 Act on reform of Secondary Education

The 1953 Act on the structuring of Secondary Education

1.1.1. The stage immediately following the war

The fact that the first law of education proclaimed by the rebels, when Pedro Sainz Rodríguez was Minister of Education, was the Act of September 20, 1938, on the reform of secondary education, is significant. The explanation of this phenomenon is given by the legislator himself in his introduction: "... a profound modification at this level of education is the most efficient instrument whereby the transformation of a society, and the intellectual and moral training of its future leaders (our underlining) may be rapidily influenced". This means that the Bachillerato was conceived exclusively as a preparatory level for University, and as a consequence, its function was not to prepare people for life in general, nor for a working life in particular.

Those facts which should be pointed to, and which may help us to have a clear idea of the Bachillerato which was in force in Spain between 1938 and 1953 could be these:

The type of training to be given was classical and humanistic culture. The law said "Classical and humanistic culture has been universally recognised as an unimprovable and fruitful basis for the development of youthful intelligences". This is the "sure way to return to the valuation of the authentic Spanish person, trained in the classical and humanistic studies of our 16th century, which produced that group of politicians and warriors, all of them having had classical religious and humanistic training, of our imperial era, to which the heroic vocation of our youth is returning; a formative political power which is still corroborated to a large degree by the example of the great modern imperialist nations".

The content is eminently Catholic and patriotic. As Manuel Puelles (1) points out, during this period of the Franco dictatorship, the Church had a greater part to play - almost a monopoly, both in primaryeducation and in the Bachillerato. The State, the same author points out, wanted little to do with education from the first months of the uprising until the first years of the 'fifties.

Patriotism and Catholicism were almost confused. The Civil War took place to defend the nation from its enemies - communism and freemasonry - which were in turn the enemies of Catholicism. Therefore the Nationalis group called the Civil War a "crusade".

In the Law it says: "Catholicism is the very core of the history of Spain", and so this made "essential, a solid religious instruction which include Catholicism, the Gospels, Morals, Liturgy, The History of the Church and an adequate degree of Apologetics". (2)

One significant point in this respect is that it is obligatory to have two hours per week of religion - Catholic, naturally - thoroughout the seven years of the Bachillerato.

Political totalitarism. The eduaction which the 1938 Law attempted to promulgate was inspired, obviously, on the totalitarian principle of strictness, discipline, the non-acceptance or tolerance of other ideologies, etc.; in short, it was an attempt to educate young poeple in the idea of the existance of one absolute truth, defended by the established regime. These principles have their source in those of the Spanish Falange, and of the JONS, and were reflected, not only in the Law of the Reform of Intermediate Teaching, but also in the Law instituted by the Frente de Juventudes (Youth Front) onDecember 6, 1940. (3) As an example of totalitarianism, it is sufficient to say thay freedom of conscience and of academic subjects was totally excluded.

The Privatisation of the Sector. One symptomatic factor of the State's wanting little to do with education, as indicated above was the closing of various secondary education Institutes, in accordance with the dispositions of the Order of September 13, 1937.

Another very significant factor might be the following: in 1931, 28.9% of students of Bachillerato were in private institutions. However in 1943 this figure had incerased to 70.7%.

The extreme privatisation at this educational level brought it a very relevant class-consciousness, as shown by Pérez Galán (4). The Bachillerato became very selective, and has already been said, was conceived as being exclusively a preparation for higher studies which would be attended by the future ruling classes. Thus it has a certain elitist nature.

The curriculum arising from the Act of September 20, 1983, was composed of seven groups of subjects, covering seven academic years: 1) Religion and Philosophy; 2) Classical languages; 3) Spanish Language and Literature; 4) Geography and History; 5) Mathematics; 6) Modern Languages (two languages); 7) Cosmology.

All subjects, except Greek, would be taught throuhout the seven years which the Bachillerato would last.

The Bachillerato, which lasted until 1953, consisted of an entrenance-exam at ten years of studies without formal exams of any official value, and a famous State examination - that was its name- at the end of them, organised by the universities, and whose tribunals consisted of five University professors, and which awarded, with their approval, the diploma of Bachiller. Thus the State had but this one control, consisting of this examination, which gave a diploma which in turn gave access to the University.

1.1.2. The Reform of 1953

With the Act of the Structuring of Secondary Studies (Ordenación de la Enseñanza Media) of February 26,1953, passed while Joaquín Ruíz Giménez was Minister of Education, a deep-seated reform of the national education system was attempted.

But why did this reform take place if the Law of 1938 reflected the inspiring principles of the regime, and safeguarded the interest of influential pressure-groups?

There are many reasons which might explain, or give an answer to this question. Pérez Galán gives some of them in the above-mentioned work (5). Some of them are or a nature which is outside the Spanish educational system: the defeat of the Italian and German dictatorship in the Second World War forced the Spanish authorities to change, al least in appearance an insofar as it was possible, to adapt themselves to the prevailing circumstances in their immediate surroundings. Others, however are more specifically concerned with aspects of the educational system in Spain:

- The head-teachers of Primary Schools were annoyed at having been relegated as far as the State examinations were concerned, but replaced by University professors.

- The existence of only one test in the Bachillerato for assessing the levels of attainment by the students.

- The increase in cost to parents of education, due to the privatisation for the sector.

- Lack of inspection, etc.

Those points worthy of note, woth reference to the Bachillerato in force in Spain from 1953 until the General Education Act of 1970 could be the following:

- Both the leadership of Ruíz Giménez, taken as a whole, at the Ministry of Education, and this law in particular, can be considered in principle and with great reservations, as being indicative of certain indications of flexibility.

- However, in spite of everything, the framenwork within educational policy must move is vey narrow, as it is limited by the bacic principles which are he inspiration of the system in force: Catholicism and nationalism. According to Puelles Benítez (6), with this law, the denominational nature of education was maintained and ever reinforced. In fact, the Bill leading up to the Law had to be previously confided to the Vatican, and to the ecclesiastical hierarchy of Spain. Both in the law itself, and in the Concordat signed between the Holy City and the Spanish Government, also in 1953, include paragraphs which clearly corroborate what has just been stated.

The same 1953 Act, in its Article 58, also recognised the right

of inspection by the Church in all intermediary teaching centres, including private lay establishments, and state schools.

On the other hand, it seems thay the new law reduced the exalted nature of nationalism when it came to justifying the new law, and it made an appeal to historical reasons, and reasons of an educational, social and political nature. In the introduction to the Law it says: "For development of historical circumstances, the expansion of pedagogical methods and other deep-seated reasons of a social and political nature make it advisable to proceed with a restructuring of this level of education, in order to perfect procedures of a technical character, raise the cultural level of our young people and establish bases for the fruitful collaboration of all those involved in education".

The "super-privatisation" of the earlier period was maintained in this one, as far as the numbers of pupils was concerned, and increased in relation to the number of centres (see table IV.1). Private schools, in accordance with Article 32 of the Act, were grouped into four types according to their corresponding academic category:

a) Authorised elementary (*) schools

b) Recongised elementary schools

c) Authorised higher schools

d) Recognised higher schools

(*) As will be seen later, the Bachillerato has two levels, Elementary and Higher.

This classification was established by the Ministry of Education, after consultation with the National Council (Consejo Nacional).

The difference in function between recognised and authorished lay in the fact that, while the former had absolute autonomy for the carrying-out and evaluation of end-of-year tests, the latter did not have this power, and, in consequence, their pupils had to be tested before tribunals composed of two Institute teachers and one Secondary School teacher.

TABLE IV. 1: PUPILS AND SCHOOLS IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

	PUPILS			SCHOOLS		
YEARS	STATE SCHOOLS	PRIVATE SCHOOLS	%STATE/ PRIVATE	STATE	PRIVATE	%STATE/ PRIVATE
1953-4	44,404	217,340	20	119	1,004	12
1959-60	75,785	372,526	20	119	1,067	11

Source: Statistics of Secondary Education in Spain. M.E.C., for these two years.

From a pedagogical point of view, this Law consist of an improvement over the 1938 Law. It reflects objectives which could be in accordance with a progressive, active and modern type of pedagogy. Article 12 says: "An intellectual education should orient the pupil towards the habit of observation and study, or reasoning and of

verbal and written expression". These objectives coincide to a large extent, with some of those outlines in the document "Towards reform" (7), compiled by the present-day government team at the Ministry of Education and Science. However, although we cannot go very deeply into the subject, it must nevertheless be pointed out that, in this case, the difference between theory and practice was vast. Basically, what was encouraged, both at this educational level and at others, was learning by rote and by instruction.

- As compared with the Bachillerato of the 1938 Act, a division was now introduced:

a) Elementary Bachillerato, consisting of four years.

b) Higher Bachillerato, consisting of two years.

Before starting Bachillerato, it was necessary to have passed an entrance examination which took place at the age of ten. On completion of the two levels, there was a final examination, which it was essential to pass in order to obtain the respective qualifications.

Form the fourth year onwards, two branches were established: Arts and Science. In accordance with Article 82 of the Act, all subjects are compulsory, and common to all pupils, except Latin and Greek, which are compulsory for those doing Arts, and Mathematics and Physics, which are compulsory for those doing Science. This double option would seriously affect the future options of the young people.

In addition, before going on to university, a pre-university course had to be passed, with the corresponding tests of maturity which took place in the university itself, the tribunal consisting of university teachers.

The setting up of the new Bachillerato, split into two levels, with more immediate targets, contributed, along with the economic boom of these years, to a progressive generalization of education up to the age of fourteen. The Elementary Bachillerato, and only that, began to be a requirement for admission to middle-grade university courses. Between 1953, the year in which Ruiz Gimenez act came in force, and 1968, fifteen years later, the number of students of Bachillerato increased almost fivefold, as can be seen in Table IV. 2. In this table it can also be observed that the great, and progressive, increase in the number of students of Bachillerato, which took place over this 15-year period, has little or nothing to do with gradual growth in the 9-year old population, nine being the age in which secondary education begins. However, while the number of pupils in 1968-69 is almost five times that of 1953-54, the number of 9 year olds only increases by little more than a quarter over the same period of time. More specially, the great relaunching of the Bachillerato, as well as that of other levels, took place in the sixties, as can also be seen from this table. It was the period of the educational explosion.

The subjects which made up the 1953 plan were: Religion, FEN (Formation of National Spirit), Spanish Language and Literature,

TABLE IV 2 BACHILLERATO PUPILS AND NINE-YEAR OLD POPULATION (thousands) and RATE OF INCREASE (%)

ACADEMIC YEAR	PUPILS	%	YEAR	9 YR. POP.	%
1953-54	261	100	1953	478	100
1955-56	328	126	1955	478	100
1960-61	474	182	1960	507	106
1965-66	834	320	1965	568	119
1968-69	1210	464	1968	611	128

Geography, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Latin, History, Physics and Chemistry, Modern Language, Philosophy and Greek.

There were three major groupings of subjects, which were clearly differentiated in accordance with the number of hours per week assigned to them.

1) More than 16 hours: Mathematics, Spanish Language and Literature, Latin.

2) More than 10 hours but fewer than 16: Religion, Physics and Chemistry, Modern Language.

3) From 6 to 8 hours: all the rest.

1.2 THE PRESENT-DAY BUP

The present-day Bachillerato dates from the General Education Act, although it was in fact first put into practice in the academic year 1975-76. Act 14|1970 establishes it as an educational level, and traces the general outlines, its three courses, structure, and indications about areas of learning. But it is the Decree of January 23, 1975 which defines the curriculum and educational guidelines

which, excepting certain minor details added later, make it what it is today.

The General Education Act, (LGE) gives a double objective to the Bachillerato: to prepare pupils for access to higher education, or to the second level of vocational training (Formación Profesional), as well as giving them the necessary training to go directly on to an active life. Thus it is that the introduction to the Act expressly points out the need to avoid the excessively theoretical and academic characteristics which used to typify this level of education, and to offer the pupil a certain diversity of practical-professional experiences. Three factors would serve to define the new Bachillerato: the fact that it gives priority to the human education of the pupils, to the acquisition of intellectual skills, the learning of social customs and the harmonious development of the personality in all its facets; in the second place, its unity, i.e. that it leads to one qualification, thus avoiding any kind of premature vocational choice; and finally, its versatile nature in that it includes subject-matter which is freely chosen, and oriented towards technical-professional activities, which complete academic training as well as facilitating subsequent choice of vocation.

TABLE IV. 3 CURRICULUM FOR 1ST AND 2ND YEARS OF BUP

AREAS	SUBJECTS / YEAR	HOURS PER WEEK 1st	2nd
LANGUAGE	SPANISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE *	5	5
	FOREIGN LANGUAGES **	5	4
	LATIN	-	4
SOCIAL AND ANTHROPOLOGICAL	HISTORY	4	-
	GEOGRAPHY	-	3
MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL SCIENCES	MATHEMATICS	5	4
	NATURAL SCIENCES	5	-
	PHYSICS/CHEMISTRY	-	5
AESTHETIC EDUCATION	DRAWING	3	-
	MUSIC AND ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES	2	-
	TECHNICAL-PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES AND TRAINING	-	2
	RELIGIOUS OR ETHICAL *** EDUCATION	2	2
	PHISYCAL EDUCATION	2	2
	TOTAL	33	31

NOTES TO TABLE IV. 3

* Since 1978 the study of the vernacular language of those Autonomous Communities with their own language has been incorporated.

** As foreign languages the following can be studied: English French, German, Italian and Portuguese. (These are in order of frecuency of study, there being a great difference between the first two and the rest). The school chooses which languages are studied. Some schools offer a choice between two or more languages.

*** The Ministerial Order of July 16, 1980 introduced the option of choosing between the two subjects in all courses.

TABLE IV.4 CURRICULUM FOR THE 3RD YEAR OF BUP

SUBJECTS			HOURS PER WEEK
COMMON		FOREIGN LANGUAGES	3
		GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY	5
		PHILOSOPHY	4
		TECHNICAL-PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES AND TRAINING	2
		RELIGIOUS OR ETHICAL EDUCATION	2
		PHYSICAL	2
OPTIONAL*	OPTION A	SPANISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE	4
		LATIN	4
		GREEK	4
		MATHEMATICS	4
	OPTION B	SPANISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE	4
		NATURAL SCIENCES	4
		PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY	4
		MATHEMATICS	4
TOTAL			30

* Pupils have to choose three subjects from one of the groups A or B. Those choosing Option B do not normally opt for Spanish Language, and those taking up Option A and including Mathematics are quite rare, too. Thus in practice the two Options correspond to Arts and Sciences.

The qualification of Bachillerato is obtained after passing all the subjects in the three courses, without any type of final test. It is valid for proceeding with university studies (given the completion of COU (University Orientation Course)), for going into the 2nd level of "Formación Profesional" and (in theory) for doing various jobs of a middlegrade which only require this qualification. In fact, at the moment BUP has a sense of being just a bridge leading to the university. Practically all pupils who obtain the qualification of Bachillerato continue with university studies, or at least try to do so (i.e. they undergo the selection tests).

In practice, the 1975 Decree destroys the polivalent (academic professional) sense of BUP, by means of a curriculum, which is "theoretical, traditional and regressive" (8). Also, the academic nature of BUP has been accentuated by counter-reforms carried out on the Act by successive ministerial teams" (9). Thus it is that the Bachillerato as it stands at present, although observing the letter of the law, has to a large extent distorted the idea of a formative secondary education, which prepares people as much for life as for higher education.

The directives given by the L.G.E. concerning the Study Plan for the Bachillerato can be summed up in four points:

1) The division of subjects into common ones (to be studied by all pupils), optional ones (to be chosen from a number) and technical-professional ones (of which the pupil will study one of his own choice).

2) The grouping of common subjects into six areas of knowledge: Language, Sociology/Anthropology, Aesthetics, Religious Education, Mathematical Sciences and Physics and Physical Education.

3) The determination of the number, and the characteristics of the optional subjects, (among which Greek has to be included), with a view to assuring that they have a real place in the curriculum.

4) Guidelines with regard to technical-professional education, for the qualified teaching of which there are express indications that the schools will be able to reach agreements with other Institutions and companies.

Of these directives it can be said that only the first has been completely put into practice, being of a vegue and general nature.

The co-ordination of the various subjects which go to make up each area of knowledge has never worked properly. In spite of the fact that it was ruled that the post of "area coordinator" be set up, in practice, with a few exceptions, the desired degree of inter-disciplinary relationship, or at least the connection between supposedly connected subjects, has not been achieved.

Optional subjects have been held back until the 3rd year, and grouped int two blocks, so that individual freedom of choice is considerably limited.

Finally it must be said that the technical-professional teaching and activities are the great losers of the Bachillerato. In the law, they ceased to be subjects which are on a par with the academic subjects, and having the important objective of "permitting the pupil to apply his theoretical knowledge and assisting vocational orientation" and enjoying quite an acceptable role in the 1975 decree, to a position today where they are reduced to being marginal subjects (Design or Domestic Science) taught for two hours a week in the 2nd and 3rd years, as a result of successive ministerial decrees. The possible causes of the failure of this type of education, and thus of the multi-faceted nature of the B.U.P. are numerous (deficiencies in teaching, equipment, facilities, etc.). But there is a deeper underlying reality: the vague wish, expressed in the 1975 decree, for these technical-professional subjects to be a point of contact between school and work, was never linked to any kind of real willingness to five these subjects the same importance as the academic ones, and thus make the B.U.P. something which was both academic and professional. Perhaps it was too much of a utopian idea, and too difficult to put into practice, and one which not even the Act itself encouraged with the right amount of conviction.

The curriculum which is in force at the moment speaks for itself only on the academic side of teaching. The programmes for each subject - which we are not able to include - would confirm this idea and would also imply a certain excess of content. The plan for the three years is shown in table IV.3 and IV.4

The decree of January 23, 1975, which established the curriculum was further developed by a Ministerial Order on March 22 of the same year in which are set out for each subject the objectives, a detailed programme for each year, and the methodological guidelines. Then, the Act of October 3, 1979 partially modified the study-plan, removing Political/Social and Economic Education, (which was taught for two hours a week in each year in accordance with the 1975 plan). This was replaced by a subject called "Knowledge of the Constitutional Ordinance" which was in charge of the Philosophy and Geography and History departments in the 3rd year of B.U.P. the weekly time allotted to this new subject was increased by one hour. It was a timid, and in any event insufficient, attempt to introduce a type of civic education more in accordance with the new political situation in Spain.

1.3. C.O.U. (University Orientation Course)

The University Orientation Course is an intermediate course lying between secondary and higher education, open to those with the Bachiller qualification, or that of the 2nd Level of Formación Profesional. It replaced the old pre-university course of the 1953 Act, and like that course, it has undergone progressive transformation, gradually changing from a special course bridging secondary and university education, to being just one more year of the Bachillerato. The name of the course indicates the objectives with it was conceived, and which the General Education Act details as follows:

a) To deepen the knowledge of the pupils in basic sciences.

b) To guide them in choosing careers for which they show the greatest aptitude and inclination.

c) To equip them in the use of techniques of intellectual work, as appropriate to the level of higher education.

As befits its intermediate nature, this course is both the responsability of the university, which programmes and supervises it, and the Bachillerato schools, which are in charge or carrying out the course.

The first C.O.U. Curriculum (1971) responded in full to the spirit of the law as regards the course. There were three common subjects, and 21 optional ones, of which thepupil was to choose three. On additon, four hours a week were devoted to orientation seminars (which in fact never worked very well) were abandoned, along with the one on civic-social training, and subjects to choose from were reduced to two options, consiting of two obligatory subjects and four optional ones, from which the pupil chose two. The present-day study-plan is the one shown in table IV. 5

As can be seen , it is a study plan which is very similar to that of the 3rd year of B.U.P. The "mini-courses and lectures" established by the law, the orientation seminars and the training in the use of the techniques of intellectual work are only given, exceptionally, in certain schools.

TABLE IV. 5 CURRICULUM FOR C.O.U.

	SUBJECTS		HOURS PER WEEK
		FOREIGN LANGUAGE	3
	COMMON	PHILOSOPHY	4
		SPANISH LANGUAGE SEMINAR	3
OPTIONAL	OPTION A	a) COMPULSORY SUBJECTS:	
		LITERATURE	4
		HISTORY OF THE MODERN WORLD	4
		b) OPTIONAL SUBJECTS:	
		LATIN	4
		GREEK	4
		HISTORY OF ART	4
		MATHEMATICS	4
	OPTION B	a) COMPULSORY SUBJECTS:	
		MATHEMATICS	4
		PHYSICS	4
		b) OPTIONAL SUBJECTS:	
		CHEMISTRY	4
		BIOLOGY	4
		GEOLOGY	4
		TECHNICAL DRAWING	4
		TOTAL	26

What usually happens is that this course is run like any others in the Bachillerato, with one added difficulty, the shadow of the selective exams. For the University, which has intervened little, in fact less and less all the time, in the programming and guidelines of C.O.U., makes its presence felt by means of certain tests which the pupil must pass at the end of the course if he wishes to procced to university studies. Thus the idea of individual orientation, of a guided transition from secondary to higher education, seems to have been totally abandoned, and today, C.O.U., in general, is just one more course of Bachillerato, except thay it prepares pupils for the selectivety exams.

1.4. FACTS AND FIGURES ABOUT SCHOOLING

NOw that the current Bachillerato plan has been explained and analysed, it would seem to be a good idea to five certain figures which would assist in getting a better grasp, and above all, a more real idea of it.

The figures which we are going to talk about are grouped into three amjor blocks: schools, teachers and pupils. For each of these we shall give some general figures, but we shall then proceed to study the differences according to variables which are very relevant.

Where schools are concerned, we shall see the numerical differences between the public and private sectors.

Where the teachers are concerned, the variables taken into account were: type of school they teach in, what they teach, qualifications and sex of the teacher.

In the section concerning the pupils, figures will be given for both B.U.P. and C.O.U., sometimes together and sometimes separately. The variables which have been taken into account when analysing these figures have been: the type of school in which they study, age, sex, timetable or educational system, and the autonomous community.

1.4.1. Concerning schools

In the academic year 1982-83 there were 2,945 B.U.P. and C.O.U. schools, of which 45% (1,111) were state schools, and the remaining 55% (1,384) were private. If you look at Table IV.6, it will be seen that during those years when the 1953 Act was in force, the number of schools went up very sharply, so much so that by the academic year 1970-71 there were three times as many schools as in 1953-54. On the other hand, after the General Education Act of 1970, the number decreased spectacularly, which is logical if one bears in mind that the present-day B.U.P. consists of three years as compared with the six of the earlier plan. As a result of the same 1970 Act, there has also been a marked and progressive evening-up between the publis and private sectors. The former increased its share from 19% in 1970-71 to 45% in 1982-83. According to Tena Artegas and others (10) 'This change is especially due to three things:

TABLE IV. 6 STATE SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS SINCE 1953

SCHOOL / YEAR	STATE		PRIVATE		TOTAL	
	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%
1953-54	119	11	1004	89	1123	100
1970-71	661	19	2535	81	3403	100
1975-76	700	30	1651	70	2351	100
1980-81	1074	44	1371	56	2445	100
1982-83	1111	45	1384	55	2495	100

(SOURCES: FACTS AND FIGURES ON EDUCATION, M.E.C. (SEVERAL YEARS). STATISTICS ON BACHILLERATO AND C.O.U., M.E.C. 1980-81 AND 1982.83)

TABLE IV. 7 TEACHING STAFF, BY KINDS OF SCHOOLS, SINCE 1953.

SCHOOL / YEAR	STATE		PRIVATE		TOTAL	
	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%
1953-54	3960	22	13978	78	17938	100
1970-71	21585	35	40684	65	62296	100
1975-76	23916	49	24778	51	48694	100
1980-81	41454	63	24706	37	66160	100
1982-83	45648	63	24146	35	69764	100

(SOURCES: FACTS AND FIGURES ON EDUCATION, M.E.C. (SEVERAL YEARS) STATISTICS ON BACHILLERATO AND C.O.U., M.E.C. 1980-81 AND 1982-83).

a) the policy of expansion in state secondary education carried on by the Ministry since the early 'sixties, which managed to increase the demand as a result of a determined educational policy;

b) the effects of the Educational Reform Act of 1970, which led to the suppression, as such, of non-state Elementary Bachillerato schools, which became E.G.B. schools;

c) the effects of the recent economic recession, added to the increase in cost of non-state education, the pressure of which caused the transfer of pupils from non-state schools to state schools.

The average size of state schools is greater than that of the private schools, and among the latter, those run by the Catholic Church are generally bigger than those run by private enterprise.

1.4.2. Concerning Teachers

The total amount of teaching staff consists of 69,794 teachers, of whom 45,648 (65%) work in state education, and 24,146 (35%), in private education (see table IV.7).

The number of teachers increased greatly until 1970-71. Then there was a downward trend until 1975-76, due to the General Education Act, which, as has already been pointed out, brought along with it a reduction in the number of courses in the Bachillerato. Since 1975, after a general levelling-out during two or

three years, there has been a new upsurge in the numbers of teachers operating at this level of education, which has been spectacular. The quality of education in Spain has experienced a certain inprovement, which can be seen reflected, in a certain ways, in the indicator of the ratio of pupil to teacher, which, as will be seen later on, improved considerably over this period.

From 1953 until the last academic year analysed (1982-83), the progressive increase in the numbers of teachers in state-schools and the decrease in those in non-state schools, followed, in relative terms, a linear trajectory which did not vary at all. The high degree of privatisation during the early years of the dictatorship was eroded more and more as a result of the 1953 Secondary Education Act (L.O.E.M.).

There are three categories of timetable for working teachers:

- Normal time, 18 - 25 hours per week.
- Full-time, 26 - 35 hours per week.
- Total-time, more than 35 hours per week.

According to the details in Table IV.8, teachers in the state sector devote considerably more hours to teaching than those in the private sector. In turn, the state-school teachers' group is more homogeneous than that of the private teachers. Both phenomena can be explained by the general administrative situation

TABLE IV. 8 TEACHERS BY AMOUNT OF TIME AND BY TYPES OF SCHOOL

TYPE OF SCHOOL \ TIME		LESS THAN NORMAL	NORMAL	FULL-TIME	TOTAL TIME	TOTAL
State	Nº	813	1722	2851	40001	45387 *
	%	2	4	6	88	100
Private	Nº	9174	6820	5708	2360	24062 *
	%	38	28	24	10	100
Total	Nº	9987	8542	8559	42361	69449 *
	%	15	12	12	61	100

* These figures do not coincide with those cited earlier, because there were some teachers who did not take part in the questionaries in some schools classified by amount of time teaching.

(Source: Statistics on Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C., 1982-83)

TABLE IV.9 QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS BY TYPES OF SCHOOL

QUALIFICATION \ SCHOOL	STATE		PRIVATE		TOTAL	
	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%
Science Graduate	13,897	30.4	6,522	27.0	20.419	29.2
Arts Graduate	24,244	53.1	11,472	47.5	35,716	51.2
Others	7,507	16.5	6,152	25.5	13,659	19.6
TOTAL	45,648	100	24,146	100	69,794	100

(Source: Statistics on Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C., 1982-83)

TABLE IV 10: BACHILLERATO, PREUNIVERSITY AND C.O.U. STUDENTS, BY TYPES OF SCHOOL, SINCE 1953.

SCHOOL / YEAR	STATE		PRIVATE		TOTAL	
	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%
1953-54	44,404	17	217,340	83	261,744	100
1970-71	542,394	36	979,463	64	1,521,857	100
1975-76	406,757	50	411,646	50	818,403	100
1980-81	718,190	66	373,007	34	1,091,197	100
1982-83	733,582	66	384,018	34	1,117,600	100

(Source: Statistics on Education; INE (several years)
Statistics on Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C., 1980-81 and 1982-83).

in state schools: -only 10.5% of teachers are temporary or part-time, and this means timetable demands which make it difficult for teaching to be combined with other tasks. By contrast, in private education this is not the case; some of the teachers are, for example, members of a religious order, and consequently their teaching activity is just one of many, or the same teacher might teach part-time, but in many different schools. On the other hand, only about 50% of teachers' time in state school are "contact hours", whereas in private education this figure is as high as 90%, so that a teacher on "total time" in a state school and another on "full time" in a private school in fact teach a very similar number of hours. As for quelifications of teachers of Bachillerato and C.O.U. throughout the land (see Table IV.9), it can be said that:

- Arts Graduates are considerably more numerous than Science Graduates, both in the private and the state sector.

- The big difference between the two sectors, is seen in the group called "other teachers". There are more non-graduates in subjects outside arts or sciences in the private sector than in the state sector. This could be due to the fact that in private schools there is a far greater number of teachers of religion, music, etc., who in many cases, do not possess a degree at all.

The participation of the female sex is in general, around 47%, being higher in state schools (48.2%) than in the private schools (45.8%).

1.4.3. Concerning pupils

The number of pupils in B.U.P. and C.O.U. for the academic year 1982-83 has been 1,117,600. Of these, 875,727 were doing B.U.P. - which represent an increase of 21.9% (Table IV.11) over the academic year 1977-78, the first year in which the three-year structure of the present-day Bachillerato was crried on, - while 241,873 were studying C.O.U.

In Table IV.10 can be seen, just as in the case of schools and teachers, a great increase in numbers of pupils between 1953 and 1970, coinciding with the enormous educational explosion which took place in Spain during the 'sixties, and then a spectacular drop in the early part of the 'seventies, brought about, no doubt, by the new Bachillerato plan, which cut the numbers of academic years at this educational level.

From the figures for the development of matriculation figures for B.U.P., from the first year of the new plan (1977-78) until 1982-83, it can be seen that in the first three years there was a considerably expansion, but that in the last three there was a levelling out, or slight variation, which was even negative at times (Table IV.11).

TABLE IV. 11 PUPILS ENROLLED IN B.U.P.

ACADEMIC YEAR	NUMBERS	INCREASE IN %
1977-78	718,268	-
1978-79	815,972	13.6
1979-80	872,887	7.0
1980-81	867,215	- 1.0
1981-82	881,342	1.6
1982-83	875,727	- 0.6

(Source: Statistics on Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C., 1982-83).

With regard to the different types of school, it should be pointed out that two thirds of B.U.P. and C.O.U. students, taken all together, studied in state schools, and only one third in private schools (Table IV.12). Note the great contrast between these figures and those given for 1953-54, when 83% studied in private schools and only 17% in state schools. Whilst the 1953 L.O.E.M.* was in force, the tremendous differences which acted in favour of non-state education were reduced in part, but it was only after the 1970 Act that there was a "Copernican" turnaround which, in just five years, managed to balance the percentages for both types of education, and, in the last five years of that decade, a proportion of two to one in favour of state shcools was estblished. These inequalities in percentages are greater in C.O.U. than in B.U.P. (Table IV.12) due, doubtless, to the fact that many private schools do not offer the University Orientation Course.

(*) Ley de la Ordenación de las Enseñanzas Medias.

TABLE IV. 12 PUPILS OF B.U.P. AND C.O.U., BY TYPES OF SCHOOL (1982-83)

SCHOOL / EDUC. LEVEL	STATE		NON-STATE		TOTAL	
	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%
B.U.P.	562,543	64	313,184	36	875,727	100
C.O.U.	171,039	71	70,834	29	241,873	100
TOTAL	733,582	66	384,018	34	1,117,600	100

(Source: Statistics for Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C. 1982-83)

The average figure for people studying B.U.P. between the ages of 14 and 16, the age group to which these pupils belong, is 37.5%.

On studying these figures: 14 years old: 35.7%, 15: 39.47% and 16: 38.07%, it should be noted that at 15 there are proporcionately more people studying B.U.P. than at 14 (Table IV.13). This is due to the fact that at 14, many children are still doing E.G.B. But it should be borne in mind that there are more Spanish 14 years olds in full-time education than 15 year-olds, if the system is taken all round - 85.5% as against 71.6%.

The figure for C.O.U. at 17 years old is 33.85%,something less than the B.U.P. figure for the appropriate ages (14, 15 and 16), but not enough, we feel, to supplant the oft-repeated comment that the function, almost exclusively, of B.U.P. is to prepare children for higher education.

With regard to the sex-variable, it must be said that, for a number of years now, the number of girls has been higher than the number of boys. In fact girls constitute 54% of this educational level.

There are also significant differences in the pupil figures for B.U.P., according to sex. In Table IV.13 it can be seen that at every age under consideration, covering those which in general are covered by upper secondary education, the proportion of girls in B.U.P. is higher to that of boys. Both in absolute and relative numbers, there are more girls than boys in C.O.U.

If we speak of numbers of pupils in general, taking into account at the same time, E.G.B., B.U.P. and F.P.,.the results are clearly in favour of the males. This is because, although it is true that there are more pupils of the female sex in the Bachillerato, the opposite is the case in E.G.B. and F.P. (Table IV.14).

TABLE IV. 13 NUMBERS OF PUPILS IN B.U.P., BY AGE AND SEX

SEX / AGE	MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL
14	32.18	39.37	35.70
15	35.94	43.18	39.47
16	34.59	41.72	38.07
17	30.70	38.14	33.85
18	12.40	14.96	13.65
19	5.71	6.91	6.29

(Source: Statistics for Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C. 1982-83)

In Spain, there are three different types of academic timetable open to pupils: daily (morning and afternoon), afternoons (only)* and night (after 7). The vast majority of students, about 88% attend the daily timetable, and the night one is attended by about 10%, while only 1.5% attend the afternoons only timetable. Students attending class according to one of the latter two bases are in many cases fitting in their studies with a paid job of work, and the schools often give preference, when allotting places for afternoon and evening classes, to people doing a paid job of work.

Another variable which should be considered, if one wishes to have an exact, definite and detailed notion of the situation of the Bachillerato in Spain, must be the Autonomous Community.

Below are given the most important facts concerning this. The indicator used will be the number of pupils -in this case of B.U.P. and C.O.U. together - per thousand inhabitants, given that absolute figures would hardly tell us anything, because of the large demographic differences between the various communities.

The most significant factors to be seen in the table are the following:

- The national rate is, approximately, 30 pupils for every thousand inhabitants.

(*) In fact this is an exceptional type of timetable, authorised only in certain schools areas where there are not enough places, so that the best possible use may be made of those that there are.

TABLE IV. 14 14 AND 15 YEAR OLD POPULATION REMAINING IN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

AGE	SEX		TOTAL POPULATION	COURSE OF STUDY			
				E.G.B.	B.U.P.	F.P. 1	TOTAL
14	BOYS	N	328,109	110,509	105,580	76,418	292,507
		%	100	33.68	32.18	23.29	89.15
	GIRLS	N	313,625	90,568	123,489	42,438	256,495
		%	100	28.88	39.38	13.54	81.79
15	BOYS	N	333,215	34,206	119,762	92,707	246,675
		%	100	10.27	35.95	27.83	74.03
	GIRLS	N	317,800	27,327	137,223	54,744	219.294
		%	100	8.60	43.18	17.23	69.01
TOTAL		N	1,292,749	262,610	486,054	266,307	1,014,971
		%	100	20.32	37.60	20.60	78.52

Source: Statistics for Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C. 1982-83.

- Madrid and the Basque Country are, in that order, very much above the national rate.

- Ceuta-Melilla, Castilla-León and Asturias are considerably above the national rate.

- Aragón, the Canaries, Cantabria, Murcia and Navarra are placed at more or less the level of the national rate.

TABLE IV.15 PUPILS IN B.U.P. AND C.O.U., PER 1,000 INHABITANTS, IN THE AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES

Andalucía	26.75	Ceuta/Melilla	33.91
Aragón	29.99	Extremadura	25.12
Asturias	31.98	Galicia	24.20
Balearics	24.93	La Rioja	26.80
Canaries	30.63	Madrid	41.01
Cantabria	29.54	Murcia	29.89
Castilla-La Mancha	23.19	Navarra	29.91
Castilla-León	32.41	Valencia	26.41
Catalonia	27.61	Basque Country	35.29

NATIONAL TOTAL: 29.66

Source: Statistics for Bachillerato and C.O.U., M.E.C. 1982-83.

- There is a group of communities which differ from the average significantly and negatively, though not very much: Catalonia, La Rioja, Andalucía and Valencia, all of which have a high socio-economic level.

- Finally, those communities with the lowest pupil rates in B.U.P. and C.O.U. are Extremadura, the Balearics en Castilla-La Mancha.

It is very difficult to find a coherent explanation for these figures which we have just looked at, as there is no variable, whether it be demographic, cultural, socio-economic, etc., which might justify them. For, shile it is true that communities with a very high socio-economic level, like Madrid and the Basque Country, are very well-places in the listing, there are others, like Catalonia and Valencia, which are badly placed in spite of their high level of development. In the same way, whereas Madrid has a high demographic figures, Castilla-León's is very low, and yet both communities are placed very much higher than the average in terms of pupils doing B.U.P. and C.O.U., etc.

1.5. ORGANISATION AND FUNCTIONING OF THE B.U.P. AND C.O.U. SCHOOLS

Under this title we group together those aspects of education which are less quantifiable , although inevitably, if there is to be any pretension to objectivity, they will have to be backed

up by numbers and data. These are the aspects of education which are removed from large numbers, and attempt to give some idea, albeit very partial and vague, of the daily routine in the secondary schools.

.1.5.1. Facilities in the schools

The Bachillerato schools ought to be equipped so as to function at the optimum level - as well, naturally, as having sufficient classrooms to accommodate the number of classes - with the following facilities: library, three laboratories, (one for each of the trhee experimental subjects), gymnasium, a hall for multiple purposes, as much space for teaching seminars as there are subjects taught, staff-room, and space for offices and studies of the administrators.

The Inspectorate* has classified state schools according to whether they have or have not a part of this list of facilities, and those facilities which are in bad repair are counted as if they did not exist. The results were the following:

a) 7% of the schools were considered as being very lacking, inasmuch as they lacked a library, gymnsium and multi-purpose hall, had either no laboratory, or only one, were in need of more than 6 rooms for teaching seminars, and the administrative offices, studies and staff-rooms were insufficient.

(*) The data on which this subsection is based is taken from the "Annual Report on the functioning on Bachillerato Schools 1982-83' carried out by the General Inspectorate of the Bachillerato, and comes only from those Communities without complete powers in educational matters at the time of writ ing the report; i.e. Catalonia, Galicia, and the Basque Country are excluded. (11)

b) 21% were considered as being lacking, as they did not have either gymnasium or multi-purpose hall, and the library was either non-existent or in a very precarious state; they only had two laboratories, and were in need of 4 to 6 rooms for teaching seminars.

c) 39% were considered as being acceptable, although the library was in a provisional location, and lacked the sufficient amount of material; they had the three laboratories, although again they were insufficiently equipped, and they were still lacking 1 to 3 rooms for teaching seminars.

d) 28% of the schools were considered as being good, having all the right facilities, and a sufficient amount of didactic material

e) The schools classified as very good ahd the same facilities as the previous ones, but they were particularly well looked-after, and in addition, extra laboratory material was available. These accounted for 5%.

As far as private schools are concerned, there is not such an exhaustive amount of information, and therefore there has not been a global classification for them, but the Inspectorate say that practically all of them have staff-rooms and the 3 laboratories (77.5% of them well-equipped), 91% have a library (generally with a sufficient amount of books), 72.9% have a gymnasium and sport-field, and 85% a multi-purpose hall. However only 55% of these

schools have sufficient room for teaching seminars.

Although it is difficult to summarise this information, because of its diverse nature, and because it is difficult to compare, it can be said, generally, that more than two-thirds of state schools are well-equipped, and that this figure is even higher where private schools are concerned.

1.5.2. The organisation of the schools

Democratic participation by all sectors of the educational community in running the schools is something which is quite important for school life as a whole. The Statutes of Teaching Establishments Act of June 19, 1980* (partially modified by the Royal Decree of August 12, 1982, as a result of a ruling by the Constitutional Tribunal) establishes collegiate participation in the governing of state Bachillerato schools (as well as in those of EGB) by a Board of Governors, a Financial Committee and the Teaching Staff. The teaching staff comprises all the teachers at the school; the Financial Committee comprises the Head-teacher, the secretary, two teachers nominated by the staff, and three parents, also nominated from amongst themselves. The Board of Governors has the following members:

(*)The Right to Education Act, passed on March 15, 1984, which replaces this 1980 law, partially modifies the channels of participation, reducing them to the Teaching Staff, and the School Governors, which are made up of the old Board of Governors and the Financial Committee. The composition and functions of the collegiate organisations in both Acts are very similar, except on the important point of the election of the head-teacher, at present chosen by the Administration, and which the new Act entrusts to the Board of Governors.

- The head-teacher of the sochool, who acts as chairman.

- The Head of Studies.

- Four teachers nominated by the staff.

- Four representatives chosen by the parents.

- Two pupils chosen by the course-representatives.

- One reperesentative chosen by the non-teaching staff.

- The schools secretary, who has voice, but no vote.

The powers of the Teaching Staff are as follows:

a) To programme the educational activitities of the school.

b) To draw up the rules for the internal running of the school, together with the parents.

c) To elect their representatives on the collegiate organisations of the school.

d) To establish and co-ordinate criteria for the testing and the making up of lost time, of the pupils.

e) To co-ordinate the functions of the guidance and tutelage of the pupils.

f) To take the initiative in the sphere of educational experimentation and research.

g) Anything else that may be officially required of them.

The duties of the Board of Governors are:

a) To approve the rules for the internal running of the school.

b) To define the general educational principles and objectives which to entire activity of the school will be geared to.

c) To report on the general programming of the educational activities of the school.

d) To see that the prevailing norms concerning admission of pupils to the school are being observed.

e) To approve the plan for the administration of the budgetary resources of the school, drawn up by the Financial Committee, and previously heard by the Teaching Staff, as well as to supervise the ordinary financial transactions of the Financial Committee by means of the periodical reports which the latter must provide.

f) To resolve disciplinary problems affecting the pupils.

g) To plan and programme cultural and extracurricular activities in the school.

h) To establish a co-operative relationship with other schools.

i) To pass on to the organisations of the administration reports about the life of the school and its problems, formulating, where appropriate, the necessary proposals.

j) To assist and evaluate the head-teacher in his/her areas of responsibility.

k) Anything else that might be officially required of them.

The newness of these norms makes one suppose that participation is not yet a deep-seated reality in schools, with the exception of the teaching Staff committee, which has a long tradition. The data which refers to the constitution of the Organisations of Governing, which is taken from the aforementioned report of the Inspectorate (12), partly reflect this. Partly, because this constitution is no more than the first step; we have no information about subsequen functioning. In the academic year 1982-83 a teaching staff committee was set up in all schools. The Board of Governors was constituted in 97% of schools, but these, in 6.3% of them the teachers were not present, of they are present to a lower degree than they should be, and in 4.1% the parents are absent, or not suffienciently represented. A Financial Committee has been set up in 90%, but in 8% there is not the due representtation of parents, and in 9.4% there are no teachers.

As far as private shcools are concerned, the rules about participation are more diffuse. The law only dictates the obligation of each school to draw up its own statute, or rules for internal running, and that this should include as instruments of governing, the teaching staff committee, a school board (with representatives of the teachers, parents, pupils above the second level of E.G.B. and non-teaching staff) and a Financial Committee in those schools

which are maintained by public funds. According to available information, practically all private schools have a teaching staff committee, 72% have drawn up their statutes, 77% have a school board and in 68% of them there is a Financial Committee. It is not known in what proportion the constitution of these organisations is correct or deficient.

All these facts and figures, are,obviously, but a part, and the most formal and superficial part, of the question of the democratic organisation of schools. But at least they show that participation in the taking of decisions has started;that the governing of Bachillerato schools has ceased to be just a matter for the head-teacher, and that the long process of apprenticeship in shared responsibility by the different components of the educational community is beginning.

1.5.3. The number of pupils per class, the pupil/teacher ratio, and the suitability of the teacher to the subject taught.

These three factors do have a certain value when it comes to explaining conditions in which teaching takes place. Perhaps the most important of the three is the first: the number of pupils per classroom has a certain influence on the chances of personal attention to the pupil, of active teaching and continuous evaluation. But the number of teachers with whom the pupil has the opportunity to interact, and whether or not teachers teach those subjects which correspond to their academic qualifications,

are also factors when it comes to looking at the quality of the teaching.

A. The average number of pupils per class in B.U.P. and C.O.U. in the academic year 1982-83 was 35.6 in state schools, and 35 in private schools. The groups are larger in 1st year than in 2nd and 3rd year, for obvious reasons of repeat years and giving up, and the groups increase again by C.O.U., because this course is not available in all schools, and thus there is a concentration of pupils. These figures give the idea of rather numerous groups, which means that there is sometimes certain difficulty in applying certain teaching methods (13).

B. The pupil/teacher ratio, on the other hand, is much lower: 17.2% in state education, and 16.5% in private education. The reason for the disparity between the number of pupils per class and the number of pupils per teacher is, on the one hand, the differing amounts of time that teachers work, (many of them do not work full-time or a full day, above all in the private sector, where only 10% of teachers are of "total time"), and on the other, the form which their work takes, which includes, besides teaching hours, seminars, class preparation, invigilation, etc. (this particularly valid for the state sctor, where 88% of teachers are working "total time", but where for every 30 hours worked, only 18 or 21 are contact teaching hours*) (14).

(*) For the reasons stated, this fact is difficult to interpret, and has little value in itself, except in the sense already mentioned at the beginning in terms of a richer experience for the pupil, being able to interact with a variety of teachers.

C. The suitability of the teacher's qualification and the subject taught is a complex problem, and we shall not, here, go into all that deeply, for this would mean going into the topic -so controversial these days in Spain- of the ideal training for teachers of secondary education. We shall restrict ourselves to mentioning a few facts. In general, teachers normally teach those subjects which theri academic qualifications equip them to teach, but the cases of a lack of correspondence between subject taught and qualification are numerous. The mos frequent occurrence of this is where teachers teach subjects which are related in some way to their special subject (e.g. a graduate in biology might teach physics, or a history graduate might teach philosophy), but in some cases, especially in the smaller schools, teachers might have to teach subjects which are very remote from their qualifications (and in any case the concept of what is a "related subject" is a very debatable one). There are a number of reasons for this problem: the difficulty of adapting the staff of the school to the registrations occurring in any given year, because of the optional subjects, the increasing specialisation in university degree courses, the priority given to seniority when making up timetables, etc. It is not easy to solve some of these problems, but, obviously, the fact that there are certain subjects which are taught by inadequeately trained teachers, or perhaps teachers with little motivation, is detrimental to the quality of education.

1.5.4. Pedagogical methods

With regard to teaching methods, the L.G.E. says, literally "In the Bachillerato, teaching must be conceived as the directing

of the pupil's learning, and not as a kind of education which concentrates exclusively simply explaining the subject-matter. It should tend to awaken and encourage initiative, originality and creative attitude in the pupil. To this end, the pupil should be skilled in the techinques of intellectual work, both individually and in a team". It goes on to specify what teaching of this type should consist of: it should be centred on the pupil, individualised and active. Thus there is a clear orientation towards the more innovative methods of modern pedagogy, along the lines of "teaching to learn", "the teacher as orchestrator of the class" and the encouragement of individual skills.

However, reality presents a somewhat different picture. As happened with E.G.B., the 1970 Act provided for substantial renewal in the methodology to be applied, but it can be said -although we do not have any data available which might back up such a statement- that in the Bachillerato, with an increasing number of exceptions, the norm is still the traditional academic method, with the main protagonist being the old-fashioned "magisterial" lesson. There might be many reasons for this, and perhaps the most important is the very concept of the study programmes, which are over-loaded with subject matter, and which leave little room to the imagination and personal initiative. The education and training received by the teachers themselves may also be noted in this respect, having as it did very pedagogical content, as well as the high number of pupils per classroom, and another series of reasons which are difficult to identify.

The same thing could be said of the way in which pupils are tested: that there is a big gap between the law and what really happens. The law established continuous and all-around assessment; in practice, as always with certain exceptions, this has meant that there are five exams during the whole course instead of three, and without there having been very such coordination between subjects.

Naturally, these are simplified generalisations. In the face of normal practice, there is a growing number of teachers who are worried about, and in favour of, methodological innovation. Proof of this can be found among more than one hundred innovatory projects within the Bachillerato which have been carried out in the last two academic years, under the auspices of the CIDE, as well as many others carried out independently, or with the support of different entities.

1.6. PERFORMANCE AND QUALITY OF B.U.P. and C.O.U.: ACHIEVEMENT OF THE PUPILS.

The concept of quality in education is a very debatable one, and one which has been much talked about. Which is the better system? That which gets through to the greates number of pupils, or that which is very selective on the basis of demanding very high standards? Is equality of opportunities compatible with quality? Is it a sign of greater quality that the pupils have a high level of knowledge, or that their education be multi-faceted at cost to the academic side? - etc. There can be as many proposals

and answers of this type as there are concepts of education. But in any event, it is evident that these days the quality of education, without even referring to its most visible outward sign as might be the results obtained by the person who learns, cannot be interpreted in just one restrictive sense. In the sense employed in the recent American report "A National at Risk" (15) it "means performing on the boundary of individual ability in ways that test and push back personal limits" and it is obvious that it cannot simply be reduced to a series of numbers which only reflect partial aspects. It is in fact something much more complex and which poses great problems of measurement. As the OCDE Education Committee has indicated "Quality in education concerned much that could not be measured. Measurement instruments tended to concentrate only on what is easily measured: insight and apprehension were ignored".(16)

Thinking along these lines, we are aware that it is erroneous to identify the performance of pupils with scholastic qualifications -in the first place because the latter only refer to the merely academic aspects of education, whereas education includes, or should include, other elements, (emotional, behavioural, abilities, etc.) which are just as important as the cognitive ones. What is more, scholastic qualifications are not even the most reliable way of measuring the academic aspects. However, for lack of more complete and objective data, we shall set forth - with great care, and begging pardon for the implied contradiction, results of scholastic evaluation as an indicator of pupil performance.

1.6.1. Success, repeat years and drop-out rates

The most general idea of the productivity of the system may obtained by comparing the number of pupils who embark on B.U.P. with the number of those who complete it in order to find the "percentage success rate". Up to 1982 (latest data available) four academic years have completed B.U.P. The success rate can be seen in Table IV.16.

The figures speak for themselves: the precentage of pupils who obtain the qualification of Bachillerato is very low, and is getting lower all the time. Let us look now at what happens to that 50% of pupils who do not complete the Bachillerato in the anticipated time. Analysis of delays and drop-out may complete one's idea of the productivity of the system in a more detailed way.

There are two ways of checking delays, i.e. people who take longer to complete a course: through the relationship between the age of the pupils and the year they are in, and through the number of people who are repeating a year. The first procedure has the disadvantage of our not knowing if the imbalance happened in the Bachillerato, or is a carry-over from before. In fact in the first two tears of the revised B.U.P., the majority of the pupils were older than the norm, as they came through from the previous study-plan. Thus it is that one third of the pupils are behind schedule in their studies. Therefore, although there are other disadvantages, such as not knowing if someone is repeating for

TABLE IV. 16 PERCENTAGE SUCCESSES OF B.U.P. STUDENTS

		% SUCCESS
Registered in 1st year, 1976-77	266,208	
Finishing B.U.P. in 1978-79	150,535	56.5
Registered in 1st year, 1977-78	291,043	
Finishing B.U.P. in 1979-80	163,998	56.3
Registered in 1st year, 1978-79	322,440	
Finishing B.U.P. in 1980-81	163,258	50.6
Registered in 1st year, 1979-80	322,848	
Finishing B.U.P. in 1981-82	159,102	49.3

(Source: Department of Statistical Studies, M.E.C. Bachillerato and C.O.U., 1982-83)

TABLE IV. 17 PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS REPEATING A YEAR IN B.U.P. IN THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1982-83 BY YEAR AND TYPE OF SHCOOL

TYPE OF SCHOOL / YEAR	STATE	PRIVATE	TOTAL
FIRST	15.11	7.09	12.42
SECOND	17.44	7.66	14.01
THIRD	16.52	5.60	12.63
TOTAL	16.29	6.84	13.1

Source: Department of Statistical Studies, M.E.C., Bachillerato and C.O.U., 1982-83.

the first or the second time, analysis of the percentage of people repeating is preferable. (See Table IV.17).

In the first place, one must insist on the difference between the total of pupils who are repeating and those who are behind schedule: 13.1% and 33.7% respectively. This shows that there are 20% who either started B.U.P. at a higher age, or who have previously repeated a year, for a person who repeats a year may be out of phase in terms of age in several.

One should also remark the significant differences in those repeating a year between state schools and private schools. To explain this fact there may be two types of hypothesis: either private education is of a higher quality, or it is less demanding. It could, of course, be acombination of both.

For C.O.U., the total percentage of people repeating is even higher (16.07), but it is in the state schools that this increases a lot (19.37); in the private schools the increase is much lower (7.84).

Here one must add to previously mentioned theories about the differences between state and private education, the fact that many private schools do not do C.O.U. This means that pupils have to change their school, and usually they will go to a state school, with the consequent confusion.

The estimate of the drop-out figures for the system during the three years of B.U.P. has been made - on the basis of some rather complicated calculations which we will not go into here - for two groups of pupils: those who began the Bachillerato in 1978-79 and in 1979-80.

TABLE IV. 18 PERCENTAGE OF DROP-OUTS IN THE THREE YEARS OF B.U.P. FOR TWO GROUPS OF PUPILS

GROUP / YEAR	1978-79	1979-80
First	9.03	10.91
Second	10.34	8.34
Third	4.57	6.10
TOTAL	22.94	25.35

(Source: Statistical Studies Unit, M.E.C. Bachillerato and C.O.U., 1982-83)

It will be seen that in both groups, about one quarter of those pupils who began B.U.P. dropped out, the highest proportion being in the 2nd year for the first group, and in the 1st year for the second.

To sum up these facts and figures concerning pupil's performance, one can say that 50% do not complete B.U.P. in the three years accorded to it. Of these, half of them give up their studies altogether, and the other half completes it one or two years behind

schedule. We shall not, here, go into the controversial argument as to what causes this failure. But it is clear that a level of education which is accesible by selection, for only about 65% of pupils who have attained the qualification of "graduado escolar" get on to the course, which has such a low level of productivity, can be seriously questioned.

1.6.2. Evaluation by subject *

In every year, the subject that caused more repeats was Mathematics, both in state schools and in private schools. (There in one notable exception here: in private shcools, 2nd year Physics and Chemistry was eight tenths higher than Mathematics).

Subject number 2 in terms of percentage repeats is not clear, as there are a number of variations; in 1st year state schools it was Languages, whereas in private schools it was Natural Sciences. In the 2nd year it was Physics and Chemistry, and in 3rd year it was Geography and History in state schools, and Physics and Chemistry in private ones.

As far as C.O.U. is concerned, the subjects in question are Physics and Chemistry, in state schools, and Spanish Language, in private shcools. The subjects with the lowest percentage of repeats

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(*) Source: General Inspectorate of Bachillerato. Annual Report on Bachillerato Schools, 1982-83. Study on a national (excluding Andalucía, Catalonia, Galicia and the Basque Country) stratified survey, in 203 schools (covering about 15% of the schools population).

are, in Bachillerato, Physical Education, and in C.O.U., Greek, both in state and private schools. In Tables IV.19 and IV.20 are given the final negative results for each subject in each year and by kind of school.

TABLE IV. 19 PERCENTAGES OF FAILURES BY SUBJECTS IN B.U.P. AND C.O.U. IN STATE SCHOOLS FOR 1981-82

SUBJECTS	1st	2nd	3rd	C.O.U.
Mathematics	40.18	35.02	30.94	25.79
Language & Lit.	31.25	22.03	12.70	14.92
Natural Sciences	28.64	-	20.71	17.60
Physics/Chemistry	-	34.99	28.29	25.81
French	28.34	24.30	18.87	13.38
English	28.04	25.98	22.86	12.43
Geography/History	27.21	15.20	18.04	11.93
Drawing	15.10	-	-	8.97
Latin	-	26.27	21.94	14.47
Greek	-	-	16.67	11.95
Philosophy	-	-	14.86	14.94
Average Percentage for course	28.46	26.47	20.81	16.91

Source: Annual Report concerning attitudes of pupils on finishing the Bachillerato

1.6.3. Some details concerning attitudes of pupils on finishing the Bachillerato

As we said at the beginning of this section, it is not customary - and it is difficult - to obtain details of those sapects of performance which are less easy to measure, such as attitudes, skills and the the behaviour or the pupils. For this reason we consider that it is interesting to include here some information which is available which, although it refers to one single aspect and one single year, may nevertheless serve to aid comprehension of the result of education in the Bachillerato.

TABLE IV. 20 PERCENTAGES OF FAILURES BY SUBJECTS IN B.U.P. AND C.O.U. IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS FOR 1981-82

SUBJECTS	1st	2nd	3rd	C.O.U.
Mathematics	21.04	20.70	16.99	11.39
Language & Lit.	14.83	11.72	6.77	7.54
Natural Sciences	14.47	-	9.44	9.28
Physics/Chemistry	-	23.17	16.93	13.07
French	15.74	12.89	9.21	7.17
English	13.99	14.25	9.92	8.54
Geography/History	12.57	7.32	9.51	7.68
Drawing	5.86	-	-	6.02
Latin	-	15.12	13.05	9.71
Greek	-	-	8.57	9.30
Philosophy	-	-	6.87	8.56
Average percentage for the course	13.95	15.34	10.76	9.25

Source: Annual Report of the Inspectorate of Bachillerato Schools, 1983.

This part of the conclusions obtained in an investigation into social attitudes of pre-university (COU) students carried out by INCIE, which nowadays is known as CIDE, in collaboration with the IEA (17), and which has been preceded by another similar one carried out in 5th and 8th year EGB. What interests us above all is the inforamtion relating to social attitudes if stydents on finising the Bachillerato, as compared with the attitudes that they held on starting it (i.e. at the end of EGB) and also in comparison with attitudes of young people of other countries for which we have data through the IEA.

Thus we take out this investigation the following way: "Spanish university students have a low to medium level of civic awareness as compared with those of other countries (very much lower than West Germany, and lower, too, than the United States, though higherr than Ireland), and yet their democratic attitudes and their maturity in their perception of social institutions are perfectly on a par with those of the young people of West Germany, the United States and Ireland)See Table IV. 21).

A positive development is thus recorded in terms of the political socialisation of Spanish COU pupils, as compared with those of 5th and 8th years of EGB. But progress is minimal in knowledge, and yet considerable in attitudes and perceptions in the sense of greater tolerance, democratic spirit and egalitarism, as well as a more realistic, detailed and critical view of society and a more complete perception of institutions. (Table IV. 21).

Spanish students of COU, in their social attitudes, are notably

low participation and interest in civic matters, have a very critical attitude towards the government, and have very little confidence in the efficiency of the political game. On the other hand, they show a decided support for democratic values, and they are tolerant, anti-aggression and egalitarism. Nonetheless they are realists, aware of social conflicts and forces, and have a mature vision of what constitutes good citizenship. 8see Tables IV. 21, IV. 22 and IV. 23).

Perception of the function of society on the part of the young Spaniards is realistic, but on the whole favourable, given that they attribute more positive functions and values to all institutions than negative ones, except to large companies and the Social Security. And. specifically, to institutions which are particularly the concern of democracy - political parties, Parliament, etc. they attribute them above all the value of freedom of expression.

Table IV.21 ATTITUDES TO DEMOCRATIC VALUES OF SPANISH PRE-UNIVERSITY STUDENTS COMPARED WITH OTHER COUNTRIES

	Pre-University & 8th & 5th YEARS OF EGB				8th year	5th
	W. Germany	Ireland	USA	Spain	Spain	Spain
Antiauthoritarism	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.1	3.7	3.3
	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5
Tolerance & Support for Civil Liberties	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.3	4.0	3.7
	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6
Support for Womens' Rights	4.6	4.1	3.8	4.6	4.2	3.7
	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.9
Sense of Political Effectiveness	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.6	3.5
	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6
Critical Spirit	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.3	3.6	3.1
	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.8

TABLE IV 22 POLITICAL INTEREST AND PARTICIPATION OF SPANISH STUDENTS OF COU, COMPARED WITH PRE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS OF IRELAND, GERMANY AND THE USA, AND THOSE OF 5TH AND 8TH YEARS OF EGB.

	PRE UNIVERSITY				8 EGB	5 EGB
	WEST GERMANY	IRELAND	USA	SPAIN	SPAIN	SPAIN
Interest in social matters on TV	2.6 0.3	2.6 0.4	2.4 0.4	2.6 0.3	2.3 0.4	2.0 0.4
Discussion of political matters with parents	2.0 0.7	1.9 0.6	1.9 0.6	2.1 0.6	2.0 0.6	1.9 0.6
Discussion of political matters with teachers	2.0 0.6	1.7 0.5	2.3 0.6	1.3 0.4	1.9 0.7	1.6 0.6
Participation in civic activities	4.2 1.2	4.3 1.4	4.6 1.6	3.9 1.3	4.1 1.3	3.9 1.4
Democratic behaviour in groups of friends	3.7 1.2	2.8 1.1	2.8 1.2	2.9 1.4	3.2 1.3	2.6 1.3
Interest in social science classes	3.5 0.7	3.6 0.8	3.1 0.6	3.1 0.7	3.3 0.8	3.3 0.9

TABLE IV23 ATTITUDES TOWARDS SOCIAL GROUPS AMONG PRE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN SPAIN AND IN OTHER COUNTRIES, AND IN 8TH AND 5TH YEARS OF BUP

	PRE UNIVERSITY				8EGB	5 EGB
	WEST GERMANY	IRELAND	USA	SPAIN	SPAIN	SPAIN
Receptivity to the influence of pressure groups	-	-	-	2.0 0.9	1.9 0.9	1.9 0.9
Rejection of adult conflict	1.8 1.1	2.1 1.4	2.3 1.4	1.8 1.1	2.5 1.4	3.3 1.4
Egalitarian attitude	11.2 1.8	11.2 2.2	10.8 2.2	11.9 1.7	10.6 2.6	8.3 3.0

2. VOCATIONAL TRAINING (FORMACION PROFESIONAL)

2.1. THE SITUATION PRIOR TO THE GENERAL EDUCATION ACT, 1970.

In the 19th century they were created in Spain, on the initiative of local institutions, the Schools of Arts and Crafts, which were the precursors of the modern vocational training schools, within the ideological framework of the enlightened philosophy which advocated the idea of popular education. These schools, the educators of the working-classes, had two objectives: one, to give direct instruction to the least-favoures strata of society, in order to emancipate them from their lack of culture and, the other, the fact that the incipient capitalist development of the country was going to require new professionals, manual workers who would be a solid support to the intell-ctual workers, engineers and architects, who would carry through the economic development of the country.

The most significant progress in professional training was made during the period of industrial development at the time of the dictatorship of Primo de Rivera (1923-1930). In 1924, the Statute of Industrial Education was enacted, and in 1928 that of Professional Training, with which was undertaken the structuring of this quasi-system into what would be a workers'

and artisans' vocational training, an outline of permanent education of adults, the training of auxiliary engineering personnel and professional guidance.

The main characteristic of the quasi-system outline by the Statute of Industrial Education is a basic pre-professional guiding of studies, discounted from the rest of the educational ststem, which already, therefore, pre-established a system of vocational training which was relatively independent. An example of this is the fact that, in order to enter the Workers' Schools, neither examination nor other academic requirement was insisted on, in such a way that there was no competition at all between the general education system and the professional system in terms of numbers of potential pupils. The percentage figures of pupils in secondary education were so low that neither type of education competed with the other, nor needed to do so in order to attract pupils.

Thus vocational training possessed the following characteristics: 1) professionalism, i.e. the objectives were strictly professional; 2) no connection at all between the educational system and the system of vocational training; 3) flexibility, as shown by the fact that there was no school year as such, and thus no preordained period of studies or school calendar; 4) autonomy and decentralization of decision-making, as it was the exclusive prerogative of the local authority and not of the Ministry of Education; 5) unity of management, in that

it came under the Ministry of Labour and of Social Security

Following the Civil War of 1936-39 and until 1949, no changes were made to this system of professional education, and it was in 1949 that the Basic Law of Secondary and Vocational Education was encated, and this was to alter the whole system, sometimes operating in a counter-productive way.

Thus, secondary and professional education, which later on would be called, first,"Bachillerato Laboral"and then ultimately "Bachillerato Técnico", put forward the idea of an extension of secondary education:

'to extend secondary education to the greatest possible number of pupils', as the first deposition of the Basic Law of Secondary and Professional Education puts it. This type of education is now professional and cultural, and conceives the Bachillerato (Laboral o Técnico) as being parallel to the traditional Bachillerato, connecting professionalism with secondary education.

The "Workers' Bachillerato" (Laboral) began to be taught after 1949 in the Workers' Institutes set up in areas where secondary schools did not exist. Students received secondary education, to which courses in modules such as agriculture, animal husbandry, industry, fisheries or administrative were added.

As the years went by, theses Institutes gradually became a part of secondary education, until the two branches of the Ba-

chillerato fused in 1967. The "Workers' Bachillerato" reflected, as we have said, more the expansion in secondary education than any kind of contribution to the qualifications of the manpower.

Another advance in professional education between 1955 and 1970 was the setting-up of the Labour Universities, to give higher education to boys and girls in rural areas. They offered courses in vocational training at the 3rd level (middle-grade technical schools) and also included the "Workers' Bachillerato". Financed by the workers and employers by means of vocational training contributions or quotas, controlled by the Ministry of Labour in some cases, by religious orders in others, these "Labour Universities" were one of the educational showpieces of the Franco régime.

But the true antecedent to present-day professional studies can be found in the Law of Professional/Industrial Training of 1955, the principal aim of which was to train qualified people in sufficient numbers for the "professional training of operatives". This type of education had to include "at all levels in all categories, the necessary information, as well as things of a complementary nature concerning physical, intellectual, social and political, and moral education of pupils, so that they acquire a basic, or specialized, professional aptitude, and a cultural level appropriate to their age, labour category and social medium in which they have to do their work."

With the setting-up of two professional levels, skilled and semi-skilled, (Oficialía and Maestría Industrial) which gave their respective diplomas, the former became apprentices of the old traditional type which still survives, shile those with the title of "Maestro Industrial" were considered as being superior in category to the basic manpower, and has access to production of jobs of a higher degree, and even on training or teaching.

The main characteristics of vocational education derived from these Oficialías and Maestrías and from the Workers' Bachillerato where, during these years, the following occured: 1) the system advocated, ideally, a double nature, cultural and professional, although in practice, it was basically professional; 2) through the Workers' Bachillerato, vocational training was extended to non-industrial sectors, such as agriculture and administration; 3) the lack of connection with the rest of the system continued insofar as the training of manpower was concerned.

The "Bachillerato Técnico" reached its highest figure in 1965-66 with 49,796 pupils, which, when added to the 126,617 in industrial vocational training made up one fifth of the 834,290 pupils in Bachillerato for the academic year in question.

Before the Industrial Vocational Training Law of 1955, the school population was divided into those who did Bachillerato, and those who did two years of basic schooling, who were in

the majority. With the setting-up of the Oficialía and Maestría, there was another alternative: a pre-apprenticeship at the age of 12, industrial apprenticeship from 12 to 14 and finally, Maestría from 14 to 17. The switch from the Industrial Maestría to Bachillerato was not foreseen, although it was from the Workers' Bachillerato to vocational training (FP). The two modes of Bachillerato covered the ages 10-18, and FP covered the ages 13-24.

The "Bachillerato Técnico", was declared extinct by an Act of April 8, 1967, and the technical schools became Bachillerato schools.

Just prior to the General Education Act of 1970 (LGE) there were 151,997 pupils registered in Industrial F.P., who, added to the 23,345 from the Workers' Bachillerato, made up 13% of the total of 1,371,000 Bachillerato students; i.e. 3% of the school population at that age.

2.2. THE GENERAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1970 (LGE)

The General Education Act of 1970 (LGE) was an answer to the need for reform of the educational system, attempting, on the one hand, to bring it into line with the new production structure, and on the other, to respond to the cultural aspirations of the population.

TABLE IV 24 NUMBERS OF STUDENTS REGISTERED IN THE BACHILLERATO GENERAL; LABORAL, AND IN FORMACION PROFESIONAL INDUSTRIAL 1949-1970.

	Bachillerato General	Bachillerato Laboral	Formación Profesional
1949-50	214.897		
50-51	221.809	720	
51-52	224.633	1.414	
52-53	249.605	2.842	
53-54	261.744	4.702	
54-55	292.503	7.008	
55-56	328.010	9.706	
56-57	370.970	10.997	
57-58	404.936	11.987	
58-59	420.852	13.119	
59-60	448.311	14.287	
60-61	474.057	23.378	73.733
61-62	564.111	29.474	84.076
62-63	622.872	30.396	92.815
63-64	682.226	36.253	104.470
64-65	745.044	44.482	118.844
65-66	834.290	49.796	126.617
66-67	929.589	48.728	132.291
67-68	1.124.936	40.052	136.045
68-69	1.207.006	32.230	146.625
69-70	1.371.078	23.345	151.997

Source: Facts and Figures on Education in Spain, 1970, 1972, Ministy of Education.

TABLE IV 25 PUPIL FIGURES FOR 1969-70

	Bachillerato General (10-18 yrs.)	Bachillerato Laboral (10-18 yrs.)	Formación Profesional (13-24 yrs)
Population	5,018,780	5,018,780	6,365,663
Students registered	1,371,078	23,345	151,997
Percentage	27.32	0.47	3.00

Source: Facts and Figures on Education in Spain, 1970-72, MEC.

Within the new system, the FP of the 1st and 2nd levels was to train the qualified manpower required for the production techniques of the seventies, and thus constitute, with the projected 3rd level which has never actually come to pass, a complete education having as its objective the preparation of pupils for the world of employment.

FP1 is taught after the end of EGB and takes 2 years, while FP 2, at least in theory, is dedicated to professional trainning. However, the bridge that was envisaged between the educational system and the production system has never really happened, except in a very few cases. During the years in which FP has been in existence, as a replacement for the old Oficialías and Maestrías, the adjustment between the scholastic st-up and the production set-up has never been more than just an idea.

Both in the "White Book On Education" (Libro Blanco de la Educación), 1969,* as well as in the proposal of the LGE, the three different levels of FP were first seen as, respectively, a termination to the educational levels of EGB, BUP and 1st university cycle for those pupils who were not going to continue in the educational system, rather than as an independent autonomous course, in which one level would follow on the other level numerically below it, even when this possibility was admitted legally.

The original line continued to be in force in the preamble to Decree 707&1976, dated March 5th, dealing with the ordering of FP.

* See Chapter 1, note 2

What is more, this criterion was reflected in administrative practice by defining the instructions, according to which, in 1971, the various plans and projects for educational needs at provincial level for the four years 1871-75 were made. Thus, in accordance with these directives, it was fixed as a criterion for the whole country, that educational needs in FP 2 should be established on the basis of it being envisaged that 30% of the total population of 17-18 years old would be drawn to it.

These forecats were displaced by events, and in an almost automatic way by the same law, due to the entering into operation of BUP, FP1 and FP2.

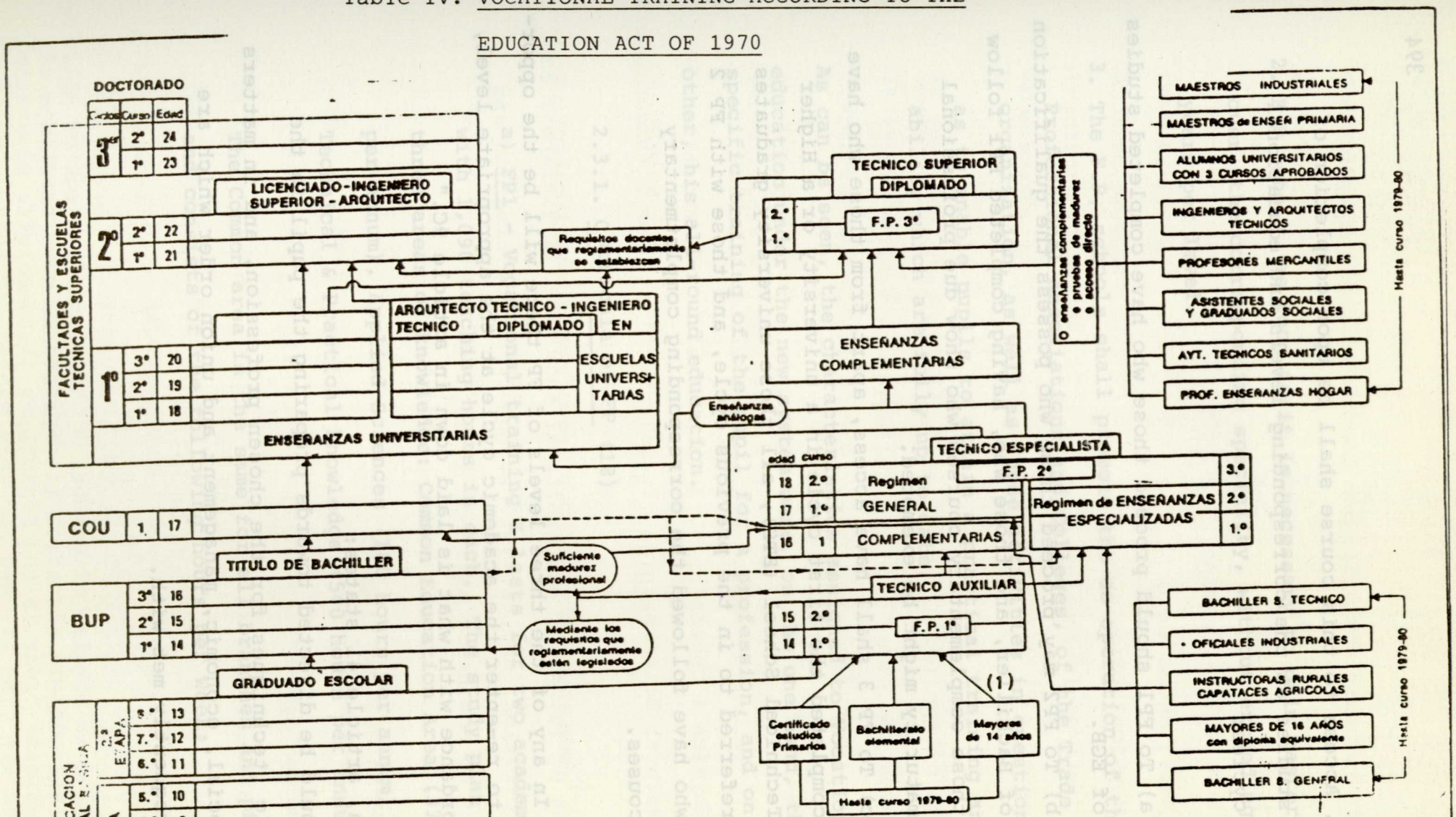
2.3. VOCATIONAL TRAINING I and II. VOCATIONAL TRAINING III

Articles 40 and 41 of the LGE of 1970 deal with and define professional training at its various levels and assign to them the following objectives:

Article 40 states that:

"1. FP shall have as its specific objective, the training of pupils for the carrying on of their chosen profession, as well as of carrying on with their general education . It should maintain, in organization and performance, a close relationship with the structure and estimation of work.

Table IV. VOCATIONAL TRAINING ACCORDING TO THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1970



(1) Access exam or preparatory course (Decree 995/74 on the Ordenation of Vocational Training.

Source: "EDUTEC" nº 5. November 1974

2. Access to this course shall be upon completion of studies at the corresponding levels and educational cycles:

a) To FP1 should proceed those who have completed studies of EGB.

b) To FP2 may proceed those who possess the qualification of Bachiller, and those who, having completed FP1 follow those complementary courses who show due professional maturity might be exempted.

c) To FP 3 shall have access, apart from those who have completed the first cycle in a university or a Higher Technical School (ETS), all those university graduates referred to in the previous cycle, and those with FP 2 who have followed the corresponding completmentary couses.

3. In any of the three levels of FP there will be the opportunity to re-enter the academic cycle at the appropriate level, in accordance with what is laid down in article 9C."

In turn, article 41 states:

"FP should be directed towards preparing the pupil in the specific techniques for the chosen profession, and in matters of a social, economic, management and union order which are most frequently met with.

2. F.P. shall, as long as it is necessary to gain mastery over the corresponding speciality, without exceeding two years per level.

3. The F.P, schools shall promote the co-operation of the Professional Associations and Colleges, of the Trade Union organization, as well as those activities in question, so as to enable pupils to attain a practical training and ability which are fully up to date.

As can be seen, the characteristics assigned to Vocational education under the new system were, on the one hand, the specific training of the pupil for a profession, and on the other, his all-round education.

2.3.1. Curricula of FP (18)

a) FP1 - Vocational training I lasts for two academic years, with 1,090 teaching hours in each. The study plan contains three areas of knowledge: Common Education Area (370 hours per annum), Applied Sciences (180 hours per annum) and Technical & Practical knowledge (540 hours per annum).

The Common area is the same for all branches and professions, and consists of the following hours per week:

	1st year	2nd year
Spanish Language	2	2
Modern Language	1	2
Humanistic Training	2	2
Religion or Moral	2	1
Physical Education	1	1
Civic/Social/Political Ed.*	2	2

The area of Applied Sciences varies according to the chosen profession and year, with the following subjects:

Mathematics	2 (common)	2/3 (not less than 1)
Physics & Chemistry	2 (separate)	2 (sometimes 3)
Natural Sciences	1 (id)	0 or 1 (sometimes 2)

The area of Technical and Practical Knowledge is different for each profession, and attempts to import all information and practice of the basic skill of a job.

Techniques of graphic Expression & Comment.	3	2 or 3
Technology	3	3
Practical Classes	9	9

* According to the Law of October 3, 1979, the subject of political/social/economic education is replaced by some teachings of constitutional order in the Department of Humanistic Education, for which the time allowed for this subject increased by 1 hour.

Comparing the distribution of the different areas of FP with the old Oficialías,

	FP	Oficialías
Common Areas	9	8
Applied Sciences	5	7
Practical/Technical Knowledge	15	25

We see that the practical area has been reduced, even though it is fundamental in this type of course, and yet how little change there has been in the common education area.

The branches and professions of FP are as follows:

1. Mining	Quarrying
	Open-cast mining
2. Agriculture	Agricultural & cattle exploitation
	Extensive farming
	Intensive farming
	Stockbreeding without land
	Forestry
	Agricultural machinery
	Family rural economy
3. Fisheries/ Maritime	Machines
	Merchant-ship vridge and deck
	Trawler bridge & Deck
	Electricity

	Radio
	Underwater activities
	Lodgings
4. Metal	Mechanics
	Metal Constructions
5. Electricity	Electricity
	Electronics
6. Chemistry	Laboratory operative
	Plant operative
7. Textiles	Textiles
8. Leather	Designer - pattern-maker, cutter
	Preparation-workshop
	Shoemaker-stamper-out
9. Construction	Bricklaying
	Stone & Marble
	Cement-mixer
	Reinforced concrete
	Fixed & Movable machines
	Plumbing
	Decorative painting

10. Wood	Wood
11. Household	Household
12. Administrative/Commercial	Administrative
	Secretarial
	Commercial
13. Hotels/ Tourism	Cooking
	Running of Flats
	Services
14. Fashion/ Dressmaking	Fashion/Dressmaking
15. Sanitary	Clinics
16. Glass/ Ceramics	Industrial glass
	Industrial ceramics
17. Graphic Art	Composing
	Photo-mechanical reproduction
	Printing
	Binding
18. Draughtsmanship	Draughtsmanship

19. Automobiles Car mechanics

Car electrics

20. Image/Sound Image Sound

21. Hair & Beauty Hairdressing

Beautician

B) FP 2

The second level of FP builds on knowledge acquired in the Bachillerato and offers the opportunity of acquiring concrete working techniques. The duration of the course is two academic years.

Within FP 2 there exists the system of general education (2 courses) and specialized education (3 courses) with similar study plans. The first of these covers 5% of pupils and the second, the remaining 95%, which means that the tendency of pupils is towards professionalisation in three years, thus making FP2 equal to the first degree of university education in duration. The only difference is that FP pupils do not to COU, and thus save one year.

The study-plan for FP2 (General Education) consists of three areas with the following timerable:

	1st Year	2nd Year
Common Educational Area	215 hours per annum	288
Technological/practical Knowledge	792	684
Organisation of companies	72	108

The Common Educational Area has one timetable for all branches of:

Modern Language	3 hours/week	3
Religious or moral Education	1	1
Civic/Social/Political Ed.	1	2
Physical Education/Sport	1	2

The area of Technological/Practical knowledge is different for each speciality, and the weekly timetable is as follows:

Company organisation	1 hour	1
Safety & hygiene	1	1
Legislation	1	1

Students of FP who complete the course receive the title of "Técnico Auxiliar". This title is also given to those who come from an adaptation course and have passed the technical area, and physics & chemistry of the 2nd year of Bachillerato, as well as to those pupils over 18 who, because of their training and level of knowledge, pass the pre-established tests of maturity.

Students who successfully complete FP II, whether according to the General System, or the Specialized Training, receive the title of "Técnico Especialista", which enables them to: a) proceed directly to the complementary courses for moving up from FP2 to FP 3 (a regulation which was never put into practice; b) to go on into COU, or c) to go on to the first year of University Schools which give similar training.

C) FP3

FP3 has never been set up. As we have stated earlier, one would have been able to pass on to FP3 from FP 2, or according to the 1974 Decree, from many different types of studies, which would have been made it necessary to regularise knowledge and skills.

The professional result which was envisaged for this type of study was the title of "Técnico Superior Diplomado", which would enable the student to enter the second cycle of university education according to requirements.

With FP 3 the idea was to reduce, on the one hand, the general mass of university education, dispersing the students of the first university educational cycle by giving part of these students a direct outlet, without their having to pass through the second. It was also thought to make this type of education more attractive by giving more prestige to FP as a whole. By associating it with higher education, this might be brought about.

All of this produced obvious difficulties when it came to setting up. The diverse nature of the earlier FP system became more and more evident, as, from an educational point of view, it is difficult to conceive a common area of studies for students of such varying educational bakgrounds. In addition, the cost of this course would have been very high, even if taught in already existing centres. The setting-up of special centres would have made the cost even higher.

The professional results of the course would have been difficult in the extreme. It seems difficult to understand what 'Técnico Superior Diplomado' means as compared to the first cycle of higher technical education (engineers and architects), and this would have postulated or induced a reform of the university system of technical education.

2.3.2. Means of access, and scholastic origins of FP students

Decree 995/74 (Table IV 26) of March 14 (BOE 18.4.74.), revoked because of defects in form, and reproduced practically in the same terms by Decree 5 of March 1976, ended up by completing the development of the Law with respect to the old system, refering to a very important characteristic in the studies of FP, i.e. the different scholastic origins of the pupils.

As we have seen, FP 1 is entered on by pupils completing EGB with the 'Certificado de Escolaridad'. An order of April 25, 1975 permitted repetition of two years of EGB to those pupils, who, although having some deficiency, could make normal progress in a scholastic year, although this repetition could never take them

beyond 16 years of age.

According to Decree 995/74 (Table IV 26), another type of pupil could, until the 1978-80 course, enter FP 1, although having a different scholasting background to the EGB. These were those who possessed the title of the old Bachiller Elemental (four years schooling), or those who had a certificate of primary studies, or those people over 14 without any kind of title, but who had passed an entrance test or had completed some kind of adaptation course.

According to the same decree, the old 'Bachilleres Tecnicos', the 'Oficiales Industriales' from the Industrial FP and people holding the title of 'Bachiller General' could enter FP 2.

As has been seen, the possibilities of entrance to, and exit from, these courses are extraordinarily complex, since access is permitted to pupils of very diverse types of early training, which therefore must have an unfavourable effect on the development of education.

Any attempt to reduce, or eliminate the administrative complications in order to pass from one section to another has caused technical difficulties in terms of following a course of study without an adequate previous grounding.

The area where this varied initial training has proved to be most vesatious has been in FP 2, to which entry can be made from the Bachillerato, or from any of the specialities of FP 1, without taking into account those who came from other types of study of an equivalent nature to FP 1 (see Table IV 26).

In the first year of FP 1 seven subjects have to compete for thirteen hours of class a week, with a resulting average of less than 2 hours each. For example, to devote one hour a week to studying a modern language is practically equivalent to losing it altogether, and the same thing can be said of the one hour a week given to natural sciences.

It is interesting to compare this situation to the 1st year of BUP, where, in addition to there being a better degree of earlier training of the pupils, 29 hours of class a week are divided up between seven subjects, with a resulting average of more than four hours a week.

2.4. FACTS AND FIGURES ON SCHOOLING

FP is taught in different types of schools. The first thing to note is that 42% are state schools, and 58% private, with a total of 2,366 schools, there having been a constant increase in recent years, above all in the state schools, which fact undoubtedly improves the capacity for taking in pupils (20) (Table IV 27).

The state schools are divides into Polytechnic Institutes (600), National FP Centres attached to Schools (474), section of Bachillerato schools which teach FP (173). The private schools are divided into Polytechnic Institutes (942), FP Centres (225) and sections of Bachillerato schools which teach FP (90). In these last, the education must be confirmed by teachers, evaluated in official centres of approved by special tribunals.

There is a lack of proportion between space in classrooms,

laboratories, workshops and special classrooms:

	Places
in classrooms	688,712
in laboratories	81,109
workshops	219,208
special classrooms	81,537

These courses are covered by 42,174 teachers, 59% of whom work in state schools, and the remaining 41%, in private schools (Table IV 27).

Figures for pupils in 1982-83 reached a total of 650,929 pupils (Table IV 29). By the school-year 1979-80 the numbers registered in FP had passed the half-million mark, although inspite of the continuous growth, it would seem that these figures are insufficient in relation to the total for education as a whole, as the figures for BUP are close to a million.

The growth in FP slowed down in 1982-83 as compared to 1980-81, the growth figure dropping from 11% to 5%.

The figures continue to show us that FP 2 is growing in importance inside the system as a whole, given that pupils who are studying the second level of FP are mostly pupils who have failed in BUP, as is shown by the tiny number of pupils from FP 1 who cover places in complementary studies for access to FP 2.

TABLE IV 27 FIGURES FOR PUPULS, TEACHERS AND SCHOOLS OF FP, 1970-83

	STATE SCHOOLS			PRIVATE SCHOOLS		
	PUPILS	SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	PUPILS	SCHOOLS	TEACHERS
70-71	51.452	130	3.612	100.308	357	7.784
71-72	58.633	135	3.811	100.372	436	9.742
72-73	64.434	153	4.118	113.717	531	9.693
73-74	68.108	156	4.779	136.641	846	12.370
74-75	80.361	236	6.609	153.554	920	15.615
75-76	120.112	425	8.546	185.142	1.206	19.197
76-77	153.140	597	10.307	205.904	1.268	17.321
77-78	175.902	581	10.524	231.910	1.297	17.551
78-79	211.729	667	13.374	244.214	1.304	17.388
79-80	253.302	722	15.677	261.817	1.315	17.906
80-81	301.673	864	19.653	257.135	1.278	16.903
81-82	345.809	936	23.036	273.281	1.387	17.154+
82-83	362.692	991	25.082	288.078	1.375	17.092

Source, Statistics on Formacion Profesional, MEC Statistics Department, 1982-83

Table IV 28 FP 2 STUDENTS: SCHOLASTIC ORIGIN

	% 1982-83
Period of adaptation	0.5
First Level	66.5
Complementary studies for access to Second Level	0.8
Second Level	32.2

(Source Statistics on Formación Profesional, MEC Statistics Dept. 1982-83).

Female participation in the total registration figures is:

	Female Students	% Total
FP 1	177,292	41
FP 2	80,672	39
	257,964	

The percentage scholastic figures for the total of FP 1 and FP 2 are as follows:

TABLE IV 30 Pupil Figures

AGE	BOYS %	GIRLS %	TOTAL %
14	22.95	13.43	18.29
15	27.59	17.15	22.50
16	22.79	15.09	19.04
17	16.24	11.69	14.01
18	11.52	8.92	10.26
19	6.52	5.86	6.19

TABLE IV 29 FIGURES FOR PUPILS AND TEACHERS OF FORMACION PROFESIONAL.

	PUPILS REGISTERED	ANNUAL INCREASE %	TEACHERS
1966-67	125.577	-	10.514
1967-68-	136.045	8,34	10.518
1968-69	146.625	7,78	-
1969-70	150.997	2,98	-
1970-71	151.760	0,50	11.396
1971-72	159.005	4,77	12.554
1972-73-	178.151	12,04	13.811
1973-74	204.749	14,93	17.149
1974-75	233.915	14,24	22.224
1975-76	305.254	30,50	28.283
1976-77	359.044	17,62	27.628
1977-78+	407.812	13,58	28.075
1978-79	455.943	11,77	30.762
1979-80	515.119	12,98	33.583
1980-81	558.808	8,48	36.556
1981-82	619.090	10,79	40.190
1982-83	650.929	5,14	42.174

Source: Statistics on F.P. (MEC) 1.982-83.

(Source Statistics Dept. MEC (1982-83) FP Statistics)

An average of 17% of the population from 14 to 19 studies either FP 1 of FP 2. However, sex has an important influence in the percentage figures.

	BOYS %	GIRLS %
Ages 14-16 in FP 1	26.26	19.33
Ages 17-19 in FP 2	13.06	8.58
Ages 14-19 in FP 1 and 2	19.66	13.96

In FP 1 the figure for girls is 74% of that for boys, and in FP 2 the difference is greater, 66%, and in FP 1 and 2 for all ages from 14 to 19, the figure is 71% of the boys.

There are imbalances between specialities, for those which need fewer resources hace developed, like Administration (Table IV 31). In other branches the teaching proves too costly, mainly due to the underutilisation of schools. 34.8% of the total registration is absorbed by the Administation speciality (226,573).

From among the industrial areas the ones which stand out are Electricity and Electronics, with 23.2% (151,515 pupils), followed by Automobiles with 7.8% (50,820 pupils) and chemistry, with 1.1% (7,205). The rest of the specialities have a vey low number of pupils

2.5. PERFORMANCE AND QUALITY IN FP

A) Performance in the transition from EGB to BUP and FP

TABLE IV 31 FORMACION PROFESIONAL STUDENTS, CLASSIFIED BY LEVEL AND AREA OF STUDY

Area of Study	First Level		General branch		Special education		Total 2nd Level		General Total	
	Pupils	%	Pupils	%	Pupils	%	Pupils	%	Pupils	%
Administrative	144,373	32.8	2,437	25.3	79,763	39.9	82,200	39.2	226,573	34.8
Agricultural	7,917	1.8	52	0.5	2,242	1.1	2.294	1.1	10,211	1.6
Graphic Art	1,818	0.4	-	-	1,170	0.6	1,170	0.6	2,988	0.5
Automobile	37,089	8.4	-	-	13,731	6.9	13.731	6.6	50,820	7.8
Draughtsmanship	18,970	4.3	168	1.7	16,369	8.2	16,537	7.9	35,507	5.5
Electricity and Electronics	100,190	22.7	284	2.9	51,041	25.5	51,325	24.4	151,515	23.2
Catering	2,823	0.6	236	2.4	567	0.3	803	0.4	3,626	0.6
Woodwork	3,823	0.9	27	0.3	876	0.4	903	0.4	4,726	0.7
Maritime|Fisheries	2,309	0.5	-	-	661	0.3	661	0.3	2,979	0.5
Metalwork	36,015	8.2	22	0.2	17,918	9.0	17,940	8.6	53,955	8.3
Fashion and Dressmaking	2,252	0.5	25	0.3	308	0.2	333	0.2	2,585	0.4
Mining	80	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	80	-
Hairdressing and Beauty	22,553	5.1	59	0.6	1,489	0.7	1,548	0.7	24,101	3.7
Leather|Fur	644	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	644	0.1
Chemistry	3,581	0.8	426	4.4	3,198	1.6	3,624	1.7	7,205	1.1
Textiles	226	0.1	-	-	104	0.1	104	-	330	0.1
Health	27.089	6.1	4,277	44.3	2,329	1.2	6.606	3.2	33,695	5.2
Vision and Sound	1,001	0.2	-	-	869	0.4	869	0.4	1,870	0:3
Glassware and Ceramics	131	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	131	-
Domestic Science	16,334	3,7	208	2.1	5,879	2.9	6,087	2.9	22,421	3.4
Construction	272	0.1	-	-	34	-	34	-	306	-
Others	1,173	0.3	991	10.2	1,049	0.5	2,040	1.0	3.213	0.5
Without specific order	-	-	-	-	318	0.2	318	0.2	318	-
Subject not stated	10,639	2.4	. 469	4.8	31	-	500	0.2	11,139	1.7
Total	441,302	100.0	9,681	100.0	199,946	100.0	209,627	100.0	650,929	100.0

(Source, MEC, Department of Statistics, 1982-83, Statistics for Formacion Profesional)

TABLE IV 32 PERFORMANCE IN EGB AND DROP OUT RATES AT THE END OF EGB

	Pupils successfully finishing EGB			Pupils registered in:			Drop-outs
	Graduado Escolar	Certificado de escolaridad	Total	1°B.U.P.	1°F.P. I	Total	
1974-75	322.306	151.602	473.908	--	--	--	--
1975-76	337.265	181.216	518.481	255.014	151.991	407.005	66.903
1976-77	372.358	210.484	582.842	266.208	161.832	428.040	90.441
1977-78	403.710	216.170	619.880	291.043	171.636	468.679	114.163
1978-79	392.392	233.261	625.653	322.440	194.020	516.460	103.420
1979-80	405.677	244.416	650.093	322.848	224.535	547.383	78.270
1980-81	426.038	224.117	650.155	323.848	235.258	558.376	91.717
1981-82	--	--	--	331.908	249.384	581.292	68.863

Source: Statistics on F.P. (MEC).

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In Table IV 32 we can see performance in EGB and the drop-out rate at the end of same, with details of those passing to BUP and FP 1.

From this statistical table we can draw a series of conclusions which give a fairly clear picture. We observe that those with the Diploma of Graduado Escolar pass on to 1st year of BUP with the usual amount of drop-outs, who in anu case appear to go on to FP 1. Those with the Certificado de Escolaridad pass in their entirety to FP 1, there being just a few drop-outs which are difficult to quantify.

Now, a sociological interpretation of these figures gives us a different perspective. According to the study which we are referring to here (21), these figures hide the fact that, between the ages of 13 and 16, around 500,000 young people might find themselves expelled from the system, some of them from EGB, others in the process of transition from EGB to BUP or FP 1, others in the 1st year of BUP and others in the 1st year of FP 1. (Table IV 32).

This argument derives from the following hypothesis: a) the total number of Graduados Escolares and Certificados de Escolaridad is higher, in many provinces, than registration figures for 8th year of EGB (Table IV 33), a phenomenon which is explained by the phrase 'overestimation of the figures of Certificados de Escolaridad' b) by contrasting the Certificados de Escolaridad with the registration figures for 1st year of FP 1, and the Graduados Escolares with the registration in 1st year of BUP (excluding repeat years in 1st year of FP 1 and 1st year of BUP) one can see that just by excluding repeats, the figure of 68,863 becomes a figure of 119,293.

TABLE IV 33 CONTRAST BETWEEN REGISTRATION FOR EGB AND FIGURES FOR SCHOOL CERTIFICATES - GRADUADOS ESCOLARES.

8TH EGB	GE+CE	DIFFERENCE
1980-81	1980-81	
581,846	650,155	68,309

Contrast between Schools Certificates and Registration in FP 1, 1st year.

CE 1980-81	FP 1 1981-82	DIFFERENCE
224,117	241,124	17,007

Contrast between figures of Graduados Escolares and registration for 1st year of BUP.

GE 1980-81	1st Year BUP	DIFFERENCE
426,038	293,140	-132,898

Source, R. Ordovas, Paper on 'FP and employment' Papers on Economics and Education, CIDE, May 1984).

Whereas the differences between the figures for Graduados Escolares and registration in 1st year of BUP always give negative values, showing that there exists a certain number of Graduados Escolares who do not move on to BUP, the differences between Certificados de Escolaridad and registration in 1st year of FP 1 sometimes turn out positive and sometimes negative.

All this signifies that neither all Graduados Escolares go on to BUP, nor do all Certificados de Escolaridad go on to FP 1. And what is more, those places theoretically occupied by Certificados de Escolaridad are being occupied in increasing proportions by Graduados Escolares registered in FP 1 are failures from 1st year of BUP (op. cit).

B) The relationship age/ registered pupils and registered pupils/graduates

Drop-out rates are difficult to quantify due to the absence of any specific research in this field. However, the statistics department of the MEC has attempted an estimate of delays and drop-outs by relating the pupils registered for each course to the theoretical age at which they should be doing it (22).

According to this estimate (Tables IV 34 and IV 35), only 41.3% of the total number of pupils in FP 1 do the course at the right time, i.e. 14 and 15 years of age. Registration for the second year of FP 1 for 1982-83 should be the same as registration for the first year in 1981-2, minus those who are repeating, and minus the drop-outs. According to this, 69,918 have dropped out of FP 1 which they began in 1981-2, in 1982-3; a figure which represents

28% of first-year students in 1981-82, and 29.4% of those who began their studies in that year - a very high proportion.

The ages for doing FP 2 are 17 and 18, and there is a relatively high percentage of 16-year old students registered in the first year, of 17-year olds in the second year, and of 18-year olds in the third year, which leads one to suppose that there is a high percentage doing the course at the right age, although this would seem to be a somewhat illusory figure (62.4%). The proportion of delays in FP 2 is lower than in FP 1.

In FP 2 as a whole in 1981-82 and 1982-83, 2,053 students dropped out, which figure represents 38.2% of those registered for the first year in 1981-82. However in specialised education as a whole (three years), the drop-out rates are lower than in the general system and in FP 1.

Since 1980-81, the year in which the third-year students of 1982-83 began, 16,956 students have dropped out of the system, 26% of those registered for the first year. Although the figures for repeat years are not known, and therefore the rate against those who started their studies cannot be found, we see that, of the total number of students who dropped out, 9,609 did so between 1st and 2nd year, and 7,347 between 2nd and 3rd year, figures which, in relative terms, represent 16% abd 11% of the registration for the 1st year in 1980-81.

As can also be seen in these tables, the drop-out rate by ages is higher in private schools than in state schools.

TABLE IV. 34 ENROLLED PUPILS AT F.P. 1 - SCHOOL YEAR 1982-83

AGE	MALES						FEMALES						TOTAL					
	1st COURSE		2nd COURSE		TOTAL		1st COURSE		2nd COURSE		TOTAL		1st COURSE		2nd COURSE		TOTAL	
	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%	PUPILS	%
Public sector																		
14 years.....	45.175	28,2	1.342	0,8	46.517	29,0	16.296	24,2	765	1,1	17.061	25,3	61.471	27,0	2.107	0,9	63.578	27,9
15 "	29.303	18,3	25.339	15,8	54.642	34,1	9.808	14,5	10.099	15,0	19.907	29,5	39.111	17,2	35.438	15,5	74.549	32,7
16 "	13.516	8,4	19.623	12,3	33.139	20,7	5.043	7,5	7.210	10,7	12.253	18,2	18.559	8,1	26.833	11,8	45.392	19,9
17 "	4.227	2,6	9.937	6,2	14.164	8,8	2.445	3,6	4.282	6,3	6.727	9,9	6.672	2,9	14.219	6,2	20.891	9,1
18 "	1.482	0,9	3.868	2,4	5.350	3,3	1.444	2,1	2.552	3,8	3.996	5,9	2.926	1,3	6.420	2,8	9.346	4,1
19 "	777	0,5	1.467	0,9	2.244	1,4	933	1,4	1.422	2,1	2.355	3,5	1.710	0,8	2.889	1,3	4.599	2,1
20 " or more	2.244	1,4	2.118	1,3	4.362	2,7	2.426	3,6	2.799	4,1	5.225	7,7	4.670	2,0	4.917	2,2	9.587	4,2
TOTAL....	96.724	60,3	63.694	39,7	160.418	100,0	38.395	56,9	29.129	43,1	67.524	100,0	135.119	59,3	92.823	40,7	227.942	100,0
Private sector																		
14 years.....	27.959	29,4	745	0,8	28.704	30,2	23.955	21,8	1.069	1,0	25.024	22,8	51.914	25,3	1.814	0,9	53.728	26,2
15 "	15.663	16,4	20.522	21,6	36.185	38,0	15.706	14,4	18.111	16,4	33.817	30,8	31.369	15,3	38.633	18,8	70.002	34,1
16 "	6.338	6,7	11.625	12,2	17.963	18,9	8.943	8,1	13.351	12,2	22.294	20,3	15.281	7,4	24.976	12,2	40.257	19,6
17 "	2.127	2,2	5.211	5,5	7.338	7,7	4.299	3,9	7.775	7,1	12.074	11,0	6.426	3,1	12.986	6,4	19.412	9,5
18 "	582	0,6	1.843	1,9	2.425	2,5	1.983	1,8	4.040	3,7	6.023	5,5	2.565	1,3	5.883	2,9	8.448	4,2
19 "	307	0,3	582	0,6	889	0,9	1.338	1,2	1.717	1,6	3.055	2,8	1.645	0,8	2.299	1,1	3.944	1,9
20 " or more	895	0,9	894	0,9	1.789	1,8	3.795	3,5	3.686	3,3	7.481	6,8	4.690	2,3	4.580	2,2	9.270	4,5
TOTAL	53.871	56,5	41.422	43,5	95.293	100,0	60.019	54,7	49.749	45,3	109.768	100,0	113.890	55,5	91.171	44,5	205.061	100,0
Total																		
14 years....	73.134	28,6	2.087	0,8	75.221	29,4	40.251	22,	1.834	1,0	42.085	23,7	113.385	26,2	3.921	0,9	117.306	27,1
15 "	44.966	17,6	45.861	17,9	90.827	35,5	25.514	14,	28.210	15,9	53.724	30,3	70.480	16,2	74.071	17,1	144.551	33,3
16 "	19.854	7,8	31.248	12,3	51.102	20,1	13.966	7,9	20.561	11,6	34.547	19,5	33.840	7,8	51.809	12,0	85.649	19,8
17 "	6.354	2,5	15.148	5,9	21.502	8,4	6.744	3,8	12.057	6,8	18.801	10,6	13.098	3,0	27.205	6,3	40.303	9,3
18 "	2.064	0,8	5.711	2,2	7.775	3,0	3.427	1,9	6.592	3,7	10.019	5,6	5.491	1,3	12.303	2,8	17.794	4,1
19 "	1.084	0,4	2.049	0,8	3.133	1,2	2.271	1,3	3.139	1,8	5.410	3,1	3.355	0,8	5.188	1,2	8.543	2,0
20 " or more	3.139	1,2	3.012	1,2	6.151	2,4	6.221	3,5	6.485	3,7	12.706	7,2	9.360	2,2	9.497	2,2	18.857	4,4
TOTAL ...	150.595	58,9	105.116	41,1	255.711	100,0	98.414	55,5	78.878	44,5	177.292	100,0	249.009	57,5	183.994	42,5	433.003	100,0

Source: Statistics on F.P. (MEC).

TABLE IV.35 ENROLLED PUPILS AT F.P. 2 SCHOOLS YEAR 1982-83

AGE	MALES								FEMALES								TOTAL							
	1st Course		2n Course		3rd Course		Total		1st Course		2nd Course		3rd Course		Total		1st Course		2nd Course		3rd Course		Total	
	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%	pupils	%
Public sector																								
14 years	59	0,1	7	0	0	0	66	0,1	7	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	66	0,1	7	0	0	0	73	0,1
15 "	833	1,0	65	0,1	7	0	905	1,1	551	1,3	5	0	0	0	556	1,3	1.384	1,0	70	0,1	7	0	1.461	1,1
16 "	13.378	15,6	814	0,9	54	0,1	14.246	16,6	5.719	13,1	528	1,2	22	0,1	6.269	14,4	19.097	14,8	1.342	1,0	76	0,1	20.515	15,9
17 "	10.224	11,9	9.724	11,3	718	0,8	20.666	24,0	4.201	9,6	4.525	10,4	510	1,2	9.236	21,2	14.425	11,2	14.249	11,0	1.228	0,9	29.902	23,1
18 "	6.055	7,0	7.685	9,0	7.085	8,3	20.825	24,3	2.732	6,3	3.780	8,6	3.390	7,8	9.902	22,7	8.787	6,8	11.465	8,9	10.475	8,1	30.727	23,8
19 "	2.801	3,3	4.220	4,9	5.518	6,4	12.539	14,6	1.693	3,9	2.468	5,7	2.630	6,0	6.791	15,6	4.494	3,4	6.688	5,2	8.148	6,3	19.330	14,9
20 " or more	4.339	5,1	5.461	6,4	6.724	7,8	16.524	19,3	3.184	7,3	3.903	9,0	3.708	8,5	10.795	24,8	7.523	5,8	9.364	7,2	10.432	8,1	27.319	21,1
TOTAL	37.689	44,0	27.976	32,6	20.106	23,4	85.771	100,0	18.087	41,5	15.209	34,9	10.260	23,6	43.556	100,0	55.776	43,1	43.185	33,4	30.366	23,5	129.327	100,0
Private sector																								
14 years	10	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	27	0,1	0	0	0	0	27	0,1	37	0	0	0	0	0	37	0
15 "	198	0,4	25	0,1	0	0	223	0,5	194	0,5	22	0,1	1	0	217	0,6	392	0,4	47	0,1	1	0	440	0,5
16 "	8.578	20,0	392	0,9	11	0	8.981	20,9	5.679	15,3	295	0,8	40	0,1	6.014	16,2	14.257	18,0	687	0,8	51	0,1	14.995	18,9
17 "	4.608	10,7	6.157	14,3	247	0,6	11.012	25,6	3.901	10,6	4.370	11,7	204	0,5	8.475	22,8	8.509	10,6	10.527	13,1	451	0,6	19.487	24,3
18 "	1.887	4,4	3.827	8,9	4.450	10,3	10.164	23,6	2.389	6,4	3.598	9,7	2.743	7,4	8.730	23,5	4.276	5,3	7.425	9,3	7.193	9,1	18.894	23,7
19 "	834	1,9	1.701	4,0	2.893	6,7	5.428	12,6	1.420	3,8	2.212	6,0	2.150	5,8	5.782	15,6	2.254	2,8	3.913	4,9	5.043	6,3	11.210	14,0
20 " or more	1.567	3,7	2.766	6,4	2.874	6,7	7.207	16,8	1.968	5,3	3.241	8,7	2.662	7,2	7.871	21,2	3.535	4,4	6.007	7,5	5.536	6,9	15.078	18,8
TOTAL	17.682	41,1	14.868	34,6	10.475	24,3	43.025	100,0	15.578	42,0	13.738	37,0	7.800	21,0	37.116	100,0	33.260	41,5	28.606	35,7	18.275	22,8	80.141	100,0
Total																								
14 years....	69	0,1	7	0	0	0	[illegible]	0,1	34	0	0	0	0	0	34	0	103	0	7	0	0	0	110	0
15 "	1.031	0,8	90	0,1	7	0	[illegible]	0,9	745	1,0	27	0	1	0	773	1,0	1.776	0,8	117	0,1	8	0	1.901	0,9
16 "	21.956	17,0	1.206	0,9	65	0,1	23.227	18,0	11.398	14,1	823	1,0	62	0,1	12.283	15,2	33.354	15,9	2.029	1,0	127	0,1	35.510	17,0
17 "	14.832	11,5	15.881	12,4	965	0,7	31.678	24,6	8.102	10,0	8.895	11,1	714	0,9	17.711	22,0	22.934	11,0	24.776	11,8	1.679	0,8	49.389	23,6
18 "	7.942	6,2	11.512	8,9	11.535	9,0	30.989	24,1	5.121	6,3	7.378	9,2	6.133	7,6	18.632	23,1	13.063	6,3	18.890	9,0	17.668	8,4	49.621	23,7
19 "	3.635	2,8	5.921	4,6	8.411	6,5	17.967	13,9	3.113	3,9	4.680	5,8	4.780	5,9	12.573	15,6	6.748	3,2	10.601	5,1	13.191	6,3	30.540	14,6
20 " or more	5.906	4,6	8.227	6,4	9.598	7,4	23.731	18,4	5.152	6,4	7.144	8,8	6.370	7,9	18.666	23,1	11.058	5,3	15.371	7,3	15.968	7,6	42.397	20,2
TOTAL....	55.371	43,0	42.844	33,3	30.581	23,7	128.796	100,0	33.665	41,7	28.947	35,9	18.060	22,4	80.672	100,0	89.036	42,5	71.791	34,3	48.641	23,2	209.468	100,0

Source: Statistics on F.P. (MEC).

Graduates of FP for the 1981-82 academic year are as follows:

FP 1	94,947
FP 2 General	1,159
FP 2 Specialised	30.000
(Total for FP 2)	31,159
Maestrías to adapt	198
Grand Total	126,304

Of the total number of graduates in FP, 75% are from FP 1 and 25% from FP 2.

Increases in the numbers of graduate have been higher at the second level than at the first (Table IV 36). The ratio of increases is in proportion to the increase in numbers of students. If numbers of students at the first level increase more in proportion to those at the second, then logically the numbers of graduates will increase more as well.

In the table already referred to, (IV 36) we can see the ratio of students registered in FP 1 and FP 2, by course, to the numbers of those finishing, from 1975 to 1982-83. From this one deduces that performance has improved with the years, and that it is better in FP 2 than in FP 1.

In Table IV 37 are detaios of students obtaining the qualification in 1981-82, broken down by subjects and by sex. If we compare this with the details of students broken down by subject (Table IV 31), we can see that there is some correspondence between students

registering, and graduates; i.e. that there is a higher number of graduates in Administrative, Electrical, Metal, Health, Automobile and Draughtsmanship, which corresponds to the students registered.

In the same table is shown the registration broken down by sex, and here we can see that the special subjects chosen by girls are, in the first place, Administrative, and then Hairdressing and Beauty Care, Health, Domestic Science, Fashion and Dressmaking, Whereas in the industrial sector, there hardly appears to be any female precente at all.

C) The Profitability of FP on the labour market.

In subsection 2.3.1. we have been able to get some idea of the great multiplicity of professions which are made accessible by the academic organisation of this type of education, and equally, the impossibility of there being sufficient training for the innumerable range of posts on the labour market has also been analysed. There are some specialities which have a certain obsolescence about them, and, due to the constantly changing conditions imposed by technology, the possibility of such a sufficiency seems to be ever more remote.

When the working population, having studied one or other of these professions, has then found work as a result of other types of skills, different from those learned in the educational system, or has done a job different from the one they studied for, then the education and professional training acquired in a number of academic years will have been lost.

With regard to the attitude of the employers towards this type of

TABLE IV 36 PERFORMANCE OF FP 1

	Students registered in: 1°	2°	%	Completing course	%
1975-76	151.991	-		-	
1976-77	161.832	106.361	(70,0)	-	
1977-78	177.636	119.037	(73,6)	78.336	(51,5)
1978-79	194.020	132.390	(74,5)	73.879	(45,6)
1979-80	224.535	142.951	(73,7)	72.005	(40,5)
1980-81	235.258	161.003	(71,7)	89.832	(46,3)
1981-82	249.884	176.318	(74,9)	94.947	(42,3)
1982-83	249.009	183.994	(78,2)	-	

PERFORMANCE OF FP 2

	Students registered in: 1°	2°	3°	Completing course	%
1975-76	13,908	-	-	-	
1976-77	24,612	14,427	-	-	
1977-78	51,279	23,123	10,481	6,349	
1978-79	58,527	40,380	17,102	9,668	(67.0)
1979-80	62,807	45,694	32,030	13,472	(58.3)
1980-81	68,209	51,728	36,883	26,340	(65.2)
1981-82	82,569	59,271	42,882	31,159	(68.2)
1982-83	89,036	71,791	48,641	-	

Source: Statistics on FP (MEC).

TABLE IV 37 PUPILS WHO OBTAINED THE CERTIFICATE IN 1981-82, BY AREAS OF STUDY AND SEX

SPECIALITIES	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Administrative	9,247	26,770	36,017	3,475	9,219	12,694
Agricultural	1,798	317	2,115	427	89	516
Graphic Art	376	50	426	119	16	135
Automobile	5,774	19	5,763	1,738	57	1,777
Draughtsmanship	3,678	937	4,615	2,165	669	2,834
Electricity	18,103	117	18,220	7,005	48	6,964
Catering	357	161	518	19	9	21
Woodwork	475	41	516	58	-	58
Maritime/Fisheries	351	34	385	75	-	75
Metalwork	7,020	94	7,114	3,139	-	3,168
Fashion and Dressmaking	27	388	415	20	109	129
Mining	1	-	1	-	-	-
Hairdressing and Beauty	424	6,517	6,941	8	328	336
Leather and Fur	81	16	97	-	-	-
Chemistry	543	364	907	362	444	806
Textiles	24	1	25	12	1	13
Health	396	7,059	7,455	133	406	539
Sound and Vision	138	103	241	75	15	90
Glassware and Ceramics	7	2	9	-	-	-
Domestic Science	70	2,960	3,030	-	227	227
Construction	61	13	74	-	-	-

(Source, Statistics Department, MEC 1982-83, Statistics on Formacion Profesional.

education, research carried out in the second half of the nineteen-seventies indicated that Spanish companies has a very low opinion of it, operating in fact a policy of employing people with a low basic qualification, and then training them on the job. It is more profitable for a businessman to employ young people with low qualifications, very often without any education in the formal sense, and later instil a degree of professionalism in the actual job of work, though not, in company training schools, which are practically non-existent in Spain (23).

All research indicated that the best posts and salaries were attained by people who had been trained on the job, and therefore it was much more beneficial for a student to abandon his studies and take on employement. Companies stated that when it came to choosing staff, they placed the highest value on knowledge of the job, and after that, on the applicant's capacity to be trained, and then on specific knowledge of one job, but added that they did their recruiting in the majority of cases through the internal market.

In the investigacion 'Company, qualification and training', which used the methodology of surveying amongst companies in the Catalonia area, the influences of academic qualifications on salaries obtained by different categories of workers in companies were analysed, and it was seen that they had a clear influence on the salaries of jobs of a technical or managerial nature, or where being in charge of people was concerned, and a very negative influence on those posts for which, in theory, FP within the educational system is designed to train for.

As we can see in Table IV 38, slaries are influenced in technical-managerial posts, and positions of command, but hardly influenced at all among semi-qualified administrative staff, skilled workers, and in semi-skilled workers and labourers.

As for the question of the most suitable training for jobs of work, in the same study it turned out that companies thought that the categories of 'managers, executives and heads of department' should be occupied to the tune of 72% by people with a university degree, but also that all that was required of 74% of workers employed in industry was elementary knowledge, and that only 3% of the working population actually needed university degrees. The qualifications available from FP served only for a very tiny percentage of workers (Table IV 39).

There was a difference from what used to happen with the old Industrial FP. While that course was directed at training leaders of manpower teams, these days these jobs are filled by people with a medium grade university degree, and graduates of FP are going to other jobs requiring lower qualifications, a phenomenon which has, without doubt, increased in recent years due to growing unemployment.

In another study, which analysed companies' requirements through the job advertisements in the newspapers, by measuring the weights of different variables of qualification, such as experience, paper qualifications, knowledge of the job, knowledge of the sector, languages and interchangeability of paper qualifications, the results showed that companies did not require any paper qualification at all in 72% of press advertisements, and that there were only 3.8% of advertisements where there was a specific requirement of FP.

TABLE IV 38 CATEGORIES IN WHICH QUALIFICATIONS HAVE THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON SALARY.

Categories	Where qualification influence most (%)	Where qualification influences least (%)
Management, senior posts and heads of department	26	-
Higher technicians	22	-
Shop and works managers	12	-
Qualified administrative personnel	-	2
Heads of teams	-	1
Skilled workers	-	5
Semi-qualified administrative personnel	-	12
Semi-Skilled workers	-	15
Labourers, etc.	-	19

(Source: "Empresa, cualificación y formación", Joani Eugeni Sánchez and Oriol Homs, ICE, Barcelona University (Polytechnic) 1979.)

TABLE IV. 39 REQUIRED STUDIES FOR EACH SOCIO-PROFESSIONAL CATEGORY (Percentage within each category)

SOCIAL PROFESSIONAL CATEGORY.	ACTIVE WORKING INDUSTRIAL POPULATION	LEVEL OF STUDIES REQUIRED: HIGHER DEGREE	MEDIUM DEGREE	BACHILLER SUPERIOR	MAESTRIA INDUSTRIAL	OFICIALIA INDUSTRIAL	BACHILLER ELEMENTAL	PRIMARY STUDIES	TO KNOW HOW TO READ & WRITE	NOT NECESSARY	
TOP MANAGEMENT, HIGHER MANAGEMENT, DEPARTMENTAL HEADS	4	72	17	1	1	0	0	2	0	7	100
MIDDLE - MANAGEMENT	3	4	67	5	15	*	*	5	*	2	100
SECTION HEADS, ETC.	4	*	5	3	37	10	7	29	4	4	100
QUALIFIED ADMIN.	5	0	5	25	*	*	47	18	2	2	100
SEMI-QUALIFIED ADMIN.	7	0	0	2	0	0	54	39	2	3	100
TEAM LEADERS	3	0	0	0	9	24	10	42	8	5	100
SKILLED WORKMEN	30	0	0	0	*	19	0	53	22	5	100
SPECIALISED WORKMEN	35	0	0	*	0	4	2	44	44	4	100
SEMI SKILLED LABOUR	3	0	0	0	0	*	2	41	50	7	100
UNSKILLED LABOUR	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	21	64	15	100
TOTAL	(100)	3	3	2	2	8	8	40	28	6	100
									74		

* 1% not reached.

SOURCE: Empresa, cualificación y formación, Juan-Eugeni Sánchez, ICE Universidad Politécnica de Barcelona, Madrid, 1979.

TABLE IV 40 Requirements of companies through press job advertisements

	% Demand for type of qualification
No paper qualification asked for	72.8
Bachillerato	8.2
FP	3.8
Non-technical middle-school	2.3
Technical middle-school	4.8
University	5.2
Architecture/Higher Technical School	2.5

Source: Study on the demand for manpower through newspaper job advertisements, Paz Juárez and Matilde Vázquez. Dept. of Educational Surveys, National Institute of Educational Sciences, Madrid, 1979.

In addition, a study of FP in the south-eastern area brought in facts and figures about an area which is undergoing a process of industrialisation, and showed that businessmen and employers were not interested in theoretical training within the educational system, and neither were they interested in taking on workers with any kind training if it was not practical (Table IV 41).

Thus there exists a generalised and progressive tendency among employers to think that FP studies should not be thought of as an apprenticeship for a trade or job, but, because of the new tendency towards reorganisation of work, and modernisation, which are going to increase the possibilities of specialisation and on-the-job

training, the content of the programme should be directed towards the multi-faceted, and adaptability.

TABLE IV 41 SURVEY OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING

EXPERIENCE TELLS YOU THAT, WITH THE PASSING OF THE YEARS, THE BETTER-EQUIPPED WORKER IS THE ONE WHO:

	%
Has been trained in an FP or Maestría School	20
Has been trained in the company itself	80

DO YOU SEE ANY USE IN THE SCHOOLS OF FORMACION PROFESIONAL?

I do not know anything about what they do	59
I think they are badly oriented	34
Yes, I think they are necessary and useful as they are	7

WHAT VALUE DO YOU GIVE TO THE QUALIFICATION OF FORMACION PROFESIONAL? WHAT KIND OF JOB SHOULD BE CARRIED OUT BY THE HOLDER OF THIS QUALIFICATION?

	% FP 1	% FP 2
Semi-skilled worker	14	5
Skilled worker	32	18
Specialised technician	20	14
Shop manager/Works manager	7	18
Don't know	27	45
	100	100

(Source: FP and human resources in the Province of Murcia, ICE for the University of Murcia, 1977-7-).

3. THE REFORM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Amid all the controversy which education has aroused in Spain, secondary education has been problematical in a singular way. This educational level has been in a permanent state of near-disaster, we venture to remark, ever since it was first created. Between the years 1845-1852, it was possible to count "as many as five study plans" (24), at least two of which were to be fundamentally applied to secondary education. In 1912 there were complaints that there had been seven educational reform in one decade (25). In the more recent past, since the end of the Second Republic, there have been three grand plans for secondary education, with a great deal of variation from one to another. At present there is one which is at the experimental stage, which, in the near future will be enacted through a norm which will have the force of a law.

There have been a number of burning issues within this controversy over secondary education:

a) The denomination of this educational level has not achieved unanimity, from a time-perspective. People have talked of secondary education, middle education, intermediate education, second education, etc., and at present the term 'enseñanzas medias' is used, a name which has arisen out of the 1970 LGE which covers both BUP and FP.

b) As for the objectives, two quite different poses have been adopted:

- Preparation for later studies
- Preparation, general and widespread, for life.

The present team at the Ministry of Education and Science is inclined toward the second of these. In an interview, the director general of 'Enseñanzas Medias' says that this first cycle 'will have a terminal nature, it will be the period in which the basic education of a citizen of sixteen years old is completed, and obviously will also prepare people for work' (26).

c) Another controversial matter throughout the history of secondary education has been the uniqueness or diversity of cycles, as has become obvious in this report through the references to the bachilleratos deriving from the Acts of 1932 and 1970 there is only one cycle, in the bachillerato contemplated in the 1953 Act there are two, and now it is intended to come back to this type - a bachillerato of two cycles.

d) The controversy between the uniqueness or diversity of content is also historical. Diversity goes back to the separation of Arts and Sciences (Bachillera

to of 1953) up to the option of choosing certain subjects being extended to the pupils (present-day bachillerato) or just the language (Bachillerato of 1938).

e) At the moment the topic of whether FP should be integrated into one body of Bachillerato, is also a burning one. It is an excessively well known and generalised fact that the Bachillerato is too encyclopaedian and intellectualist, while at the same time it disadvantageously separates out manual, technical-professional and artistic training. In addition, students of FP have often been excessively discriminated against, above all in terms of their socio-economic origins, being given a 'second-class' education, not very general and rather basic. Therefore the integration of the two types of education is proposed, with studies both theoretical and practical.

f) At the nucleus of the discussion, there are, obviously, also pedagogical aspects, such as teaching methods. As against the traditional method, which lays prime stress on memory and the acquisition of knowledge, magisterial lessons by the teacher, the use of the text-book as the only source material and instrument of work, as well as things like homework, etc., there also exists the active method, in which the pupil is more of a protagonist, participates more, where the acquisition of skills and the knowledge of how to

manage instruments and sources is very important, and where the material used is very varied, where more teamwork is done, even though the teaching is more personalised.

In this respect, the progress made, in spite of everything, since the 1938 Act, has been great, if we are to go by the letter of the various norms and acts promulgated since then. Sowever, in practice the differences have not been so great, and consequently, once again the is a return to insisting on changing teaching methods when it comes to carrying out reforms.

g) When speaking of a reform of the secondary education in this country, and even when discussing a great part of the points already mentioned, one cannot forget social aspects, such as the range of compulsory schooling. If any kind of education is compulsory, then it has to a greater degree of coming together of theoretical and practical, so as better to prepare people for life in general; it has to be more basic, polyvalent and integral.

In what has been said up to now, we believe that we have made reference to the fundamental aspects which have been, and are, at the centre of the

controversy, when it comes to speaking about secondary education, of proposing possible reforms although we are also aware that there also exist latent functions, in Merton's terminology, which justify, or might justify those changes which have taken place, or which are to take place, in the educational world.

3.2. CONCERNING THE NEED FOR A REFORM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SPAIN

It would be difficult to find, in the state of Spain, a point of view which is so homogeneous and generalised as that which exists concerning the need, or not, for a reform of secondary education. All the parties in the Spanish political spectrum, almost without exception, professional educationalists, associations, people who have studied the subject, etc., agree on the fact that a reform of secondary education is completely necessary. For whereas the LGE had direct repercussions, which were very noticeable, on teaching methods in EGB, for example, the same thing did not happen in BUP. Naturally, the reasons offered for justifying reform, from the different groups mentioned, are very different, to a great degree depending on their respective ideologies.

The Evaluatory Commission of the LGE has already stated that the said LGE was trying to bring Spain's education in line with

the educational advances of the time, but that this change of emphasis was not accompanied by other measures to ensure that the propositions became a reality; it particularly singled out the recycling, or getting into shape, of the teachers. Other defects pointed to by this commission, with regard to the present-day Bachillerato, are these:

The planning was carried out by specialists with no connection whatsoever with each other, thus contradicting the spirit and letter of the "Libro Blanco" and the LGE.

Connections between subjects were not looked for.

No relative valuation was made of the different subjects in the education system, with the result that they reached the conclusion that there was an excessive number of subjects to study, but all of them had the same weight for the pupil, comparing equally basic subjects with others not so essential.

Programmes for the use of new teaching aids were not drawn up, with the result that, as the necessary recycling of teaching staff had not taken place either, an educational system of traditional style was fallen back on, in which the exclusive protagonists were teacher and text book.

Texts were written, to a large extent, with haste, and without reference to the new methods.

As far as organisation of schools was concerned, the Evaluatory Commission concluded that hardly any changes of any substance had taken place as a result of the LGE, the pattern to be followed being dictated, as in the past, by the personality and attitudes of the head-teacher, who would often condition pedagogical innovations carried through by his teachers to his own attitudes and enthusiasm.

The conclusions for the Evaluatory Commission of the LGE guarantee the taking of measures which would at least make the spirit of the law a reality. However, it would appear that this is not enough, and experts are now advocating deep-seated reform of the 'enseñanzas medias'. The more commonly-cited reasons are the following:

a) The figures of student-failure, which in the BUP students for 1980-83, taken all round, higher than 48%, and in the FP students for 1981-83, higher than 62%. It can be very easily deduced from these high percentages that there is something wrong, that there is a large gap between the study-plans and the capacity and interests of the students.

b) The discriminatory nature of the current 'Enseñanzas medias'. When on the point of turning 14, the young Spanish schoolchild

has to choose between a devalued FP 1, to which go, basically, those pupils who have not, for whatever reason, been capable of obtaining the 'Graduado Escolar', and BUP, to which only those pupils who have completed EGB with success can go. This early choice marks out already, to a large degree, the future of the young person, there being established a clear distinction between two classes of citizens. FP is not considered in the way it should be by society, and consequently, FP pupils are also somewhat looked down on, with strong social rejection.

c) The lack of any connection between education and employment. The aim of the LGE 'to fit the educational system to a society which is in the throes of industrial and technological development' has been a total failure. For, whereas the Bachillerato has placed too much emphasis on the theoretical, to the disadvantage of the manual, technical-professional and artistic training, FP 'has not been able, either, to adjust itself, through the specialisations it offers, nor through the technical-professional content, to the different levels of employment which a company requires'. (27).

hese days, with the constant changes in the structure of the demand for employment, brought about by the deep-seated industrial revolution which is taking place in this computer age, it would seem that the employers agree that in the immediate future what will be needed will be professionals with polyvalent training, capable of swiftly assimilating new techniques and processes.

d) From the foregoing it is possible to deduce another of the reasons which are fundamental to the reform of the 'Enseñanzas medias': programmes and methods. The official programmes of BUP, apart from being eminently theoretical, as we have already stated, are very overloaded. Thus, if the teacher wants to cover a subject completely, he has to convert his class into 'a mere exposition of facts and figures and processes, without there being any real time for the activities which the ministerial plan counsels'. (28) This type of education is not very participatory, and nor does it have any kind of practical activity; there is hardly any room for the development of creativity and other equally important skills, as we think, for a near future in which there will be so much more time for leisure.

Together with these reasons adduced for a reform of the 'Enseñanzas medias', there are some who advocate the expansion of the period of basic general, common and compulsory education up to the limits which are normal in the developed Western world.

3.3. THE 1981 PROJECT FOR REFORM: PRESENTATION AND DISCREPANCIES

The UCD Party (Central Democratic Union) was very clear, from the very start of their period in power, that a radical reform of enseñanzas medias was necessary, in order to avoid the discriminatory aspects of the Bachillerato and FP. In 1978, the Minister of Education and Science, in the Revista de Bachillerato, made the following statements: 'We are resolved to avoid the discriminatory effects of the double standard of certificate at the end of EGB, which ordain a certain type of studies according to the academic situation of the pupils. For, evidently, by doing this, we are conditioning, and giving a pejorative image to further studies, and through them, their situation in society.

... what we are trying to achieve with the new structure is that all young people should have basically the same education up to the age of 16, and this education be free and compulsory', (29).

The project of the reform of the "Enseñanzas Medias" laid before public opinion by the UCD in 1981, consisted, in general terms, of the following (30).

Secondary education was to be structured in two cycles, each one having a duration of two years.

3.3.1 The First Cycle

Access to the First Cycle offered a double alternative; either the certificate of "Graduado Escolar" was required, or access was permitted to those without it, as long as there was a chance, during secondary education, of the pupil repairing the deficiencies which had prevented him from obtaining the certificate in the first place.

This cycle was conceived as being free and compulsory.

As there would be a decisive option at the end of the cycle, the greatest importance was to be given to educational and vocational guidance. Thus the subjects which would go to make up the curriculum, apart from their educational aspect, should also favour the manifestation of the diverse aptitudes of the pupils, and thus, together with subjects of a fundamentally intellectual nature there would also be others of a technological, or where appropriate, artistic nature, these being set in the area of applied arts.

This cycle could be taught in the existing Bachillerato

schools, and in those of FP, indiscriminately.

The subjects comprising this First Cycle would, basically, correspond to the following areas:

Philosophy

Social Sciences

Mathematics & Natural Sciences

Technology or Art

In addition, there would also be included in the Plan other varied educational subjects, such as Aesthetic Education, Physical Education and Sport, Religious and Ethical Instruction, etc.

On completing this educational level, those pupils who had passed all the subjects in the study-plan would receive the certificate on "Bachiller General y Técnico". This certificate would permit access to the Second Cycle, both to the "Bachillerato Superior" and to "Technical and Professional Training."

3.3.2 Second Cycle

This would have taken two quite different directions: Bachillerato and Technical & Vocational Training.

a) Bachillerato Superior

Access to the Bachillerato Superior would be via the

certificate of the Bachillerato General y Técnico from the First Cycle.

It was concenived as being predominantly preparatory for university. It was pointed out that it should be organised by specialities appropriate to the large sectors containing the university faculties and higher technical schools, instead of being a unified Bachillerato.

This basic areas would have been the following:

- Philosophy
- Mathematics & Natural Sciences
- Social Sciences & Economics
- Technology
- Art

The certificate of Bachillerato Superior would have provided access to the university. To obtain the certificate it would have been necessary to pass all the subjects in the plan, without there having been any need for a final test.

The schools in which these studies would have taken place would have had to be purpose-designed for the Bachillerato.

b) Technical & Vocational Training

Access to this level would have been via the ceritificate of Bachiller General y Técnico, i.e. the First Cycle of Secondary Education.

The duration of these studies would have been variable, according to the requirements of each profession, and various levels would have been able to be set up within each one of these, according to the number of years studied and skill obtained by the pupil in each one.

These studies would have had to have given absolute preference to those areas or subjects of a professional nature, but without falling to include a formative or scientific are as well.

The certificates would have given the qualification of Técnico, even at the high level.

Technical & Vocational Training would have been carried on in specific schools.

This project for the reform of the "Enseña nzas Medias", which has just been set forth in a very concise way, was published integrally in a book entitled "Las Enseñanzas Medias en España" (31), published by the Ministry of Education & Science. The

book was distributed quite extensively, not because of the number of copies, 6000 - but because it went to a number of very different persons and entities: rectors of universities, Bachillerato and FP teaching staff, Art Schools, Integrated Education Centres, the boards of Autonomous entities, Teachers' & Professional' associations, Parents associations, Head Offices, the Congress and the Senate, Confederations of Schools, etc.,

All of them were asked for their opinion. To sum them all up would be a very laborious and probably unnecessary task for a report of this nature.

In many cases, the importance which the authors of the project had given to certain aspects was underlined - opinions coincided. Those aspects which, in principle, seem more interesting to point out, because they are different from the basic project, are these:

- With regard to the first cycle:

The great majority are of the opinion that access should be via the certificate of Graduado Escolar, and several groups are in favour, in addition, of an entrance exam .

Almost everyone thought that this cycle should be free, although few people said anything about the compulsory nature of these courses.

Although the majority agree that the duration of the course should be two years, some would have extended this, reducing the length of E.G.B. accordingly.

The Bachillerato Superior would be open to those with the certificate from the First Cycle, and in addition, through passing tests.

The duration of the Bachillerato should be more than the two years proposed.

3.4. THE PRESENT PROJECT FOR REFORM (28,32)

Perhaps it is necessary to start this section by pointing out that, in spite of the fact that one is talking about "Enseñanzas Medias", reference will always be to the First Cycle of this level, which covers the age-range 14-16. There is no official document (not even for internal circulation) which refers to the Second Cycle of this type of education.

Thus, the structural scheme of the earlier reform project is implicitly accepted.

3.4.1. Essential Characteristics

Although these have not been taken up or explained by any member of the present MEC management team in any kind of ad

hoc document, from various declarations made to the press, it can be inferred that, possibly, the four most essential characteristics of the reform, ar an experimental stage at present, are the following:

a) The intention is to give an integral and polyvalent education, because on the one hand it tries to integrate theory and practice, in such a way that education, employment, the educational system and the economy be, from now on, closely related areas, on the one hand, and on the other, there is to be a continuation of the line that the pupil should have a deep-reaching basic culture, permitting him to adapt to the various different jobs, which he would doubtless encounter in the future, as he lives in a society which is in the full spate of a sociological and technological transformation, or to follow the type of studies he wishes.

b) From the foregoing it will be easily seen that this educational level will be of a terminal nature. The First Cycle of "Enseñaza Media" will loose the function which it has at present, FP 1 being a preparation merely for work, and BUP for the university. During this period the basic education which has to prepare the young person to face his future situation as a worker and citizen of a democratic society, will be completed. In this way the precipitate choice and selection which at the present

moment takes place at the age of 14, and which to some extent mortgages the future of the adolescent is eliminated.

c) The aim will be to link the pupil with his environment as much as possible "for educational reasons (the pupil is a social being), and for methodological ones (to study what is immediate is an extremely important means to educational motivation). To be aware of the reality which surrounds us cannot be a temptation to fall into provincialism, but rather a way of rooting in real life.

d) Another important characteristic of the active methodology, with which, according to the words of the Director of Enseñanzas Medias, the children will have a protagonism which up till now they have not had, "this, together with the fact that textbooks are not used, and that homework has been totally prohibited, explains why the pupils are happy."

3.4.2 Objectives

The objectives of the intended reforms are set forth in a clear and precise way in the document, "Hacia la Reforma". According to the literal transcription, the pupil, at the end of the General Bachillerato should:

- "Be able to express himself both orally and in writing, his thoughts and feelings logically ordered, and to use in a valid way the specific vocabulary of each subject."

- "Understand messages in normal communication."

- "Use sources of inforamtion in a critical manner."

- "Act in a creative manner".

- "To reason in a correct, logical manner".

- "Have an integrated concept of the different areas od knowledge".

- "Have mastered the more common technical aptitudes and skills."

- "Have a ciritical but not dogmatic attitude towards reality."

- "Have rational working habits and be able to use study methods."

- "To be able to work in a team with a balance between his vision of the work as a whole, and his individual task".

All these objects may be summed up by this: "the mission of the "Enseñanzas Medias" is to provide young people with the indispensable materials and knowledge with which to be able to manage in this owrld we hace to live in."

Together with the foregoing objectives, which are common to every subject, those objectives which are particular to each one of them are also specified in the same document. We do not include them here for reasons of space.

3.4.3. The Study Plan

The programming of this cycle, which in principle could be called the "Bachillerato General", covers three large areas, as can be seen in Table IV. 43.

a) The instrumental area, which covers Spanish language and literature, Mathematics, Modern Language, Physical Culture, educational cinema, togehter with religion. This last subject is optional.

b) The area of material science and of the study of mankind, divided into experimental and social.

c) The artistic and technological area. Here there will be at least three special subjects, one of them linked to the prevailing economic activity in the environment.

Table IV. 42 TIMETABLE FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL PLAN BY YEAR, SUBJECT AND AREA

Area	Subjects	Hours 1st year	2nd	At the discretion of the school
Instrumental	Spanish Language & Literature	3	3	4
	Mathematics	3	3	
	Modern Languages	2	2	
	Physical Culture	2	2	
	Educative cinema	2	-	
	Religion*	-	2	
Material Sciences & Mankind	Experimental Sciences	4	3	2
	Social Sciences	3	2	
Technological & Artistic Area	Drawing, Cinema, Drama, Music, Photography, etc.,	8	7	3
TOTAL		27	24	9

* Optional

** At least three speciality subjects are studied

The artistic activities which are foreseen are: drawing, theatre workshop, pottery, photographic laboratory, musical interpretation and cinema.

As for the timetable, the following should be noted:

- According to the numner of hours allotted, it would appear that the area to which the greatest importance is given is the Instrumental one, with a total of 28 hours out of 60 (47%).

- To the technological and artistic area, 18 hours are allotted, more than to those allotted to material science and the study of mankind, 14. This represents a figure of 30% as oppossed to 23%.

The school will have time available, by areas, for the organization of pupils' activities and the recovery, or reinforcement of those subjects which might need it, as well as the classroom hours given for each subject.

Obtaining the diploma of the first esperimental sycle will permit access to the third year of BUP, to the first year of FP2 in the general mode, on the first year of FP2 in the specialized education mode.

3.4.4. The Experimental Plan

Through the Order of September 30, 1983, the Ministry of Education and Science, authorised experimentation with new plans and programmes in Ordinary Schools in "Enseñanzas Medias."

The experimental reform plan has been conceived as a gradual process; and has been started off in a small numer (31) of schools which are experimenting with certain modifications in the programmes and pupils' activities. The number of schools involved is as small as it is, because it is thought that if the experiments fail, then recovery will be simpler and less expensive, there being a smaller number of peopler affected. Gradually, the number of schools participating in the experiment can be increased in future academic years; in fact, for the next academic year, 1984-85 it is planned to increase the number to 100.

Of the 31 schools which are carrying out the experiment, some are representative of the urban environemnt, and others of the rural or semi-rural environment; some are FP schools and others Bachillerato, and some are state schools, and other private.

In each one of these schools there has been set up one or several experimental groups, and one contrast, or control group. In all there are 54 experimental groups - 1962 pupils - and 31 control groups.

Two types of evaluation are envisaged:

a) Internal evaluation, the responsibility for which is borne by the Dirección General de Enseñanzas Medias in charge of carrying out the reform. The idea of this is to find out to what degree the stated objectives - general and specific - are being reached. Consequently, there will be three areas of measurement: attitudes, skills and knowledge.

As is foreseen by the general design, there will be measurement before, during and at the end of the experiment, both of the experimental groups and the control groups. In this way, the initial starting poit, the process carried through and the final results, will all be known, and, on the one hand, the results obtained in the various controls by each group can be compared, and on the other, those achieved in each control by the experimental group and the corresponding control group.

b) External evaluation. Besides the foregoing evaluation, there will be an external evaluation carried out by people who are not participating directly in the experiment, and who have not responsibility for it. To this end, the Centro Nacional de Investigación y Documentación Educativa (CIDE) intends, before the end of the present year, to put out to public competition, the performance of the following tasks:

- The devising of specific tests to evaluate the

concrete objectives pursued by the reform in each one of the subjects.

- A study of the individual variables of the pupils of Enseñanza Media, both those belonging to schools where the reforms are being carried out, and other schools.

- An evaluation of the process of the reform.

Finally, it should be pointed out that, according to what is foreseen by the authorities - one has already passed - so that the reform will be able to be applied in all of the Enseñanza Media schools, after the appropriate law has been passed in Parliament, at the beginning of the academic year 1987-88.

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CHAPTER V - HIGHER EDUCATION

1. PRESENT STRUCTURE OF THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM

1.1. THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM BEFORE AND AFTER THE GENERAL EDUCATION ACT

According to the University Organization Law of 1943 (the first law on higher education promulgated after the Civil War), "the Spanish Universities are a corporation of masters and scholars to whom the State entrusts the mission of imparting higher education and educating and training youth for human life, the cultivation of knowledge and the exercise of a profession". The specific fuction of a university are to transmit academic knowledge and grant the academic degrees of 'Licenciado' and Doctor, prepare for the exercise of the various activities in areas of the administration or the chemical field and for teaching, encourage academic research and prepare for research those who may have a vocation for it.

The university faculties are organs for teaching, and then are seven of then and others can be created by law. To enter any faculty the candidate must possess the title of 'Bachiller Superior' and be sixteen years old. In cases of need the Ministry of Education can set the maximum number of students who can commence their studies in each faculty, and in this case the faculties will set selection tests for their students.

The teaching activities of each faculty are spread over the academic year in two terms (from 5 October to 14 February and

from 14 February to 15 June). The plans of each faculty determine the number of terms for each discipline. The number of academic years for each faculty teaching subject shall be considered the minimum number of study years required from official or free students. The academic tests can be on a term basis for each subject, for an academic year, for groups of subjects and for several academic years.

To obtain the title of 'Licenciado' (a first degree obtained after five years of study) it is necessary to have passed all the subjects included in the syllabus of each faculty. There will be degree examinations for those who will study for the doctorate, to occupy any teaching post or to compete for special prizes. The title of Doctor is obtained after the studies and tests set in the regulations of the faculties, and the approval of a thesis will be necessary.

The General Education Act (1970) assigned the following aims to university education: "1. To complete the overall training of the young, prepare the members of professions needed by the country, and provide for on-going training in such professions. 2. To encourage cultural progress, develop research at all levels with free objectivity, and train scientists and educators. 3. To contribute to the improvement of the national education system, and to the social and economic development of the country."

Contrary to what occurred at other educational levels, the General Education Act (L.G.E.) did not involve a major reform of

university education in respect of the structure of studies, methods or programmes. The only notable innovations were not considered in this category (such as training of primary teachers and intermediate grade technical careers), and the restructuring of university education into three stages or cycles (leading, respectively, to the titles of 'Diplomado', 'Licenciado' and Doctor).

The following sections will give details of the effects of the L.G.E. on the organization of the different types of university studies.

There are two types of university studies:

- those of a single, final cycle, undertaken in University Schools with a duration of three years, except for certain cases, leading to the obtention of the title of 'Diplomado', Technical Architect or Technical Engineer;

- those of three cycles, undertaken in Faculties and Higher Technical Schools. The first cycle lasts for three years, and is devoted to the study of the basic disciplines. The second lasts for two years, is for specialization. The third cycle is for narrower specialization and preparation for research and teaching.

Those who have completed the first cycle, and also the 'Diplomados' of University Schools, Technical Architects and Technical Engineers, can go on to enter the second cycle, subject to the requirements set by the regulations. Those who complete the studies of the second cycle obtain the title of 'Licenciado', Engineer or Architect, being qualified to exercise their respective professions and to continue to the third cycle. The title of Doctor is granted on completion of this third cycle, after the writing and approval of a thesis.

The studies corresponding to the first cycle of the Faculties and Higher Technical Schools (E.T.S.) can be undertaken in University Colleges, under the direction of the university to which they belong, and following the same systems.

It should here be mentioned that at present the first cycle of studies in Faculties and E.T.S. simply means the first three academic years of courses of study lasting five or six years (as is the case of the E.T.S., where the courses were lengthened by one academic year in the Ministerial Order of 30 July 1975), and not studies with a dual nature, complete in themselves and providing access to the second cycle.

There are no short professional study cycles in the traditional university fields of law, arts, sciences, and so on.

If those who drafted the 1970 reform were thinking of the

convenience of establishing short cycles of study in view of the objective needs of the country and the possibilities of employment of those obtaining titles, and this would seem to be the case in view of numerous references in the "White Book",, the practical application of the L.G.E. did not go in this direction.

Thus, the University Reform Law may signify the qualitative step supposing the classification as university graduates of all those who complete the first cycle of any university course of studies, and this would seem to be a logical deduction from the structuring of university study courses in three cycles. The law states explicitly that completion of the first cycle will give the right to the title of 'Diplomado', Technical Architect or Technical Engineer.

1.2. CENTRES OF UNIVERSITY STUDIES AND TYPES OF STUDIES

Article 63 of the L.G.E. stated that university education would be imparted in University Departments, Institutes, Schools and Colleges. The Department was defined as "the basic unit for teaching and research in disciplines united by a scientific relationship". Each department would be responsible for the corresponding teaching throughout the university, grouping together all those persons teaching the subject, and for administrative purposes it would form part of the Faculty or E.T.S. in the syllabuses of which its disciplines occupied a predominant place.

With regard to the system envisaged by the L.G.E., we believe that there can be no doubt as to the failure of the introduction of Departments as outlined therein, despite Decree 1977/1973 of 26 July, which restructured them. The basic units continue to be the Faculties and E.T.S. while the arrangements of studies is not at all in accordance with the terms of the law, as the inter-Faculty Department is rare indeed in Spanish universities.

The University Reform Act (L.R.U.) recognises and strengthens the Departments as centres for university renewal. It defines them as "basic organs in charge of organising and developing the research and teaching corresponding to their respective areas of knowledge in one or several Faculties, Higher Technical Schools and University Schools". The will be constituted by areas of knowledge, and will group together all the teaching staff and researchers with special subjects in these areas. They are responsible for coordinating the teaching and research activities of the universities.

The L.R.U. also states that the universities will consist basically of Departments, Faculties and Higher Technical Schools, University Schools and University Institutes, as well as of such other centres as may legally be created. Though the law does not specifically mention them, the University Colleges also form part of the university structure.

- Faculties, Higher Technical Schools and University Schools are the organs in charge of the administrative management and organization of university studies leading to academic titles
- University Colleges provide teaching which corresponds to the first cycle of university education in Faculties and E.T.S., under the direction of the university to which they belong and in accordance with the same system as employed in that university. Decree 2551/1972 of 21 July provides the regulations under which they operate. It states that teaching corresponding to several different Faculties and E.T.S. can be given in a single University College. The syllabuses are the same as those of the University to which they belong or are attached, though it is possible to introduce such modifications as circumstances may suggest, as well as additional studies. Studies undertaken in these Colleges have the same academic effects as those taken in the corresponding Faculties or E.T.S. To enter the former, the same academic requirements will be in force as for the latter, and students of the Colleges will be matriculated as official students of the corresponding university.
- University Institutes are mainly devoted to scientific and technical research or to artistic creation. They can provide specialised teaching or doctorate courses, and offer technical counselling within the area of subjects they cover. They can be of an interuniversity nature when this seems advisable in view of their research or teaching activities, by means of special agreements, if so determined by their Statutes.
- The following studies may be undertaken in the various types of centre:

Faculties

- Fine Arts
- Biology
- Economics and Business Sciences
- Information Sciences
- Political Sciences and Sociology
- Law
- Pharmacy
- Philology
- Philosophy and Education Sciences

- Physics
- Geography and History
- Geology
- Computer Studies
- Mathematics
- Medicine
- Phichology
- Chemistry
- Veterinary Science
- Canon Law
- Theology

Higher Technical Schools

- Architecture
- Aeronautical Engineering
- Agriculture
- Civil Engineering
- Electromechanical Engineering
- Industrial Engineering
- Mining Engineering
- Forestry
- Naval Engineering
- Telecommunications Engineering
- Chemical Engineering

University Schools

- Technical Architecture (Draughtsmanship)
- Librarianship and Documentation
- Nursing
- Statistics
- Business Studies
- Physiotheraphy
- Languages
- Computer Studies
- Aeronautical Technical Engineering
- Agricultural Technical Engineering
- Forestry Technical Engineering
- Industrial Technical Engineering
- Mining Technical Engineering
- Naval Technical Engineering
- Public Works Tehcnical Engineering

- Telecommunications Technical Engineering
- Topographical Technical Engineering
- Optics
- Teaching of Basic General Education
- Social Work

- With regard to the above-mentioned subjects, it should be stated that since the approval of the General Education Act no further subjects have been created in the areas of the Higher Technical Schools or in those of Architecture and Technical Engineering, which has not prevented special subjects from being created therein . Meanwhile, during the same period, studies of the following subjects have been incorporated as Faculties: Fine Arts(1978), Information Sciences (1971), Computer Studies (1976), Sociology (1971) and Psychology. New subdivisions have been created in the former Faculties of Sciences (into Biolo y, Chemistry, Geology, Physics and Mathematics - in 1973), Political, Economic and Commercial Sciences (into Political Sciences and Sociology, and Economic and Business Sciences - in 1972), and Philosophy and Letters (into Philology, Philosophy and Education Sciences, and Geography and History). New University Schools have been created in the areas of Librarianship and Documentation (1982), Physiotheraphy (1983) and Social Work (1983).

2. STUDENT AND TEACHER FIGURES

2.1 STUDENTS

Since the second quarter of this century, increasing proportions of the population have entered the Spanish universities. In the early sixties the number of students receiving higher education doubled. The number doubled again before 1970, and yet once more before the end of the seventies. Without doubt, this is the phenomenon which has had the most important consequences for the evolution of the system of higher education. In a very short space of time the demand for teachers and equipment increased and was diversified, and it became necessary to establish standards to limit entry to the universities, which were being overwhelmed by a growing avalanche of students.

The increase in the number of university students matriculated

is not due exclusively to the reclassification as university studies of courses (such as those for primary school teachers and commercial studies) previously considered as falling in the area of secondary education. In the 1970-71 academic year, student numbers in Faculties and Higher Technical Schools stood at 215,000 students. Ten years later this figure had more than doubled (Table V.1). Correspondingly, the number of students receiving higher education per 10,000 inhabitants rose from 97.8 when the L.G.E. came into effect (1970), to 173.4 in the 1980-81 academic year.

This duplication of the numbers of university students refers to all categories (Table V.1), and several reasons can be put forward to explain this. The first is that the increase in the population receiving secondary school education increased the probability of new matriculations. Secondly, there was the administrative decision to classify the students of the University Schools in the category of higher education. In the third place, between 1968 and 1982 there was an increase in the number of young people reaching the age of eighteen.

TABLE V 1 UNIVERSITY STUDENTS 1970-71 to 1980-81

YEAR / UNIV. COURSES	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81
UNIVERSITY FACULTIES	170,453	197,531	219,161	269,980	293,761	346,755	375,891	420,983	406,289	415,107	423,911
Fine Arts	1,728	1,934	2,320	1,950	2,201	2,300	2,984	2,793	1,781	3,135	3,670
Sciences	34,885	43,196	46,196	52,854	52,373	55,161	53,840	54,974	48,717	51,535	53,523
Economic Sciences	20,790	25,683	19,811	25,699	32,179	38,213	40,779	51,762	45,195	44,113	45,195
Information Sciences		198	3,733	6,177	7,792	9,300	9,240	10,620	8,954	8,644	7,043
Political Sciences + Sociology	2,696	134	980	4,928	6,404	5,785	5,635	5.607	5,281	4,881	4,300
Law	21,009	24,804	28,638	39,751	41,970	51,998	62,608	70,875	74,117	80,130	83,350
Canon Law		87	82	90	73	91	108	73	86	109	93
Pharmacy	6,449	8,353	9,926	13,769	18,963	22,024	22,705	24,076	20,613	20,977	20,367
Arts, Philosophy	45,427	52,190	59,982	65,548	69,366	86,561	93,011	98,995	94,120	95,271	104,970
Computers				19	344	631	801	3,999	5,894	4,307	4,112
Medicine	35,812	38,308	44,247	55,250	57,533	70,166	79,399	83,033	81,517	79,165	71,595
Psychology								8,586	14,729	16,289	18,432
Theology		478	534	528	515	334	278	391	447	892	649
Veterinary Science	1,657	2,166	2,712	3,417	4,048	4,191	4,503	5,199	4,838	5,659	6,612
HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS	44,547	42,978	44,738	46,799	49,915	48,596	46,761	49,406	43,398	45,351	46,147
UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS	118,380	128,519	104,766	101.050	121,134	136,500	152,760	172,593	171,265	178,830	179,040
Architecture + Technical Eng.	63,555	61,740	50,884	44,849	48,302	50,763	51,764	52,595	49,047	51,802	52,046
Nursing								3,554	7,485	12,653	14,149
Business Studies	7,274	7,529	8,351	11,641	13,774	15,203	16,810	19,416	19,507	21,087	22,774
EGB teaching	47,551	59,250	45,531	44,560	59,058	70,534	84,186	97,028	93,830	91,328	86,551
Other									1,326	1,960	3,520
OTHER STUDIES	21,605	22,074	25,774	27,180	28,917	25,621	29,584	28,653	28,090	24,958	2,030
TOTAL	354,985	391,102	394,439	445,009	493,727	557,472	604,996	671,635	649,042	664,246	651,128

Source: University Statistics (MEC)

Furthermore, one of the most undoubted causes for this increase is the incorporation of women into university studies. the creation of new universities and subjects may have been an incentive diversifying the possibilities of courses available and reducing the cost of studying for those students who no longer found themselves obliged to change their place of residence in order to study at university. In the opinion of V. Pérez Díaz (1), the "title fever" or tendency among employers to demand a title as mechanism of pre-selection when filling medium -and higher-grade posts, may have stimulated some to take the decision to embark on university studies. finally, in the opinion of J. Martín and A. de Miguel (2), the economic recession of 1973 and the increase in unemployement have generated a tendency to study longer courses and more subjects, as a mechanism to increase competitivieness in the employment sphere.

The analysis of student flows in the education system made by Arango and Carabaña (3), makes it possible to describe demand and its future development. The authors have described ideal contingents (in which the only reason for the reduction in numbers of a contingent would be that of students giving up their studies). They examined the numbers of students four years bofore being able to enter university, on entry, and at the end of the course for the title of "Licenciado". Two outstanding features of the system are the existence of almost constant proportions of transit from one level to another during the twenty years studied, and a levelling off in the number of matriculations as from the generation which in 1981-82 should continue studying for four academic years in order to be able to enter university.

The trends in higher education in Spain differ from those in most European countries. Demand in Spain will be sustained or even increase slightly over the coming years. The reduction in the number of university students already taking place in other European countries will not take place in Spain until the end of the century. The only factor capable of altering the flows within the education system, would be administrative measures to lengthen periods of study or to establish selective barriers between levels. However, the effectiveness of such measures in

the medium term is doubtful, since as has ocurred in the Spanish education system on previous ocassions, the reactions of teaching staff and students would cushion their consequences. According to Arango and Carabaña (1983), for the first time for many years the slow growth in the numbers of university students will make it possible to concentrate efforts on increasing the quality of education instead of merely attemptin to contain the unexpected growth in demand. In any case, by the end of the eighties there could be one million students receiving higher education.

Students receiving higher education will be distributed between the two forms at present in existence, State education and the private system. Numbers in the former are far higher than in the later; indeed, the private sector has declined if one takes the period 1975-1980. (Table V.2).

Table V.2 STUDENTS MATRICULATED IN UNIVERSITIES OF THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

SECTOR	ACAD.YEAR 1975-76			ACAD.YEAR 1980-81		
	Nº	%	%	Nº	%	%
STATE	500,783	94.5	100	629,649	97	126
NON-STATE	29,398	5.5	100	19,449	3	66
TOTAL	530,181	100,0	100	649,098	100	122

Source: FOESSA. Sociological Report on Social Change in Spain. 1975-83

An indicator of the situation in Spain with regard to the countries of the EEC is the number of students receiving higher education per 100,000 inhabitants. With fluctuations, Spain has occupied the seventh position since 1970 (Table V.3). The difference with regard to the average for the EEC countries seems to have disminished over the last decade, which, at least in quantitative terms, indicates that there is a trend towards attaining a similar level. If the number of students per 10,000 inhabitants is examined, the situation is similar to that of countries with education systems similar to ours. the situation seems to have improved in recent years. (Table V.4).

Table V.3. STUDENTS OF THE THIRD GRADE PER 100,000 INHABITANTS

COUNTRY	YEARS				
	1970	1975	1976	1977	1978
Fed.Rep.Germany	830	1684	1707	1745	1813
Belgium	1296	1630	1724	1797	2026
Denmark	1542	2179	2180	2315	2063
France	1581	1970	1971	2050	1921
Netherlands	1774	2108	2215	2312	2361
Italy	1283	1749	1281	1870	1931
Ireland	965	1476	1475	1481	1465
Luxembourg	107	135	124	84	112
United Kingdom	1084	1308	1337	1356	-
EEC	1359	1864	1732	1905	1952
Greece	976	1296	1351	1288	1310
Portugal	554	846	1000	877	-
Spain	1018(7th)	1559(7th)	1657(6th)	1863(5th)	1763(7th)

Source: UNESCO, Statistical Annual, 1981; and INE, Educational Statistics in Spain, 1979-80. Prepared by FOESSA.

Table V.4. NUMBER OF STUDENTS RECEIVING HIGHER EDUCATION PER 10,000 INHABITANTS

COUNTRY	1970-71	1977-78
France	150.4	182.5
Italy	128.0	175.9
Spain	98.8	175.3

Source: Spanish University Statistics. MEC (SEUI).

2.1.1. Distribution of Students

A preliminary comment on the data referring to higher education is that students are not distribuited homogeneously over the system, and this is equally valid whether we considerer the three principal modes of study in existence (Faculties, Higher Technical Schools and University Schools) or the different establishments and courses of study. The tendency for certain universities(such as, for example, Madrid and Barcelona) and certain subjects to be chosen by a high percentage of students, is the reason for which one cannot speak of massification in also due to the unequal distribution of students.

Students are mainly concentrated in the Faculties, which in 1970-71 contained 50% of the total number, and ten years later two thirds of the total. As mentioned previously, numbers matriculated in the E.T.S. show a clear tendency to drop in relative terms over the same period. At the beginning of the seventies, they represented 13.5% of the total, while in the 1980-81 academic year they had fallen to 7.1%. It is not that number of studens has fallen ostensibly, but rather that new incorporations have mainly gone to the Faculties and University Schools. With the exception of Architecture, the ETS have not suffered the negative effects of massification of students. (Table V.5).

Students matriculated in University Schools were approximately one third of the total, and as in the case of certain Faculties, the rate of growth in student numbers demonstrates that the new demand has exceeded their possibilities in terms of teaching staff and equipment.

TABLE V. 5 TOTAL ENROLEMENT FIGURES BY FACULTIES, E.T.S., UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS (1) IN STATE EDUCATION 1975-76 (AS ABSOLUTE VALUES, PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND INDEX NUMBERS)

TYPE	1.975-76		1976-77		1977-78		1978-79		1979-80		1980-81		1980-1975
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	% Δ
FACULTIES	313,449	65.8	316,226	64.3	374,511	63.1	358,579	62.9	367,766	62.5	377,083	63.0	120
E. T. S.	45,188	9.5	43,544	8.9	46,967	7.9	41,338	7.3	42,916	7.3	43,889	7.0	97
UNIVERSITY SCHOOL	117,640	24.7	131,771	28.6	171,586	28.9	170,073	29.8	177,406	30.2	177,617	30.0	151
T O T A L	476,277	100.0	491,541	100.0	593,064	100.0	569,990	100.0	588,088	100.0	598,589	100.0	126

(1) EXCEPT FOR THOSE PUPILS ENROLLED IN THE UNED.

SOURCE: INE, SPANISH EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS (1975-76/1979-81; AND M.E.C., BASIC STATISTICAL INFORMATION ON EDUCATION IN THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1980-81. FOESSA REPORT (1975-1983).

Students are not distribuited equally between the different types of establishment, and the same is true as between the different universities. In 1970-71, those of Madrid and Barcelona absorbed 47.6% of students receiving higher education. This situation of saturation seems to have reached its most acute point at that time (Table V.6), and thereafter it started to improve slowly. Nevertheless, in the 1980-81 academic year Madrid and Barcelona still absorbed just under 40% of the total. The creation of new universities has undoubtedly contributed to this apparent, slow exodus.

Approximately two thirds of students study in Faculties (information from the 1980-81 academic year), but demand differs between the different courses offered. Certain courses in certain Faculties of specific universities have found themselves obliged to respond to the strong pressure created by a high density of students.

Table V.6. TOTAL MATRICULATION OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION. IN PERCENTAGE FIGURES.

CITY	ACADEMIC YEARS 1970-71	1975-76	1980-81
Madrid	29.7	26.0	22.5
Barcelona	17.9	16.8	15.8
Granada	5.8	5.0	5.1
Basque Country	-	-	4.5
Santiago de C.	5.0	4.6	4.7
Seville	5.6	5.0	4.9
Valencia	6.1	6.9	5.2
Valladolid	4.1	3.5	3.0
Zaragoza	4.6	4.5	4.4
UNED	-	4.1	4.8
Others	21.2	23,6	25.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Spanish University Statistics. Min. de Educ. y Ciencia(SEUI)

The problem is all the more serious because the increase took place over a short space of time. In ten years the number of mat-

riculations in Economics, Philosophy and Letters and Medicine doubled, in Pharmacy they tripled, and in Law they increased four times.

Matriculations in Biology, which probably served as an over flow for those students not accepted on first application to Medicine were five times higher in 1980 than in the 1970-71 academic year. (Table V.7).

Table V.7. TOTAL MATRICULATIONS IN FACULTIES (COURSES OF BIOLOGY ECONOMICS, LAW, PHARMACY, PHILOSOPHY AND LETTERS MEDICINE)

ACADEMIC YEAR / SUBJECT	1970-71	72-73	74-75	76-77	78-79	80-81
Biology	3,809	5,445	12,296	14,995	16,802	20,050
Economics	20,790	19,811	32,179	40,779	45,195	45,195
Law	21,009	28,638	41,970	62,608	74,117	83,350
Pharmacy	6,449	9,926	18,963	22,705	20,613	20,367
Phil.& Letters	45,427	-	-	-	-	104,970
Medicine	35,812	44,247	57,533	79,399	81,517	71,595

Source: Spanish University Statistics. Min. de Educ. y Ciencia (SEUI).

As from 1972, the faculties of Philosophy and Letters were gradually sub-divided, now being replaced by four different Faculties (Philosophy and Education Sciences, Philology, Geography and History, and Psychology).

Teaching at the Higher Technical Schools did not suffer the negative consequences of these sharp modifications in numbers of students matriculated, with the exception of Architecture, where numbers increased by 60%. In the remaining areas, numbers remained more or less stable, or fell slightly. Therefore, the figures suggest that the so-called "student explosion" did not affect the E.T.S., or at least they were not affeccted to the same degree as the Faculties and University Schools. (Table V.8).

TABLE V 8

HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOL STUDENTS, 1970-71 to 1980-81

COURSES \ YEARS	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81
Architecture	9,997	10,431	11,526	12,775	13,716	13,951	13,627	15,379	14,065	15,351	15,711
Aeronautical Eng.	1,688	1,625	1,596	1,708	1,835	1,807	1,749	1,710	1,369	1,381	1,259
Agricultural Eng.	2,916	2,779	2,663	2,543	2,620	2,480	2,458	2,619	2,291	2,215	3,080
Roads, Canals and Ports Eng.	4,937	3,982	4,240	4,892	4,823	4,594	4,652	4,622	4,092	3,874	4,725
Industrial Eng.	16,797	15,027	15,096	15,791	15,793	16,190	15,448	16,103	13,989	14,343	14,066
Mining Eng.	1,204	1,298	1,481	1,624	1,750	1,569	1,380	1,437	1,139	1,051	1,100
Forestry Eng.	514	636	708	760	922	929	844	944	810	888	942
Naval Eng.	1,241	1,210	1,145	1,185	1,258	1,052	963	909	817	724	618
Chemical Eng.	531	942	528	574	516	567	560	525		377	456
Telecommunications Eng.	3,477	3,621	4,499	4,947	6,682	5,457	5,080	5,158	4,826	5,147	4,190
GENERAL TOTAL	44,547	42,978	44,738	46,799	49,915	48,596	46,761	49,406	43,398	45,351	46,147

Source: University Statistics (MEC).

Unlike the E.T.S., the University Schools followed the same pattern as the university sector as a whole, with an overall growth in student numbers which was particularly notable in certain subjects. It should be stressed that the Training Schools for EGB Teachers hold almost half the total number of students, and this figure in 1980-81 had doubled with regard to 1970-71. The rising trend can also be observed in Business Studies.

Table V.9. MATRICULATIONS IN UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS
ACADEMIC YEARS 1970-71 TO 1980-81

ACADEMIC YEARS / SUBJECTS	1970-71	1975-76	1980-81
Architecture & Tech. Engineering	63,555	50,763	52,046
Nursing	-	-	14,149
Statistics	-	-	63
Business Studies	7,274	15,203	22,774
Computer Studies	-	-	1,999
Optics	-	-	995
EGB Teachers	47,551	70,534	86,551
Translators & Interpreters	-	-	503
TOTAL	118,380	136,500	179,040

Source: Statistics on Education in Spain.
Prepared by Subdirección General de Estudios de Enseñanza Superior de la SEUI.

2.1.2. Participation of Women

When mentioning the possible reasons for the expansion in student numbers, it was stated that the growing participation of women in university life must be taken into account as an undoubted feature. This participation has ocurred in all types of higher education, including the Higher Technical Schools, where formerly it was the exception rather than the rule. In the University Schools almost half the students are women, and two thirds are women in certain subjects, such as Philosophy and Letters, Pharmacy and Psychology. (Table V.10).

Table V.10. PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN : FEMALE STUDENTS MATRICULATED IN UNIVERSITIES

ACADEMIC YEARS / TYPE OF EDUCATION	1970-71 %	1975-76 %	1980-81 %
Overall Total	25.81	36.97	44.01
Total Faculties	32.79	41.28	46.42
Total E.T.S.	2.79	5.49	9.32
Total Univ. Schools	25.29	37.56	47.23

Source: Statistics on Education in Spain. Subdirección General de Estudios de Enseñanza Superior de la SEUI.

Typically or supposedly masculine courses suchs as Law or Medicine have also gradually lost their character as a male preserve, being increasingly chosen by the female sector of students. Both in Medicine and Law the percentage of women out of the total number of students matriculated has doubled between the academic years 1970-71 and 1980-81.

The foregoing figures should not be taken to mean that inequalities have disappeared, at least within the university sphere. The percentages of men and women are indeed tending to become equals within the student body, but the situation of the teaching staff existing in the 1979-80 academic year, men outnumbered women, and, furthermore, the percentage of women falls the higher one looks in the hierarchy. In the year mentioned, as against 1,581 male professors there were only 75 female professors. (Table V.11). On the other hand, female representation is higher at the lower levels of the pyramid.

Table V.11. FACULTY TEACHING STAFF BY SEX (State System)
Academic year 1979-80, staff numbers and % distribution

CATEGORIES	MALE %	FEMALE %	TOTAL
Professors	95.5	4.5	1,656
' Agregados '	91.4	8.6	1,848
' Adjuntos '	82.0	18.0	4,924
Heads of Year	81.0	19.0	3,594
Assistants	70.0	30.0	7,735
Others	82.8	17.2	64

Source: Spanish University Statistics. Min. de Educ. y Ciencia (SEUI)

Though it is true that there are now more women in the universities, the level of their participation in teaching banishes any idea of equality.

2.1.3. Social composition of the student body

A question often asked in relation to the structure of the Spanish universities refers to the social composition of the student body. In fact, the process of student selection operates prior to the phase of university entry, that is to say during secondary education.

If the father's profession is taken as indication of social class, 13% of E.T.S. students and 17% of Faculty students have fathers who are employees or workers. As shown in Table V.12, the most represented category during the academic years 1976-77 and 1979-80 was that of businessmen. It would be wise not to draw too hurried a conclusion from this fact, since this category is clearly too general, and it includes differences which make it impossible to speak of the hegemony of one homogeneous social group over the others.

Table V. 12 DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS ACCORDING TO PROFESSION OF FATHER

Profession of Father	1976-77 Faculties %	E.T.S %	1979-80 Faculties %	E.T.S. %
Liberal Profession	17.6	17.7	15.8	16.9
Management & Executive	9.5.	13.8	8.5	13.9
Armed Forces, Officers & Chiefs	4.5	4.7	8.9	4.3
Armed Forces, non-com. officers	1.7	1.0	1.9	1.2
Middle-Rank Office Workers	16.9	19.5	17.3	20.3
Other workers	15.2	12.7	16.8	12.9
Businessmen	21.1	20.6	21.6	21.1
No activity	7.0	4.9	6.5	3.5
Not given	7.5	5.1	7.6	5.9

Source: INE Statistics on Education in Spain. 1976-77 and 1979-80.

Another possible means of obtaining information on this subject is by classifying students according to the father's level of education. Using this standard, 40% of Faculty students have fathers with primary studies, and 25% with higher education. In the case of the E.T.S., the three levels are almost equally represented. Each student has the same probabilities of having a father with primary, intermediate or higher education. (Table V. 13) In general, in both the Faculties

and the ETS there has been an increase in the proportion of students whose fathers received only primary education, while there is a trend towards reduction in the proportion with fathers who received higher education, which indicates a greater degree of entry into the universities of students with modest social and economic origins.

Table V. 13 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FATHER. FACULTIES & ETS

Level of Education	1976-77 Faculties %	ETS %	1979-80 Faculties %	ETS %
Primary	38.3	31.8	42.3	33.2
Intermediate	29.8	33.7	29.4	32.9
Higher	26.5	30.7	23.5	30.1
Not Given	5.4	3.8	4.7	3.8

Source: Statistics on Education in Spain INE (1976-77; 1979-80)

Information in the study was made by the CIS on candidates for university entrnace in 1980-81 academic year, provides more specific information on the social background of the students. The entrance examinations were taken by 77,340 persons, of whom 55.4% were women and 44.6% were men. The results of the analysis show several important facts. With regard to choice of subject, the first positions are held by EGB Teaching, Law and Medicine, in this order. Especially in the case of EGB

Teaching, this reflects the divergence between growing supply and a lower demand. As for the universities, that of Madrid continues to be the one concentrating most students, being preferred by 34.5% of those who took the entrance examinations.

The sample was classified according to the social class of the father or head of family, in a classification of seven categories. (Table V. 14)

The conclusions of the study were as follows: In the first place, the agricultural sector only supplied 11.05% of the total number of candidates taking the examination, though it represents one fifth of the working population. In the second place, the group formed by workers and labourers in industry, services and fishing was situated in the first place (20.27%), higher than sectors with such economic and quantitative importance as industrial ans service businessmen (17.95%) and employees of all types other than labourers. The participation of civil servants (11.97%) corresponds to their importance in the working population (approximately 11.5%). Rather more than half the students (52%) belong to two social classes which could be presented as a single block (categories 4 and 5 of the list). The information shows that, in terms of their social origin, the candidates are concentrated not in the intermediate levels but in the lower ones.

Table V. 14 DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS ACCORDING TO FATHER'S PROFESSION

SOCIAL CLASS	PERCENTAGES
1. Major landowners, businessment, managers, high civil servants, generals, university teachers and persons living on investment income	2.90
2. Intermediate landowners, businessmen, managers, civil servants, Colonels or Commanders secondary school teachers, and independent teachers	19.60
3. Small shopkeepers or businessmen, managers of small business, intermediate technical staff, Captains or Second Lieutenants, vocational training teachers, commercial agents	15.46
4. Agricultural proprietors with day labourers, temporary workers, specialised agricultural workers, autonomous shopkeepers or businessmen, foremen, administrative employees, auxiliary staff, non-commissioned officers, EGB teachers, shop assistants	28.81
5. Autonomous farmers, fixed agricultural workers specialised workers, subalterns, policemen, waiters	23.20
6. Agricultural day labourers, non-specialised labourers, health assistants, persons who give injections	7.28
7. Results not capable of classification	2.76

Source: SEUI, Survey of aptitude tests for university entrance in the 1981-82 academic year.

Out of the forty professions included in the survey, the most significant are specialised workers (11.7%), craftsmen and independent workers, small shopkeepers or businessmen without salaried staff (7.9%), administrative and auxiliary staff (5.8%) and small farmers without salaried staff. (5.6%).

2.2. UNIVERSITY TEACHING STAFF

Though the promulgation of the University Reform Law seems likely to lead to profound changes in the situation of university teaching staff, this staff is still operating in accordance with the situation prevailing previously, which was characterised by several features. The first of these defers to the great diversity of categories of staff involved in tasks of teaching and research. The second has to do with the problem mentioned previously, that the quantitative and qualitative growth in demand has not given rise to measures tending towards supplying an adequate response to such an increase, which would have demanded greater opportunities for full-time work by most teaching staff. In its turn, this problem refers back to the low salary levels at this educational level.

Apart from these considerations, the numbers of teaching staff (including the State and non-State systems) have increased considerably during the last half of the nineteen seventies. In 1980 there were 40,321 teaching staff, while the figures for 1975 was only 28,442. The number of teaching staff has increa-

sed, but the growth experienced by the sector was much stronger in the private universities than in the State ones. (Table V. 15)

In 1979 the private sector doubled the number of its university teaching staff, while in the same period the state sector increased staff numbers by only one quarter. Around two thirds of the total teach in Faculties, and it can be seen how numbers in the University Schools increased considerably as from the 1975-76 academic year, making up slightly less than one quarter of the total in 1979-80 academic year. (Table V. 16)

TABLE V. 15 TEACHERS IN STATE AND PRIVATE FACULTIES, ADVANCED TECHINCAL COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITY COLLEGES (BY SEX AND EXPRESSED AS ABSOLUTE VALUES)

TYPE OF TEACHING	1975-76		1976-77		1977-78		1978-79		1979-80		1980-81	
	TOTAL	WOMEN	TOTAL	WOMEN	TOTAL	WOMEN	TOTAL	WOMEN	TOTAL	WOMEN	TOTAL	WOMEN
STATE	25.657	5.122	28.509	5.942	29.820	6.713	32.141	6.745	32.384	6.073	-	-
NON-STATE	2.765	327	4.548	745	4.107	702	4.521	903	6.036	1.352	-	-
TOTAL	28.422	5.449	33.057	6.687	33.837	6.875	36.662	7.648	38.420	8.055	40.321	-

SOURCE: INE SPANISH EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS (1975-76/1979-80) M.E.C. BASIC EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS ON EDUCATION IN SPAIN. PREPARED BY FOESSA 1975-83.

TABLE V.16 TOTAL NUMBER OF TEACHING STAFF IN FACULTIES, HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS (State Sector)

	1975-76		1976-77		1977-78		1978-79		1979-80	
	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%	Nº	%
FACULTIES	18,361	65.3	17,780	62.4	17,662	60.7	20,141	62.7	20,003	61.8
E.T.S.	4,340	15.4	4,318	15.1	4,724	16.2	4,845	15.1	4,802	14.8
UNIV. SCH.	5,410	19.3	6,411	22.5	6,714	23.1	7,155	22.2	7,579	23.4
TOTAL	28,111	100	28,509	100	29,100	100	32,141	100	32,384	100

(Source: Statistics on Education in Spain (1975-76/1979-80) prepared by FOESSA.

As mentioned previously, one of the main obstacles to the rational palnning of the university sector up to the present time has been the existence of a multitude of different teaching situations. These depend on the category (professor, "agregado", "adjunto", and "asistance") , the administrative situation (permanent staff, interim and under contract) and time devoted (normal, full and exclusive). All staff execpt those classified as assistants, can undertake teaching, which means that there is no correspondence between obligations and rights economic rights, status and prestidge). According to inforamtion of the INE for the 1979-80 academic year on state education in Faculties, out of a total of 19, 821 teaching staff one quarter were permanent staff with full tenure, while the remainder did not enjoy tenure. Only one half of this total worked full time in the university. Since the interim or contract situation implies instability, it is not difficult to imagine that such cases involve negative features for

the teaching function.(M.E.C., Analysis of 1979-80 academic year)

Another manner of examining university teaching is to establish the ratio of students to teaching staff within the different categories. Such a figure should be treated as merely descriptive, since it does not help to define the nature of this relationship. Furthermore, as it is an average figure it does not reflect the important differences between the various universities, subjects and levels. As mentioned previously, it must be remembered that students are unequally distributed, and massification does not occur to the same extent in all areas of the higher education system. As Table V.17 seems to indicate, from a teaching point of view and considered in the abstract, the ratio between teaching staff and students is quite reasonable. But it must be remembered that reference to the average could be taken as an indication of the quality of education only as long as the student population is homogeneously distributed and most teaching staff work full time, but neither of these circumstances is to be found in the Spanish university system.

TABLE V. 17 RATIO STUDENTS/TEACHING STAFF BY CATEGORIES. FACULTIES AND HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS. (State Sector)

ACADEMIC YEARS	PROFE-SORES	"AGREGADOS"	"ADJUNTOS"	HEAD OF COURSES	TOTAL ASTR*	ASSISTANTS.	TOTAL ASWTR**
1971-72	133	285	43	-	29	37	27
1975-76	180	227	72	87	28	56	45
1979-80	199	207	74	78	28	54	43

(*) ASTR = Academic staff with teaching responsibility.
(**) ASWTR = Academic Staff without teaching responsibility.
Source: Spanish University Statistics. Min. de Educ. y Ciencia. (SEUI)

.3. UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE AND SELECTIVITY

.3.1. THE EVOLUTION OF ENTRANCE POLICY

In 1970 the General Education Act (L.G.E.) attempted to up-date the education system in such a way that it could repond to the needs of the social group in power. When the number of pupils matriculated in the primary system represented an important sector of the scholl-age population, a period of obligatory scholling was organised from the age of 6 to 14: this was called Basic General Education (E.G.B.). Furthermore, as a result of the L.G.E. the following changes were made in the education system, and at least for the time being these were capable of altering the number of pupils in the different levels:

- Eliminatory of the public examination for the fourth year of Elementary Schooling, as from 1970-71.

On passing this public examination, pupils obtained the title of "Bachiller". This final title allowed them to enter a labour market for qualified labour. It was also an essential requirement to continue on the path towards a university title.

- Introduction in 1971-72 of an additional course lasting one academic year prior to university entrance, the University Orientation Course. (C.O.U.)

This measure meant that there was no contingent of students for university entrance in the 1974-75 academic year.

- Elimination of the examination of maturity, which it was essential to pass in order to enter a university.

Candidates could matriculate in university courses at the end of C.O.U.. Against the general expectations of university circles, this measure did not give rise to massive matriculations in the first university year: in 1971-72, 45% of the contingent of students entered university, while figure for subsequent years were 46% in 1972-73, 46.5% in 1973-74, 47% in 1974-75, 46% in 1975-76, 48% in 1976-77, and 45% in 1977-78 (Carabaña-Arango 1983).

- Extention of the number of years of study necessary to enter intermediate education courses, due to ther requirement of completion of the pre-university year of C.O.U.

These intermediate courses received university status, being studied from thenceforth in University Schools and intermediate Technical Schools.

-Elimination of the selective nature of the first university year in some subjects.

This implied suppression of the requirement to pass all the

subjects of the first year, in order to achieve matriculation in the second year.

Despite these measures and the restriction in rates of transit, the number of candidates at the gates of the university grew inexorably, leading to the introduction of a series of selective measures intended to channel and redistribute the flow of students. The unfortunate consequences of these measures on secondary education, which proved to have a limited capacity to alter the contingents of students, will be discussed in due course. As from the 1975-76 academic year, students who passed C.O.U. had also to cross the barrier of the Tests of University Aptitude, in order to be able to matriculate in one of the various Faculties and Higher Technical Schools, or specific entrance tests if they wished to matriculate in certain specific University Schools (E.G.B. Teaching,Nursing, etc) as from the 1981-82 academic year.

In July 1974, Decree 3514/74 was published on aptitude tests for entry to Faculties, Higher Technical Schools, and University Colleges. A second legislative step was Decree 2118/77, which issued regulations making it possible to establish a "numerus clausus" for students of medicine. Four years later an attempt was made to regulate entrance to the University Schools, with Royal Decree 1702/81. Lastly, the University Reform Law of 1983 announced the need to send a new draft law on entrance for debate in Parliament.

Analysing the introductions to these legislative texts, it may be said that the aptitude tests were an attempt to reduce demand for the longer university courses (5 or 6 years) and divert part of the contingent towards shorter courses.

The 1977 modifications attempted to redistribute the students entering each university between the different study centres or courses available in the university.

In the 1981 measures on entrance to the University Schools we find for the first time a limitation on university demand for a specific course due to reasons of oversaturation of the corresponding profession. (C. Toquero 1984).

All that we can say at present about the future law on entrance is that it will arise in a climate of generalised dissatisfaction with the present legal regulations on the subject. All the sectors involved, citizens, university and C.O.U. teaching staff, C.O.U. pupils and university students, all disagree with the system followed at present, though perhaps with different motives.

3.2. ENTRANCE CONDITION AND CRITERIA

Future university students must fulfil academic conditions and pass different tests, depending on the type of studies followed up to that point and the type of university centre in which they wish to matriculate. In general terms, all students must have

completed their secondary education, except those of more than twenty-five years of age who wish to make use of the facilities granted them by legislation.

Students who have completed Spanish secondary education (1st, 2nd and 3rd year of B.U.P., or Vocational Training of the 1st and 2nd grade) must pass the University Orientation Course as a prior requisite for entrance into a university centre. Students (whether Spanish or foreign) who have undertaken their secondary studies following the educational system of other countries, must satify the formalities for recognition of their studies as equivalent to the Spanish B.U.P. and C.O.U. with the Ministry of Education and Science. Candidates already holding a university title who wish to matriculate for another subject, are guaranteed direct entry.

Candidates over 25 years of age must pass examinations held annually by each university. If they pass these examinations they are guaranteed the reight to matriculated in the universtiy centre of their choice.

No additional requirement is necessary to matricualte in the University Schools, except those of E.G.B. Teacher Training and Nursing. In these two cases, candidates must pass specific examinations set by each university before the start of every academic year.

The right to matriculate in the remaining university centres, Faculties and Higher Technical Schools is obtained by taking and passing the "University Aptitude Tests". These tests are slightly different for those candidates who have completed B.U.P. and C.O.U. of a foreign education system, or have completed their secondary education in one of the foreign centres established in Spain, which by virtue of an international agreement are lagally guaranteed automatic recognition of their studies.

Since the academic year 1977-78 the right to matriculate in a university does not in all cases imply doing so in the university centre of the student's choice. Since then, candidates must complete a pre-registration form listing five different university centres in order of preference. New students can matriculate in the centre indicated as first choice if this capacity of reception of new students so permits. University Rectors establish the mechanisms to redistribute the contingent of new students between the different centres under their school.

In the following sections we shall examine the characteristics of the different entrance examinations, starting with those affecting a smaller number of candidates. All these examinations should ve aimed at selectiong candidates with capacity to undertake university studies. However, it is difficult to find a common denominator to them all. We find some coincidence between certain entrance examinations in respcet of approach and content of some of their exercises but in these cases the weighting of the marks from such exerceises in relation to the examination as a whole is different.

3.2.1 Entrance examinations for students over 25 years of age

Entrance examinations for persons over 25 years of age are an alternative method introduced in 1970 by the L.G.E. this law states that judgement as to the maturity and aptitude of candidates must be made on the basis of their "curriculum vitae" and the results of two tests. The first of these is aimed at evaluating the possession of a basic culture. The pass level of this test is set at the level of basic culture that could normally be reached by anyone who has taken advantage of the opportunities offered by modern society in the collective communications media, books, artistic events and reproductions, and so on. The second test is intended to weigh the capacity of reasoning.

Each university must submit the system of tests to be used to the Ministry of Education and Science for approval.

The law also formulated a procedure of support for candidates of 25 years of age who enter universities by means of these tests. The law requires centres in which students have enrolled by this means, to organise courses of initiation and orientation aimed at providing the necessary knowledge and working techniques.

Escudero has recently analysed the application of this law by the Spanish universities, discovering in practice a diversity of approaches which rarely respect the spirit of the law (Escudero, 1983). The most frequent test can be summarised as follows:

1. An exercise on general culture: a composition, short questions, interviews, etc.

2. Translation of a text in a modern language.

3. An exercise on specific academic knowledge (subjects, problems, questions, etc.)

According to Escudero, many questions asked of the candidates do not correspond to the meaning that could be drawn from the legal text on the concept of "basic culture".

A high number of candidates (20%) do not actually take the examination after registering for it. The number who pass varies greatly from one examination to another, with the average around 36% of those who take the test. The number of persons who enter universities by this method is equivalent to less than 1% of the new students.

3.2.2. Entrance examinations to the University Schools

A Ministerial Order of 30 of July, 1981 elaborates on Royal Decree 1702/81, specifying the exercises to be completed in the entrance examinations to the University Schools for E.G.B. Teachers. These tests contain two exercises, both of wich must be passed with average marks equal to or greater than five.

The first exercise must evaluate the genral education of the student, and has two parts: commentary and analysis of a text; and

an exercise of logical-mathematical reasoning and another of the Spanish language in the second part.

The second exercise is aimed at evaluating the candidate's capacity to follow the E.G.B. course successfully. Teaching in the special subject selected (Philology, Humanities, Sciences, Pre-school and Special Education) for subsequent study. In this test the student has to answer questions related to this special subject.

In practice, the need to pass both exercises has proved strongly selective, so that most University schools for the training of E.G.B. teachers have no need to apply the 'numerus clausus'.

3.2.3. University Aptitude Tests

The university aptitude tests take into account the results of a series of examinations and the candidate's secondary education academic report.

These tests are in three parts, each with one or two exercises, the results of which are averaged. The final mark is found by averaging the results of the three parts, and if this is equal to four out of ten, this result is in turn averaged with the marks of the candidate's secondary school record (certified by the school where education was received). If the overall mark reaches five points out of ten, the candidate obtains the right to

matriculate in the first year of university studies (Faculties and E.T.S.).

The first of these tests seems to be orientated towards evaluating two specific skills related to the capacity to undertake university studies. One of the exercises consists of listening to a 40 minute lecture given by a university teacher from the examining board, and take notes thereon. On the basis of thses notes, a summary of the lecture must be written in one and half hours. The other exercise consists of analysing a text. In an hour and a half the candidates must suggest a title for the text, summarise its principle ideas, prepare a plan showing the manner in which the author of the text argues or relates these ideas, and lastly, make a personal critical commentary on the content of the text.

In the second test the candidates are examined in two subjects which were studied as part of the obligatory curriculum for C.O.U., apart from the branch or speciality studied in C.O.U.

In the last of these tests the candidates must complete a further two exercises corresponding to the subjects they have chosen in the C.O.U.

Within this overall framework the contents on which the candidates are evaluated differ slightly for those groups which have studied in different systems of secondary education.

A. Candidates with recognised foreign studies

This group of students does not need to take the lecture exercise in the first test. In the second test the common subjects are Spanish Language and Mathematical Language (Logic and Probability); the content is set by the C.O.U. programme of 1975. In the third exercise they answer on two of the three voluntary subjects studied in C.O.U. These subjects are decided by lot prior to the examination.

B. Pupils from legally recognised foreign centres in Spain

Candidates from these schools take the same type of tests as their companions from Spain schools. However, the subjects for evaluation in each exercise are legally restricted to the curriculum of each schools during the final year, which implies a situation of privilege with regard to the remainder of the candidates, and which is difficult to justify. Entrance into the German, French or English university systems is not based on the examination of subjects taught exclusively during the final year of secondary education, but on subjects corresponding notably to those of the Spanish C.O.U. which are taught during the last two or three years. Thus, the curriculum of the final year in these schools is only a fraction both of what is demanded for entry into the corresponding university system and of what is required from student of C.O.U.

C. Students who have passed the University Orientation Course C.O.U.

In the C.O.U. all students must necessarily study three subjects, which are one modern foreign language, the Spanish Language, and Philosophy. Of these subjects, they are only examined in the last two in the university entrance examination. The exclusion of the foreign language from the tests is due to reasons of a somewhat demagogic nature. The official argument is that it is to avoid the social discrimination that an exercise of this type would supposedly introduce. In this way it would seem that the intention is to provide a smoke screen over the class character that we have already mentioned in respect of the educational system.

In C.O.U. there are two branches os study, and it is obligatory to study the following subjects: Literature and History of the Contemporary World, in the case of the branch of Letters or Humanities; Mathematics and Physics in the branch of Sciences. Furthermore, all pupils must select two voluntary additional subjects from among the following: Latin, Greek, History of Art, Mathematics (branch of Humanities), Chemistry, Biology, Geology, Technical Drawing (branch of Sciences). In the last part of the tests, the candidate must complete the exercises corresponding to one of the two obligatory subjects of the speciality studied and one of the two voluntary subjects chosen in C.O.U. Prior to the examination a lottery system will decide which of the obligatory subjects and which of the voluntary ones must be examined.

The candidates have 45 minutes to prepare an answer to the question set in each of the exercises of the second and third part of the tests.

The tests are supervised by an eight-member tribunal, which includes four university teachers and four permanent institute teachers (with full tenure). One teacher from each of the schools of COU centres which are subject to evaluation, forms part of the tribunal, where he or she may speak but not vote (the legislation is ambiguous on this point). These tribunals are organised and appointed by the Rectors of the universities. An important detail that should be mentioned is that the eight members of the tribunal have to judge the answes corresponding to thirteen different subjects, which on occasions raises doubts as to the suitability of those called on to judge subjects far removed from their academic speciality.

Legally, the guidelines for thye examinations (which are held on the same day in all the tribunals all over the country) must be the same. For this purpose there exists in each university a Supervisory Committee for University Aptitude Tests, co-ordinated by a National Supervisory Committee in which the Director General of University Education acts as chairman. These legal meachanisms for co-ordination have never been used, though the results of the tests are valid for all universities. Until now, this validity was somewhat impaired by the need to request the Rector to transfer the candidate's academic record if the student wishes to study at a university other than the one in which he took the aptitude

test. The establishment of the Single University District in the recent University Reform Act may possibly make it necessary to use these legal procedures, since the marking systems of the different tribunals are excessively heterogeneous.

3.3 THE COU, UNIVERSITY APTITUDE TESTS AND THE FIRST YEAR OF UNIVERSITY

The guidelines for the test are proposed by the COU co-ordinators for each subject, bearing in mind their particular view of the official curriculum. This consists of a series of subjects or synthetic description of subject areas. In most cases the themes covered in COU for each subject include the programmes taught in one or two subjects of the first year. Thus, the programmes of mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology for COU are difficult to distinguish from the corresponding courses in the first year of the science faculties. The programme for history of art begins with prehistoric art and ends with the current trends of vanguard art; something similar occurs with philosophy (history of philosophical ideas) and so on. These programmes are not co-ordinated with the subjects taught in BUP (Unified Polyvalent 'Bachillerato'), and seem to have no relevance to the subjects necessary to begin university studies, in accordance with the opinion of the teaching staff for the first year in the various Faculties.

The preparation of very broad curricula in seven different

subjects, necessary to pass the University Aptitude Tests at the end of the academic year, turn the C.O.U. into a year in which teachers and pupils "prepare a public examination". The really pretentious levels of the details or adaptation of the programmes made by the C.O.U. coordinators, give rise to very low academic results in C.O.U., while a large part of the subject matter "learnt" disappears within weeks of the examination. Together with this circumstance, we consider that the system of averages used to obtain the final mark means that at least half on the candidates who achieve access to university studies do not pass the tests (average mark of between 4 and 5 in the tests). The final result is the beginning of firsts year studies with an insufficient preparation.

Nevertheless, either due to a slow adaptation of the first year curriculum, or for other reasons which have not been determinated, the new students do not fail massively in the first year, and it is observed that on occasions students with a very different initial preparation obtain similar academic results at the end of the year. Research undertaken up to the present moment seems to suggest that academic failure (leaving, failing examinations, etc.) is more related to the lack of orientation of the students than to their "insufficient" prior preparation. In this respect it may be mentioned that approximately half the students who studied Sciences in C.O.U. matriculated in the universities in Arts subjects, while their results do not differ greatly from those of their companions who studied Arts subjects in C.O.U.

3.4. THE "NUMERUS CLAUSUS"

Among other important modifications which have already been mentioned, Decree 2118/77 included the possibility of establishing a "numerus clausus" in the Faculties of Medicine. The introduction to the Decree stated that the motive for this modification was in order not to run "the risk that due to their teaching possibilities being exceeded, it may not be possible to guarantee in certain Centres an effective and adequate formation..."

The possibility of taking a "numerus clausus" also exists in the University Schools for Training E.G.B. Teachers (Royal Decree 1702/81). On this occasion the motive seems to have been to avoid ovesaturation in the profession. The introduction to the Royal Decred states that the "degree of unemployment existing makes it necessary to introduce measures to plan the number of students..." In these cases, the Ministry of Education and Science can set a "numeru clausus" in specific University Schools after a resolution of the Council of Rectors.

The number of students to be admitted in the first year of Medicine Faculties is set by the Rector of each university, in accordance with the teaching capacity estimated by the faculties themselves. Half of the places available are awarded to the students with the best final marks in the entrance tests (average between the mark of the test itself and the academic record). The remaining places are awarded to students who have successfully completed the first year in another faculty of the university (40%),

to foreign students (5%), and to persons with university degrees (5%).

The procedure established is apparently objective and meritocratic, but is proves unjust for a good many candidates and it implies serious consequences for the efficient operation of other faculties. In some centres, the future candidates for Medicine Schools receive more generous marks than their companions, so that when the marks are averaged with the results of the tests, they will obtain s sufficiently high mark to achieve their desire. Students from other centres thus suffer discrimination, since the cut-off point between those admitted and those rejected is a question of tenths of points if not of hundredths.

When reaching the marks of C.O.U. and the Entrance Tests, averaging for each centre and subject the difference between the two marks, we have observed centres which overvalue the knowledge of their students in this subject by up to 40%. A small but significant number of centres overvalue their students in over half the C.O.U. subjects. This overvaluation continues right up to the final mark of the examinations, and may give candidates form such centres over half a point of advantage over other candidates with the same B.U.P. record and same results in the Tests.

Of no less importance is the alteration in the operation of other faculties, which are obliged to receive the excess students

not admitted to Medicine Faculties. Most of those rejected for Medicine do not give up the idea of a medical career, choosing to study the first year programme in another faculty with a similar curriculum. In this way, if they complete the year successfully they can request a place in the first year of Medicine. The first year of Biology is very similar, and for this reason a large number of those rejected by Medicine matricualte in Biology. But this means that part of those wishing to study Biology do not find places, and in their turn unwilling matriculate for the fists year of Chemistry. In these faculties we, therefore, have two groups who contribute little to the creation of a climate of study, namely those rejected by Medicine and Biology respectively. The second year of Biology will also presumably be affected by the departure of part of the student body to the Medicine Faculty.

The Nursing Schools also find themselves obliged to limit the number of candidates admitted, by means of an examination prepared by their teaching staff, since they have very few palces available (30 or 50 per annum). The ratio between those accepted and the total number taking the examination varies between 1/10 and 1/3 in the University District of the Autonomous University of Madrid.

The generalised application of the so-called Single University District finds one of its principal obstacles in the "numerus clausus" of the Medicine Faculties.

.3.5. ORIENTATION AND SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

Possibly the factor responsible for most academic failures in the first year of university is the lack of orientation of the future university students on the higher education possibilities available in their immediate surroundings. Thou not yet quantified, we must not overlook the contribution to the failure rate of undesired matriculations, which are a consequence of the system of pre-registration.

Orientation for the choice of subject to study is being reduced to certain activities (lectures, round-table meetings, visits to universities, etc.) programmed for a small number of C.O.U. centres. The centres which plan such activities are much more frequently private centres (some of which employ the services of psychotechnic bureaux) than public-sector ones.

The information collected and published by the Minsitry of Education and Science rarely reaches the C.O.U. teachers or pupils.

Subjects most in demand by pupils who have completed C.O.U. are those corresponding to the University Schools for E.G.B. Teachers, Medicine and Law. We have observed in the pre-registration at the Autonomous University of Madrid, the existence of a relationship between the degree of prior preparation (marks in the aptitude tests, secondary education record, etc.) and subject options. The groups choosing different types of studies have a very different degree of prior preparation;

3.6. EXPENDITURE & COSTS IN UNIVERSITY SPENDING

The economic aspects of procedures for entry to university studies have not received due attention from the acedemic authorities and those doing research into the area of "Economics of Education".

The COU is the most expensive intermediate grade course. For that year students pay the university a COU matriculation fee for ptas. 5,275. This cost is apparently justified by the services provided by the university to the centres in its district (coordination of COU, delegates of the university in the centres, etc.), but the university possibly use no more than 5-10% to cover costs generated by the services provided for COU. The remainder is used for running expenses of the university which have no specific budget assignation.

Examination fees for the entrance examinations are an additional expense for the student who has completed secondary education. To take the tests the candidate must pay the State Treasury the sum of ptas 3,105. This amount is exorbitant, as the State's expenses in organising the tests are considerably lower. But perhaps the most serious problem lies in the fact that the members of the tribunals and those who assist them are not paid for the work involved until 12 or 24 months later. In these conditions it proves very difficult to obtain cooperation from the necessary personnel (university professors,

permanent teaching staff of universities and secondary education institutes, secretaries, subaltern staff) to organise the tests with the due guarantees.

Students with official scholarship do not have to pay fees for COU.

4. RESULTS AND QUALITY OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

The results of the Spanish higher education system have scarcely been analysed. It is a fact that little research has been done on the overall system of higher education, and specifically on the quality of the education provided by Spanish universities.

Only in the last two years, as a result of studies already commissioned by the State Secretaries for Universities and Research have data begun to become available on aspects relating directly to the results and quality of our university education. This data gives rise to the conclusions summarised below. Though in some matters they may be considered general, insofar as they affect overall problems detected throughout the university education system, yet in other (such as the phenomenon of abandonment of studies) they do not in strict sense have this general nature, since they are derived from specific, empirical studies made in some university subject courses. Nevertheless, these conclusions show a trend which to a large extent can be extrapo-

lated to the entire university area. Both serve better to evaluate the results and quality of our university education.

An analysis of the results of the university education system include at least two aspects, the external results (indicated, for example,by the dissatisfaction shown by employers who take on our graduates) and the internal ones in terms of knowledge and institutional aspects (shown in indicators such as academic failure, teaching methods, evaluation system, etc). We shall now go on to refer to both aspects.

4.1. EXTERNAL RESULTS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

In a study commissioned from the Team of Sociological Research (EDIS) by the State Secretariate for Universities, on graduates in the major Spanish companies, some conclusions appear which are drawn from surveys undertaken on management staff on 154 companies with regard to defects and needs in the formation of graduates.

The replies will be grouped in the following subjects:

a) defects and needs of basic information; b) need of new professions and c) needs for complementary knowledge.

a) Defects & Needs of Basic Formation. Most company managers consulted agreed that graduates who leave university and are

taken on by a company for the first time show defects in the basic formation. These are specified as follows:

- Graduates receive a very theoretical and non-practical formation. A method providing a more practical formation is an urgent need, so that students can carry out and experience the knowledge they are tought.

- The knowledge acquired by university students is not only impractical, but also in many cases is too general and does not always incorporate the latest knowledge and technology. Greater specialization and the mastering of more recent knwoeldge is necessary.

- Such knowledge does not provide a preparation for research.

- It is forgotten that graduates are often destined to occupy management positions, and they have no knowledge of how to develop and direct human resources. It would be advisable to include notions of human relations and management of men.

- Lastly, graduates completely lack knowledge of the company as a dynamic entity. It would be useful for knowledge of business structure and organization to be taught.

b) Needs of New Professions. By order of importance we list the new professions which according to the businessmen consulted

are necessary but are not covered unsatisfactorily by Spanish universities. These professions are: Data Processing, High Management, Marketing, Ergonomics, Advanced Technology (nuclear engineering, lasers, telematics, solar energy), Communicology, Human Relations and various technical matters (foreign trade, marine traffic, etc,).

c) Needs for Complementary Knowledge. Under this heading are included the types of studies considered necessary for inclusion as a general complement for all students or specifically for certain professions.

The general ones are: Languages, Data processing, Organization of Management, Human & Industrial Relations, Marketing, Recycling and Advanced Technologies and Statistics applied to Business.

Specific subjects for certain professions include Financial Management and knowledge of companies among others for Economists, labour and Union Law, etc., for lawyers and so on.

4.2. INTERNAL RESULTS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

4.2.1. The Phenomenon of Academic Failure in University Education

Abandoning studies, not completing university courses, the rate of "repeated years" and the average duration of study courses, have often been considered to be some of the most serious problems

of the Spanish higher education system.

An empirical study on the abandonment of university studies in Spain, undertaken on a commission from the State Secretariate for Universities and completed in 1982, provides some conclusions we shall now go on to mention.

The basis of this study were 350 personal interviews with students who had registered in the Schools of Industrial Engineering of Madrid and Valencia, the ICAI of Madrid and the Faculties of Economics of Madrid, Barcelona and Valencia, in 1975-76 academic year. In view of the official duration of these courses the choice of this year made it possible to follow the complete record, plus two years of delay of post-graduate work in the case of each individual. Apart from the interviews, the academic records of students were examined (1,080 records) who had registered in the year under study, but in 1981 had not matriculated and had not completed his or her studies.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the results of this research:

1. Only 43.1% of the students who begun a specific course in 1975-76 are persons who definitively abandoned the higher education system. The remainder (56.9%) are persons who abandoned a specific course, but then registered in another,

(reorientation within the course system), which demonstrates that the abandonment of a course does not have the negative personal effects that are generally supposed.

2. Consequently, an examination of the phenomenon of abandonment allows us to aver that the extent of the problem is not so great as previously supposed by studies based exclusively on examination of administrative data (the administrative fact of non-matriculation in an academic year when the student had matriculated the previous year) by faculties.

3. Not only is the abandonment of studies less frequent than is often supposed; neither does it have the individual and social consequences that might be inferred, since in most cases employers do not consider a diploma to be an indispensable or even a preferential condition when they come to take on staff.

4. There are no considerable differences in social origin between those who give up their studies and those who go on to obtain an academic qualification. The class origins of both groups are by and large the same, indicating that in this education system, selection which is determined by social effects such as class takes place before entry into university.

5. Data obtained from an analysis of those students who gave up their studies indicates that this happened most frequently

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during the first year of university, which implies that its economic cost is not too high.

4.2.2. THE SYSTEM OF EVALUATING STUDENTS

From the same study come the following conclusions on the system for evaluating the quality or results of our higher education.

1. The system of evaluating university students (tested by means of academic records and minutes of evaluation sessions) is fortuitous (with regard to the individual merits of the students) and, therefore, inconsistent as demonstrated by the negligible difference between the average results of students who give up their courses and those who reach graduation.

2. The evaluations (marks) of the students cannot be considered as an indicator of the quality of the education received or, therefore, of the academic results of the students. There is a trend towards the standardisation of average marks. The variety that teaching staff may be able to give to student evaluations depends more on the size of the groups of students that the teachers have to evaluate, on the characteristics of the centre itself, and on the existence of collective guidelines (of customs) among teaching staff, than on the individual qualities or capacities of the students.

3. It is quite usual to find that a candidate receives a pass mark in one subject, notable in another and outstanding in a third. This dispersion of marks produces equivalent totals in the records of different students. This fact demonstrates that the centres as such do not produce their own criteria on the quality of education that they provide, since the academic records show that there is a standarisation in the average marks of the students (between pass and notable), which indicates that the quality of the education provided must be analysed between other variables in relation to the results which the social environment attributes to the graduates whom it employs, rather than in relation to the academic results based on the evaluations in the academic records.

The foregoing also means that the graduate ends up being the student who does not give up, who repeats subjects until he manages to pass them.

4. The belief that there are relatively "easy" and "difficult" ones is the moment in which the highest proportion of fail marks occur. In the subjects of the first year in the ETS of Industrial Engineering there is a significantly higher proportion of fail marks than in Economics and Business Studies. Consequently, the "difficulty" of the subject consists in the greater or lesser difficulty with which a student can pass the first year.

Furthermore, the "difficulty" of the first year is associated with the distribution of abandonment of studies: in the ETS of

Industrial Engineering most of those who give up their studies do so during the first academic year.

5. The average time needed to obtain a degree is longer than foreseen, 8.27 years for Industrial Engineers, 5.47 in Economics and 4.18 in the University Schools for Business Studies.

The fact that the average deviation from the normal times is small in the Economics Faculty is explained by two factors. The first of these is that those already holding a title from the University Schools of Business Studies, enter the Economics Faculty in the fourth year, using their first title as equivalent to the first cycle of the degree course. The second factor is that each year the students matriculate for a higher number of the subjects than foreseen in the plan of studies.

Furthermore, the difference in the average length of the courses between centres similar titles is considerable. Thus, for example, in the case of Industrial Engineering, graduates of ICAI use an average of 6.27 years to complete the course, those of the E.T.S. of Valencia use 7.80 years, and those of Madrid 9.56 years.

4.2.3. STUDY PLANS: THEIR EFFECT ON ACADEMIC RESULTS

With regard to the contents of the study plans or curricula, in general there are very wide differences in the same subject with regard to the same number and type of matters covered, the hours devoted to each one, the obligatory or voluntary nature of

each of them and the existence or not of practical classes. Furthermore, there is an enormous difference in the number and type of special subjects studied in certain subject courses, and within the same course according to the university, which demonstrates the low level of coordination between universities.

In the same way, there are many cases in which it is possible to appreciate the lack of effective correspondence between the contents of the study plans and the type of training required by the professional activities of the corresponding career. This produces a dicotomy between the knowledge obtained by the graduates during their university studies and the real, practical needs of the profession.

5. THE PRINCIPLE OF UNIVERSITY AUTONOMY: THE L.R.U

5. 1 UNIVERSITY AUTONOMY

The principle of university autonomy is, above all, a precept contained in our Constitution (Art. 27.10), which modified the traditional centralised legal and administrative university system. Chapter VIII of the Constitution and the corresponding Statutes of Autonomy have also distributed responsibilities for universities among different public authorities. However, the need to reform the universities does not arise only from constitutional consdierations, but rather from the serious ills facing the institutions and the political will to tackle them. It is also true that during our recent history each modernisation process in Spanish society and the democratization of its political form has necessarily implied the modernisation of the universities.

The need for university autonomy has also been felt by all those who, whether part of the university or not, saw in this objective a decisive step towards the achievement of a progressive and democratic university system which could provide solutions to the ills afflicting it.

The University Reform Law recognises university autonomy, leaving it to each university and the Autonomous Communities to settle on the model of university to be offered, so that in each case it can be adapted to the peculiarities of each region when the system of operation and the manner of the specific application of the law are decided. If the text is analysed in depth, the great number of important decisions to be taken will be observed, and there are left to the University Convocations and the statutes which the Convocations will draw up.

The introduction of the L.R.U. states that in accordance with the Constitution a new distribution of powers relating to university education will be made between the State, the Autonomous Communities and the universities themselves. This redistribution is based on two principles:

a) Academic liberty (of teaching and research), basis but also limit to the autonomy of the universities.

b) The powers attributed by the Constitution exclusively to the State.

Art. 3 of the L.R.U. states that the autonomy of the

universities includes:

a) The preparation of their statutes and other rules for internal operation.

b) The election, appointment and removal of organs of government and administration.

c) The preparation, approval and management of their budgets and the administration of their assets.

d) The establishment and modification of their personnel.

e) The selection, training, and promotion of teaching, research, administrative and service staff and determination of the conditions in which they are to carry out their duties.

f) Preparation and approval of plans for study and research.

g) The creation of specific structures to act as a support for research and teaching.

h) Admission, system during their university period, and evaluation of knowledge of students.

i) Issuing of academic titles and diplomas.

j) Establishment of relations with other academic, cultural or scientific institutions, whether Spanish or foreign.

k) Any other power necessary in order adequeately to fulfil the functions of the university.

5.2. THE UNIVERSITY REFORM ACT

The most important problems at present faced by the universities are as follows:

- With regard to the functions, the predominance of specialization and the reduction of their formative and cultural objectives.

- Ever-greater economic dependence.

- Political implications which condition their development.

- Multiplication of the university population over a few years, which in its turn produces:

. problems of quantity and quality of teaching staff.

. Problems of sufficient and adequate installations and centres.

. Problems of didactic material.

- Lack of coherent education policy.

- Lack of planning, at least in the medium term.

- Experimentation, evaluation and control of scientific, technological and didactic innovations.

- The problem of professional openings.

- The high rates of academic failure and students giving up their university studies.

These problems and others, the University Reform Law (L.R.U)

has attempted to tackle, so as to provide the necessary framework which will permit a rather underdeveloped and inneficient university structure to develop into a progressive and democratic system in accordance not only with present requirements but also with those likely to arise in the future.

5.2.1. CONTENT OF THE L.R.U.

The philosophy inspiring the L.R.U. is briefly described in the introduction to the law, providing a summary of the essential principles of the project.

In the frist place, it refers to the need to enter the world of modern science. To quote, even if it were only to encourage the development of the scientific mentality and spirit, the reform would be justified.

It considered that the reform was necessary, due at least to two types of demand:

a) The growing number of students, and the incorporation of Spain into the European university area. This made the democratization of university studies essential. This paragraph concludes that the basic functions of the universities with regard to the twenty-first century are:

- scientific development
- professional training
- extension of culture.

b) The Constitution recognises the autonomy of the universities. And Chapter VIII of the Constitution refers to the State of the Autonomies. Consequently, it is necessary to undertake a distribution of powers based on two principles:

a) academic freedom to reach and undertake research;

b) the powers granted by the Constitution to the State.

This point introduces certain very important concepts that the law goes on to examine in greater depth, and which are those of autonomy, freedom to teach and undertake research, system of teaching staff. These questions will determine the success with which the law is applied.

The introduction continues with the clear and precise affirmation that universities are a public service referred to the general interests of the entire national community as those of the respective autonomous communities. And it mentions one of the most positive and basic innovations, the Social Council, which guarantees the participation of the different social forces in the government of the universities.

The LRU clearly determines:

1 - Basic Functions. Art. 1 Already mentioned in the introduction and now specified as:

a) Creation, development, transmission and criticism of science, technology and culture.

b) Preparation for the exercise of professional activities which require the application of scientific knowledge and methods or those needed for artistic creation.

c) Scientific and technical support for cultural, social and economic development, both national and of the autonomous communities.

d) The extension of university culture.

The law lists all the functions desirable in a modern university. The continual reference to cultural development, the training of teachers, are basic concepts contained in this transcendental article, and they reappear throughout the law.

2. Principles - The principal ones are:

a) University as a public service

b) Autonomy. This in turn includes:

. Academic freedom of teaching and research.

. Academic freedom in study plans.

. Freedom in finance and management.

. Greater participation in selection and promotion of teaching staff.

c) Democratic

d) Scientific

e) Open to all who have aptitudes.

3. Organization Structure, particularly:

a) The Social Council with what it implies in participation of the social forces in the government of the university, and consequently in the relationship between university and society.

b) Developmental structure: it becomes the centr of university innovation.

c) Autonomy and flexibilization of study plans.

d) Simplification of categories of teaching staff. And stability.

e) Each university has to decide on its model of operation as from statutes.

5.2.2. Teaching staff in the L.R.U.

The importance of the teaching staff in the functioning of university life is so self-evident that it requires no comment. It is impossible to think of an efficient university of quality without solving the problems of the teaching staff. In Spain

during the period 1970-80 the growth in the number of teaching staff was spectacular. And the manner in which it proved necessary to improvise part of that staff, as well as their situation, allows all types of opinions.

The L.R.U. established aptitude tests, by means of which within a short time a major part of the university teaching staff without full, permanent tenure will have achieved stability, a situation that is indispensable for the maximum intellectual productivity of the teacher.

a) Types of Teaching Staff:

In practice, the L.R.U. reduces the number of categories of permanent (definitive) teaching staff in two in the Faculties and a further two in the University Schools. As an Introduction states: "A notable simplification of the present chaos of the overgrown and irrational hierarchic structure of the teaching profession has been undertaken, by means of the establishment of four categories of teaching staff and the creation of a teaching career. At the same time, an attempt has been made to reduce bureaucracy in the legal system... by means of the creation of a specific, unique statute of the teaching civil servant."

The situation formerly prevailing was indeed irrational. As someone has calculated, there came to exist about twenty categories of teaching staff. The situation had become unsustainable,

and demanded a radical solution.

As stated in Art. 45 of the L.R.U., the solution of the aforementioned problem must be accompanied by a preference for fulltime devotion of the teaching profession, and the requirement that this condition is observed. But with a responsible and flexible interpretation, which as the above mentioned article stated, permits the realization of scientific projects.

Thus, the aim is to stimulate the professionalism of all teaching staff, who normally should devote themselves entirely to their tasks in teaching and research, and where appropriate in government works.

b) Selection of Teaching Staff

The L.R.U abolished the former public examinations, and the selection system now established is that of public competitions. The essential features of this new system are:

- The public competitions shall be called by the university itself.
- The commission shall contain five members, two of whom (the chairman and one ordinary number) shall be appointed by the university.
- They will consist of two tests, eliminating the memory exercises and the "conclaves".

- The essential difference in competitions for professorships will be the presentation of an original work of research.

- Possibility of appeal by the competitors to the Rector of the university.

5.2.3. Government of the Universities

The democratization of universities, a consequence of the necessity which demands a university in accordance with the requirements of technical and cultural development and at the same time a result of the process of political democratization of our country, has presupposed the participative model, of all the components of the university and even of social representatives, such as unions and employers' associations, which is established, in the L.R.U.

The law states that the statutes must establish, as a minimum, the following organs:

- The Social Council: the organ of social participation in the university. Amongst other items, it is responsible for approving the budget and the pluriannual plan of the university. The participation of the trade unions and employers' associations is planned.

- University Council: maximum representative organ of the university community. It draws up the statutes, elects the Rector and approves the general lines of action of the university. A

minimum of three fifths of the members must be teaching staff.

- The Governing Committee: the ordinary organ of government of the university. The Rector acts as chairman, and its members will be Deans, Directors, students, administrative personnel, etc. This means that it forms part of the university as a whole.

- The Faculty or School Committees, and the DEPARTMENTAL COUNCILS and COULCILS OF UNIVERSITY INSTITUTES are the representative organs of these centres, and elect the Dean or Director. The statutes will determine their functions and compostion.

- The Rector is elected by Convocation. He is the maximum academic authority of the university, which he represents and manages. He also selects the General Secretary and the Manager.

5.2.4. Coordination

The University autonomy cannot signify disconnection between the universities. They must constitute a coherent whole, and for this purpose coordination becomes necessary. Therefore, the Autonomous Communities are responsible for coordinating the universities in their area, notwithstanding the functions assigned to the Council of Universities, a new organ created by the L.R.U., which is responsible for the coordination, arranging, planning, proposal and advising of universities as a whole, that is to say

of all the Spanish universities.

6. NON-UNIVERSITY HIGHER STUDIES

Among studies considered to be of a higher level, there are some which do not have the character of university studies because they are not integrated into the common educational system. Nevertheless, some of them are equivalent or assimilated to university education. Others, on the contrary, are not so equivalent.

6.1. NON-UNIVERSITY HIGHER EDUCATION ASSIMILATED TO UNIVERSITY

- Higher Military Education: Law 97/1966 of 28 December recognises the rank of Higher Technical University Education for this type of education. After the General Law on Education, Decree 528/1973 of 9 March stated (Art.2) that Higher Military Education would have the rank of university education in the general education system. For this purpose it will in all case be preceded by the University Orientation Course. Higher Military Education has a duration equivalent to that of the first and second cycles of university education.

- Merchant Marine: Decree 1439/1975 of 26 June declares that Higher Nautical Education has the level corresponding to the second cycle of university education.

Decree 2841/1980 of 4 December completes the process of integration of these studies into the framework of the L.G.E. The titles

of the students who have completed the studies of the first cycle will be Diplomas of the Merchant Marine in the sections of Nautical Science, Naval Engines or Naval RAdioelectronics. Those who complete the studies of the second cycle will be awarded the title of 'Licenciado' of the Merchant Marine in one of the three corresponding sections: Nautical Science, Naval Enginess and Naval Radioelectronics.

- Social Graduate: The regulations on this subject are given in Royal Decree 921/1980, which stated that studies for the title of Social Graduate will lasta for three academic years, and that in order to embark upon them it will be necessary to satisfy one of the following requirements: to have passed COU, to hold a Professional Training title in the second grade, to be over 21 years of age with at least 3 years in work, or have passed the tests for university entrance for those over 25 years of age.

- Tourism: Regulations are given in Royal Decree 865/1980 of 14 April. These are also specialised studies. The title of Technician of Tourist Companies and Activities obtained in accordance with the new plan of studies to be introduced, will be equivalent to a university diploma.

- Physical Education: Law 13/1980 of 31 March (the General Law on Physical Culture and Sport) stated that courses given in the National Institutes of Physical Education will have the level corresponding to the first and second cycles of university education.

Subsequently, Decree 790/1981 of 24 April, established the organic regulations and teaching systems for these institutes, laying down the general lines of the structure of their courses and the tiles obtained therefrom, as well as the basic contents of the study plans and the system of teachers.

6.2. NON-UNIVERSITY HIGHER EDUCATION NOT ASSIMILATED TO UNIVERSITY STUDIES

This section includes a number of courses (some of which are among those that the second transitory provision of the L.G.E. said will have to be incorporated into the university in one or other of its cycles) to study which it is necessary to have passed the level of secondary education. Regulations on some of these are awaiting laws still in preparation: this is the case of artistic education: Dramatic Art and Dancing, Singing, Conservatories, in their higher grades, Arts and Artistic Skills, Ceramics, Arts applied to Restoration.

These studies, some of which have different grades, the first of which cannot be considered post-secondary education, and in this case require for the higher grades (in most cases this requirement applies in all grades) the title of Higher 'Bachillerato' Primary Education Teacher, Mercantile Teacher, Medium-Grade Technician, or any other title declared equivalent by the corresponding regulations.

This means that regulations applying to them are prior to the L.G.E. and appear in the catalogues of studies and in statistics under the heading: 4. Other Courses.

In general, higher education of a non-university nature is in little demand by students, since 95% of higher education students are in the university sphere, while only the remaining 5% are in the non-university area. This great difference, which does not exist in other countries, was motivated by the L.G.E., which made practically identical higher education and university education. This is not only because in the section on university education reference is constantly made to higher level and education, but also, and more significantly, because it integrated practically all types of study which at that time were post-secondary in the university. Thus, the second transitory provision stated that listed subjects would have to be incorporated into the university as University Schools, Faculties or University Institutes. These subjects are the ones studied in the Normal Schools, Schools of Technical Architecture and Engineering, Higher Schools of Fine Arts, Music Conservatories, Schools of Dramatic Art, courses in Journalism and other types of social communication, the National Institute of Physical Education and Professional Schools of Commerce. Finally, the Schools of Languages, Schools of Technical Health Assistants, the Centres for Professional Industrial Training and the Schools of Applied Arts and Artistic Skills should be converted into University Schools or Professional Training Centres, according to the extent and nature of their courses.

Precisely in this area the regulations subsequently issued in accordance with the law are coherent with the law itself.

- Decree 1377/1972 of 10 May integratedthe State Schools of Technical Architecture and Engineering (formely medium-grade technical schools) into the university as University Schools of Technical Architecture and Engineering.

- Decree 1378/1972 of 10 May integrated the State Professional Schools of Commerce as University Schools of Business Studies.

- Decree 1381/1972 of 25 May integrated the Normal State Schools as University Schools for EGB Teachers.

- Decree 2070/1971 of 13 August issued regulations on studies of journalism and other social communications media within the university.

- Decree 3422/1973 of 21 December and 2503/1975 of 23 August, incorporated the Higher Schools of Fine Arts into the university, and by Royal Decree 998/1978 of 14 April they were transformed into Faculties of Fine Arts.

- Royal Decree 2128/1977 of 23 July integrated the State Schools of Technical Health Assistants into the University as University Schools of Nursing, etc..

It is not our intention to discuss here whether or not such studies should be within the university. We have simply described the process of reduction of post-secondary education to university education which these integrations have produced.

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CHAPTER VI.

OTHER TYPES OF EDUCATION

The basic objective of the General Education Act of 1970 was to achieve equality of opportunities in matters of education. For this purpose it restructured formal education, and regulated the permanent education of adults (Section I, Chapter IV) and the various methods of teaching by radio, television and any types of business initiative aimed at offering training opportunities to the citizens, always on condition that the courses offered cover the subjects required by the general rules (Chapter VI).

During the years following the publication of this law, a series of regulations were issued to achieve these objectives. Of particular importance are the following:

- Decree 2,310/1972 of 18 August, which created the "long-distance" university.
- Decree 2,408/1975 of 9 October, which published regulations on the National Institute of long-distance Secondary Education.
- Royal Decree 546/1979 of 20 February, which created the National Centre of long-distance Basic Education.

The aim of these regulations was to take education to those

citizens who for a variety of reasons could not receive regular classes in ordinary timetables or teaching centres. Spaniards living abroad could make use of this type of long-distance education.

On 28 July 1969 an agreement between the Ministry of Education and Science and the Ministry of Labour created the Primary School Council for Educational Extension to Spanish Emigrants, so that the children of emigrants could continue in foreign countries the studies they have began in Spain. The Council was to look after and endow complementary Spanish schooling in countries where Spanish workers were resident. In 1977 a Ministerial Order restructured the School Council, which was renamed Committee for the Educational Promotion of Spanish Emigrants. In November 1977 another Ministerial Order gave regulations on the issuing of E.G.B. titles and certificates abroad. Royal Decree 481/1978 of 12 March gave the rules for recongnition of academic titles of E.G.B., B.U.P. and C.O.U. studies made abroad by Spanish emigrants.

When the Socialist Party come to power the formal education system was restructured. Following the spirit of the L.G.E. to achieve equality of educational opportunities for all Spanish citizens, Royal Decree 1174/1983 of 27 April created the Programme of Compensatory Education to mitigate educational inequality due to economic, social or residential reasons. Educational services were increased in areas with bad communications networks, and in groups of towns where for a

variety of reasons inadequate educational facilities had been available.

Specific actions in accordance with these objectives were the establishment of educational support services, creation of centres of resources to satisfy deficiencies in the equipment of teaching centres or low quality of teaching in establishments with fewer than three units, special courses for young people between 14 and 15 years of age who were not receiving schooling, and campaigns against illiteracy.

.1. PERMANENT EDUCATION: TYPES OF ADULT EDUCATION AND LONG-DISTANCE EDUCATION

Permanent education, as the name indicates, includes any type of instruction that an individual may receive during his life. It does not refer exclusively to education of an institutional nature, of whatever level, but also includes any educational process that a person may receive throughout his existence. The term "permanent education" is relatively modern, having been adopted in 1965 by UNESCO, in accordance with the recommendation of the International Committee for the Development of Education after examination of a report by Paul Lengrand, though the most widely accepted definition arose from the Nairobi Conference of 1976.

Permanent adult education includes efforts to provide institutionalised education for persons who originally had no opportunity

to receive it or who gave it up for different reasons, as well as the non-institutionalised education that a person may wish to receive in order to widen his formation outside the educational system.

The basic report being prepared by the Ministry of Education and Science for the White Book on Adult Education, distinguishes between the concepts of formal, informal and non-formal education, though the last two often go together, including all types of education received outside the regulated education system, without a recognised title, but which play an important part in the formation of adults.

We feel that it is of interest to offer the distinction made in this document between non-formal and informal education:

"Non-formal education: Structured education where the essential aim is not to obtain official recognition as a credit, diploma, academic degree of professional qualification. It could be related to the term non-regulated education and non-institutional education. However, it may have academic recognition in certain conditions."

"Informal education: A non-organised educational process which takes place throughout the life of a person, originating in the educational influences of daily life and the environment. In this sense the term incidental education is also

employed. Therefore,it could be maintained that informal education is also non-regulated, non-institutional education."

All the developed countries are most anxious to raise the cultural level of their inhabitants. In the Spanish case, in the first place we shall analyse the educational situation of Spanish adults, concentrating on figures of illiteracy, and then we shall go on to analyse data on long-distance and informal education.

.1.1. ILLITERACY RATES

Following information given in the basic report for the White Book on Adult Education, which concords with data from the preliminary report on the 1981 Census made by the National Statstical Institute on a sample of 2% of the population, in Spain there are 2,044,661 illiterate person over 10 years of age, equivalent to 6.6% of the population; this figure corresponds to 9.2% of women and 3.8% of men.

The distribution in Aut onomous Communities can be seen in Table VI.1.

Table VI.1. RATES OF ILLITERACY BY SEX AND AUTONOMOUS REGION

	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN
National Total	6.6	3.8	9.2
1. Andalusia	11.8	7.1	16.1
2. Extremadura	11.7	7.2	16.1
3. Castile-La Mancha	11.1	6.4	15.7
4. Murcia	10.2	5.6	14.7
5. Canary Islands	9.0	6.5	11.4
6. Balearic Islands	6.9	4.5	9.2
7. Community of Valencia	6.7	3.5	9.7
8. Galicia	6.5	3.1	9.7
9. Catalonia	5.3	2.9	7.5
10. Aragón	4.2	2.8	5.5
11. Madrid	3.6	1.9	5.2
12. Castile-León	3.4	2.0	4.8
13. Asturias	2.7	1.8	3.5
14. La Rioja	2.2	1.5	2.9
15. Navarra	2.1	1.6	2.7
16. Basque Country	2.0	1.2	2.8
17. Cantabria	2.0	0.9	3.0

Source: Dirección General de Promoción Educativa: Working Document to facilitate the preparatory dialogue for the White Book on Adult Education.

Today the rate of absolute illiteracy does not adequately reflect the lack of qualifications of the working population, since there are in Spain many adults who could be denominated functionally illiterate, i.e. persons without studies, which would increase the total percentage of illiteracy in the population.

The distribution of persons who are absolutely and functionlly illiterate (taken together) among the Autonomous Communities, can be seen in Table VI.2.

Table VI.2 INHABITANTS WITHOUT STUDIES, BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY

	NUMBER	%
National total	7,992,039	25.5
1. Extremadura	339,468	44.3
2. Murcia	303,131	39.2
3. Castile-La Mancha	531,514	37.9
4. Andalusia	1,958,727	37.5
5. Canary Islands	313,899	28.5
6. Galicia	654,294	27.6
7. Asturias	248,832	25.9
8. Balearic Islands	133,609	24.5
9. Community of Valencia	734.412	24.4
10. Madrid	816,586	21.2
11. Castile-León	408,305	18.4

12. Catalonia	910,496	18.3
13. Basque Country	304,751	17.1
14. Aragón	162,308	15.7
15. Cantabria	50,287	11.6
16. La Rioja	13,319	6.1
17. Navarra	15,237	3.6

Source: Dirección General de Promoción Educativa: Working Document to facilitate the preparatory dialogue for the White Book on Adult Education.

To these figures one can still add that of adults who have not completed the first grade of education (primary and intermediate E.G.B. or equivalent), who in an industrialised society may be supposed to lack the formation necessary to interpret the phenomena, events and requirements of that type of society, maintaining themselves on the margin of the social, economic and political dynamic in which they are immersed.

Thus, the national total of persons aged ten or more with a need for education, would be:

2,044,661 illiterate persons
5,947,378 persons without studies
3,426,685 persons who have not completed the first grade;

this makes a total of 11,418,724 persons who are functionally illiterate, or 36.4% of the national population.

When their age distribution is analysed, it is seen that they are more heavily represented in the population aged 45 and over. More alarming is the percentage of 15.4% of functional illiterates between the ages of 10 and 24, who in theory correspond to the years of educational boom in Spain, when there was a strong demand by families for more education for their children.

Taking sex into account, levels are more even between men (33.2%) and women (39.5%) than in the case of figures for absolute illiteracy (3.8 men, 9.2 women), which may reveal a certain reluctance among men to admit being illiterate, or it may be that through their jobs they have managed to escape from absolute illiteracy.

The Autonomous Communities with the greatest percentages of illiteracy are Extremadura, Murcia, Castile-La Mancha and Andalusia.

Despite the alarming nature of these figures, succeeding Spanish governments have made multiple efforts to raise the cultural level of the people.

Comparative census data for 1970 and 1980 classified by age and sex are given in Table VI.3.

Table VI. 3 RATES OF ILLITERACY BY SEX AND AGE

(per thousand inhabitants)

AGE GROUPS	1970 CENSUS TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	1980 CENSUS TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN
TOTAL	88	51	123	66	38	92
From 10 to 14	5	5	5	14	14	14
From 15 to 19	18	17	27	12	12	12
From 25 to 29	32	20	44	15	11	18
From 30 to 34	56	33	88	21	14	61
From 45 to 54	91	54	126	80	49	110
From 55 to 64	159	86	221	104	64	140
65 and over	281	179	353	215	119	281

Source: Census (I.N.E.) 1970 and 1980

Due to the ageing of the Spanish population pyramid, it can be seen that in ten years illiterate persons had a greater presence as from the age of 35, almost disappearing among young people due to compulsory schooling. There are two basic factors which concentrate illiteracy, an advanced age and the female sex.

1.2 ADULT EDUCATION UNDERTAKEN BY MINISTRIES OTHER THAN THAT OF EDUCATION

The Civil War brought to an end the experiments carried out

in the preceding years to extend culture among adults, and which in part arose in the workers' movements and were supported by the Pedagogic Missions of the Second Republic. Everything was paralysed until 1954, when the Commission for Cultural Extension was created. It was necessary to wait until the decade of the sixties for the then government to realise the need to fight against the rates of illiteracy, since the development of industrial society required skilled labour. A Decree of 10 August 1963 created an Adult Literacy Campaign.

Title I, chapter IV, of the General Law on Education of 1970 speaks of the permanent education of adults. This task corresponded to the Ministry of Education and Science, though not exclusing the possibility that other ministries might have responsibilities and undertake adult education programmes.

Therefore, within the Administration it has not only been the Minstry of Education and Science which has handled adult education, since the Minstries of Culture, Agriculture and Fisheries (especially through the Agrarian Extension Service and the National Institute for Agrarian Development and Reform), Labour and Social Security (through the National Employment Institute), Defence, Justice and Health have also taken part in this task.

1.2.1 Activities of the Ministry of Labour

Tables VI.4 and VI.5 reflect the activities of the Ministry

of Labour in the professional training of adults through the National Employment Institute.

Table VI.4 EVOLUTION OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING. STUDIES BY THE PPO, TRAINING ACTIVITIES DEPARTMENT (S.A.F.), SAF-PPO, INEM

INSTITUTIONS	YEARS 1974	1977	1980	1982
PPO-INEM	86,104	65,846	55,502	58,196
Promoción Profesional Obrera (PPO)	16,006	17,793	-	-
Promoción Permanente de Trabajadores (PPT)		54,776	-	-
	121,791			
Servicio de Empleo y Acción Formativa (SEA)		29,370	-	-
TOTAL	223,901	167,785	55,502	58,196

Source: Sociological report on social change in Spain 1975/83, page 241. Data obtained from INEM. Statistics of Occupational Training.

Table VI.5. STUDENTS TRAINED THROUGH INEM IN 1982 BY ECONOMIC SECTORS

LEVEL	TOTAL	AGRIC.	INDUSTRY	BUILDING	SERVICES
Introduction	54,320	4,849	21,245	2,901	25,325
In service training	26,270	3,740	6,938	816	14,776
Retraining	1,148	17	697	32	402
Adaptation	674	-	236	15	423
Specific improvement techniques	4,073	355	1,186	289	2,243
TOTAL	86,485	8,961	30,302	4,053	43,169

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security, INEM "Statistics on Professional Training", annual series 1982. Publications Department of the Ministry of Labour, page 67.

.2.2. Activities of the Ministry of Justice

The Ministry of Justice undertakes permanent adult education in its prisons, having trained 1,537 prisoners in 1983.

Table VI.6 shows the distribution of students according to the courses given in the prisons, taking into account the E.G.B. cycle and the teaching staff.

Table VI.6 DATA ON ADULT EDUCATION CLASSES AT E.G.B. LEVEL IN PRISONS (1983)

PRISON	No. TEACHERS	CYCLES 1	2	3	TOTAL STUDENTS
Albacete	1	8	4	1	13
Alcalá de Henares M.	2	6	7	14	27
Id. Cumpl.	1	7	5	2	14
Algeciras	1	1	-	2	3
Alicante	1	48	14	6	68
Almería	1	7	6	5	18
Badajoz	1	12	7	2	21
Barcelona Wom.	1	6	6	-	12
" Men.	2	2	7	1	10
Bilbao	1	-	4	-	4
Burgos	1	4	5	16	25
Cáceres I	1	9	9	7	25
" II	2	28	21	43	92
Cádiz	1	1	9	3	13
Cartagena	1	10	-	-	10
Castellón	1	-	2	4	6
Ciudad Real	1	19	18	-	37
Córdoba	1	12	17	9	38
La Coruña	1	4	3	5	12
Cuenca	1	3	11	13	27
El Dueso	2	26	44	18	88
Gijón	1	6	6	4	16

Guadalajara	1	2	3	19	24
Herrera de la Mancha	1	3	13	5	21
Huelva	1	10	7	3	20
Huesca	1	11	2	7	20
Jaén	1	21	5	-	26
Jerez	1	7	9	18	34
Las Palmas	1	17	14	16	47
León	2	41	2	-	43
Lérida I	1	2	-	2	4
Liria	1	4	4	4	12
Logroño	1	1	-	-	1
Arrecife	1	2	1	-	3
Ceuta	1	15	7	-	22
Lugo (Bonxe)	1	11	-	24	35
Madrid Youths	2	8	3	8	19
" Women	2	24	4	-	28
Málaga	1	10	9	-	19
Murcia	1	18	7	3	28
Nanclares	1	5	12	-	17
Ocaña I	2	2	12	10	24
Ocaña II	2	66	28	21	115
Palencia	1	13	22	33	68
Palma de Mallorca	1	2	-	7	9
Pamplona	1	4	8	3	15
Puerto de Sta. María	1	3	8	21	32

Salamanca	1	12	33	14	59
Sta.Cruz de Tenerife	1	6	4	4	14
Santander	1	10	15	3	28
Segovia C.	1	1	3	6	10
" E.	1	10	2	-	12
Sevilla	1	29	-	-	29
Tarragona	1	7	-	4	11
Teruel	1	5	4	6	15
Valencia Women	1	4	3	2	9
" Men	2	11	3	5	19
Valladolid	1	2	-	7	9
Vigo	1	4	4	6	14
Zamora	1	4	4	7	15
Zaragoza	1	5	2	6	13
San Sebastián	1	2	2	8	12
Soria	1	1	-	-	1
TOTAL	73	634	464	437	1,535

Source: Data supplied by the Ministry of Justice through the Dirección General de Investigaciones Penitenciarias.

2.3. Activities of the Ministry of Defence

Through the General Headquarters of the Land Army the Ministry of Defence undertakes adult education with the recruits called up for national service in each contingent.

TABLE VI.7 NUMBERS OF ILLITERATE RECRUITS AT PRESENT SERVING IN THE ARMY, CLASSIFIED BY MILITARY REGIONS AND DRAFTS.

MILITARY REGIONS	DRAFTS									
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
FIRST	3,842	2,468	2,317	1,760	1,634	1,754	987	640	500	358
SECOND	4,011	3,248	2,335	2,493	929	1,612	1,824	1,031	948	560
THIRD	1,562	1,433	1,423	1,251	1,256	1,226	1,649	1,548	1,638	597
FOURTH	1,120	558	667	615	426	384	312	333	120	106
FIFTH	269	381	396	182	619	982	757	448	401	191
SIXTH	589	404	380	310	913	619	925	737	571	310
SEVENTH	203	158	182	185	523	548	463	400	449	375
EIGHTH	563	242	196	141	245	327	307	282	226	145
NINTH	1,003	731	981	1,048	575	575	560	600	212	87
Baleares	280	376	310	328	339	298	290	197	135	105
Canarias	2,450	2,741	2,615	2,275	511	617	741	836	559	483
TOTAL	15,892	12,740	11,802	10,588	7,970	8,942	8,815	7,052	5,759	3,315

(*) Illiterate is here taken to be those persons who are incapable of reading, writing or understanding a brief article dealing with their everday life.

SOURCE: INFORMATION PROVIDED BY ARMY HEADQUARTERS.

We believe that it is interesting to show trends since 1971 in this study, because on the one hand they reflect the fall in the number of illiterate young recruits, and on the other the efforts made by the Army to train the young men who arrive in the various contingents without knowing how to read and write.

Within the Ministry of Defence, the General Naval Headquarters undertakes adult education among the young men doing military service in the Navy. The data shows the cultural classification of the recruits when they arrive to begin national service, i.e. there were only 1,334 without any kind of basic education, though of the 27,016 young men who joined the Navy in 1983, only 1,652 were totally illiterate, according to information supplied by the General Naval Headquarters.

1.2.4. Activities of the Ministry of Agriculture

The Ministry of Agriculture, through the Agrarian Extension Service, provides courses regulated by the Ministry of Education and Science and carried out by the Ministry of Agriculture.

The courses can be classified as follows:

Table VI.8

CULTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF RECRUITS ON PRESENTATION AT NAVY INSTRUCTION CENTRES AND THE MARINE INFANTRY INSTRUCTION CENTRE

	WITHOUT BASIC EDUCATION	INCOMPLETE BASIC EDUCATION	COMPLETE BASIC EDUCATION	WITH INTERMEDIATE OR HIGHER SCHOOL CERTIFICATE
Ferrol Instruction Centre	374	1,201	3,060	1,285
Cádiz Instruction Centre	375	1,266	1,964	2,931
Cartagena Instruction Centre	187	1,872	2,366	903
Marine Infantry Instruction Centre	398	3,228	4,232	1,089
TOTALS	1,334	7,567	11,622	6,208

NOTE: This contingent included a total of 285 recruits who were not classified culturally

- Courses for agricultural foremen
- Agricultural training courses
- Training establishment courses, non-regulated courses to initiate young people over 16 years of age in basic agricultural techniques.

During the 1982 teaching period, courses were given to 1,534 agricultural foremen. Agricultural training courses were given to 45,535 students.

Table VI.9 STUDENTS MATRICULATED IN AGRICULTURAL TRAINING COURSES BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY

Aut.Comm.	Farmers	Farmworkers	Housewives	Young People	Total
Andalusia	1,497	360	819	1,008	3,684
Aragón	1,411	-	491	355	2,257
Asturias	925	-	780	132	1,837
Canary Islands	1,058	97	269	373	1,797
Cantabria	94	-	194	120	408
Castile-León	3,582	157	5,174	1,215	10,128
Castile-La Mancha	1,797	205	2,558	919	5,479
Catalonia					
Comm.of Valencia	2,004	106	1,367	1,326	4,803
Extremadura	505	78	1,385	783	2,751
Galicia	3,842	9	2,894	798	7,543
Madrid	379	2	120	44	545
Murcia	558	197	750	412	1,917
La Rioja	1,289	-	1,097	-	2,386
TOTAL	18,941	1,211	7,898	7,485	45,535

Source: Data supplied by the Ministry of Agriculture, Agrarian Extension Service.

TABLE VI.10 STUDENTS ENROLLED IN TRAINING ESTABLISHMENT COURES BY AGE AND AUTONOMOUS REGION

AUTONOMOUS REGIONS	No. OF ESTABLISHMENTS				No. OF YOUNG PEOPLE			AGE			
	MALE	FEMALE	MIXED	Total	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	14-16	17-20	21-25	+25
Andalusia	30	23	7	60	761	532	1,293	198	387	368	340
Aragón	57	22	4	83	1,200	604	1,804	59	763	693	289
Asturias	2	-	1	4	37	16	53	21	16	5	11
Baleares	-	2	2	4	31	61	92	11	48	29	4
Canary Islands	19	8	-	27	415	144	559	70	176	244	69
Cantabria	-	2	-	2	-	45	45	-	25	20	-
Castile Leon	74	21	9	104	1,553	595	2,148	127	305	727	989
Castile La Mancha	52	18	3	73	1,136	427	1,563	26	155	100	1,282
Catalonia											
Extremadura	44	40	23	107	1,356	1,408	2,764	219	1,191	765	589
Galicia	34	40	52	126	2,161	1,111	3,272	337	717	974	1,244
Madrid	2	4	-	6	41	72	113	58	22	12	21
Murcia	16	5	5	26	670	142	812	50	174	393	195
Comm. of Valencia	37	12	-	49	695	269	964	153	210	316	285
Basque Country											
Rioja	-	3	-	3	-	55	55	-	12	23	20
TOTAL	367	200	106	673	10,056	5,481	15,537	1,329	4,201	4,669	5,338

SOURCE: INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE, AGRICULTURAL SERVICE.

The distribution of young people in training establishments by Autonomous Communities in 1982, is given in Table VI.10.

1.3. ADULT EDUCATION GIVEN BY THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

1.3.1. The Adult Education Programme

After briefly analysing the efforts of certain ministries in the field of adult education, we shall concentrate on the programme for the permanent education of adults run by the Ministry of Education and Science. Table VI.11 shows the evolution of student numbers matriculated in courses equivalent to the period of compulsory education of Basic General Education- according to information provided by the Statistics Office of the Ministry.

Table VI.11 ADULTS MATRICULATED IN E.G.B. BY SEX AND YEAR

YEAR	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83
Total	83,645	80,251	79,146	66,530	90,389	89,052
Males	38,855	36,022	34,699	29,579	39,597	50,792
Females	44,790	44,229	44,447	36,950	42,599	46,453

There is a higher proportion of women than men, and there are more students in public-sector centres than in those of the private sector.

Table VI.12 DISTRIBUTION OF MARTICULATIONS OF PERMANENT ADULT EDUCATION STUDENTS AT E.G.B. LEVEL, BY TYPE OF CENTRE AND YEAR

YEAR	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83
Public sector	65,480	64,820	52,111	53,552	76,167	72,267
Private sector	18,165	15,431	27,035	12,978	14,222	16,785

Still in accordance with information provided by the Statistics Office of the Ministry of Education and Science, 79,418 students of permanent adult education completed E.G.B in the 1982-83 academic year. Of this total, 45,674 obtained at title of School Graduate and 33,744 obtained a Certificate of Studies. The failure rate was 42.5%.

Out of the total number of 79,418 students who won either the School Graduate title or the Certificate of Studies, 54% were men and 46% women. There is a higher success rate (66%) among women, only 50% of men attaining the title of School Graduate.

1.3.2. Long-distance education

In addition to the above figures, we should add the students matriculated in the National Centre for Long-Distance Basic Education (CENEBAD) and in the National Institute for Long-Distance

Secondary Education (INBAD).

Table VI.13 STUDENTS MATRICULATED IN CENEBAD AND INBAD

YEAR	CENEBAD	INBAD
1979-80	14,375	18,041
1982-83	13,143	27,232

These figures are very significant, as the considerable increase in matriculation in secondary education during recent years represents a success, raising the level of adults, by means of long-distance education.

Decree 2,310 of 18 August 1972 eased entry to long-distance higher education, ensuring the necessary flexibility for those persons who cannot attend classes for various reasons including distance, working hours, and so on, and allowing them to study university courses, since entry is open to all students who have the qualifications to enter university, whether resident in Spain or abroad, as long as they possess Spanish nationality.

The evolution of student numbers during the decade in which the Long-Distance University has been in operation, can be seen in Table VI.14.

Table VI.14 EVOLUTION OF NUMBERS OF STUDENTS MATRICULATED IN THE LONG-DISTANCE UNIVERSITY (UNED)

YEAR	FACULTIES & ESCUELAS TECNICAS SUPERIORES	SPECIAL COURSES
1973	6,400	5,000
1974	17,195	4,000
1975	17,439	3,500
1976	21,745	5,537
1976-77	24,599	16,744
1977-78	33,438	17,338
1978-79	32,795	19,133
1979-80	33,460	17,483
1980-81	31,060	30,852
1981-82	32,147	30,034
1982-83	35,016	-

Source: The Long-Distance Univeristy "La UNED y sus alumnos", page 31. Instituto de Ciencias de la Eduación de la UNED 1981-82 academic year. Madrid 1983.

The UNED originally consisted of Faculties of Philosophy and Letters, Science, Law and Economics and Business Studies. Today it offers courses in Geography and Histroy, Philology, Philosophy and Sciences of Education, Psychology, Law, Business Studies, Economics, Mercantile Teaching, Physics, Mathematics,

Chemistry and Industrial Engineering, as well as the special levelling courses for Technical Health Assistants and Improvement of EGB Teachers. Distribution of students by subject in 1982-83 is given in Table VI.15.

Table VI.15. STUDENTS MATRICULATED IN THE UNED BY SUBJECT (1982-83)

SUBJECT	STUDENTS MATRICULATED
Law	12,998
Geography and History	3,905
Philology	1,583
Philosophy and Education Sciences	2,557
Psychology	4,294
Education Sciences	948
Philosophy	421
Economics	2,502
Business Studies	2,512
Physics	774
Mathematics	1,013
Chemistry	569
Engineering	940
TOTAL	35,016

Source: La UNED y sus alumnos, page 49.

1.3.3. University entrance for those over the age of 25

To the possibility of studying university courses at a distance was united the possibility of entering university by means of the examinations for persons over the age of 25.

The evolution of the number of matriculations in the Long-Distance University corresponding to students entering through the examination for persons over the age of 25, can be seen in Table VI.16.

Table VI.16 PERSONS OVER 25 ENTERING UNED

ACADEMIC YEAR	No persons over 25	% of total UNED matriculations
1977-78	9,338	27.93
1978-79	12,004	36.61
1979-80	11,683	34.92
1980-81	10,761	34.65
1981-82	10,734	33.39

Source: Min. de Educ. y Ciencia, UNED, "UNED y sus alumnos" 1981-82 academic year, page 44.

The percentages show the great demand from students who would not have been able to undertake university studies if it were not for the possibility of reaching higher education by means of the examination for those over the age of 25, and

also for a long-distance university which makes it possible for students who for a variety of reasons could not attend a classic university to study university courses.

Out of the students matriculated in the UNED who have entered by means of the examinations for persons over the age of 25, 18% had the higher school certificate ('bachillerato superior' and 72% had reached a lower level of studies. Of the total UNED students, 63.7% are men and 36.3% women. The age distribution of students is shown in Table VI.17.

Table VI.17 DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS MATRICULATED IN UNED BY AGE GROUPS

AGE	PERCENTAGE
From 25 to 29	52.0%
From 30 to 34	26.9%
From 35 to 39	12.9%
From 40 to 44	4.5%
From 45 to 49	2.3%
50 and over	1.4%

Source: Min. de Educ. y Ciencia, "La UNED y sus alumnos",

Table VI.18 shows that there is a wide variety of reasons for which the students matriculated in the UNED for the 1981-82 academic year.

Table VI.18 MOTIVES FOR WHICH STUDENTS MATRICULATE IN UNED

MOTIVES	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Work reasons	14,298	41.51
Physical difficulties	1,327	3.86
Family reasons	1,358	3.95
Flexible timetable	3,180	9.24
Administrative reasons	706	2.05
quality of the system	901	2.62
No university in the place of residence	4,552	13.22
There is an UNED associated centre	1,348	3.92
To widen their studies	1,681	4.88
To make use of leisure	226	0.66
Course for over 25's	769	2.24
Others	57	0.17
No answer	2,405	6.99
TOTAL	34,449	100.00

Source: La UNED y sus alumnos, page 153.

Work reasons are the most important factor to study through UNED, followed by the lack of a university in the place of residence, and the flexible timetable. Very few students choose to study through the UNED in order to make use of leisure time, due to the quality of the courses or for administrative reasons.

..1.4 INFORMAL EDUCATION BY PRIVATE INITIATIVE

The information given up to this point would be incomplete if no reference were made to the numerous private centres (academies) which in one form or another teach many specialised subjects (drawing, typewriting, cooking, painting, preparation for examinations, and many others), so contributing to adult education, aimed both at professional advancement and training part of the population in leisure activities. According to provisional results of a study being undertaken through CIDE, Centro Nacional de Investigación y Documentación Educativa, in cooperation with AREA, S.A., there are some fifty thousand academies distributed over the whole of Spain, with an average of 15 matriculated students. (At this moment we cannot be more precise on this aspect of informal education).

We should also not forget the work being carried out by municipal councils through popular universities and municipal activities in the area of permanent adult education.

2:. EDUCATIONAL ATTENTION PROVIDED FOR EMIGRANTS

Spanish emigration to European countries is a relatively modern phenomenon, since the end of the World War could be set as the date when this movement of Spanish population to Europe began. Prior to that time Spanish emigration was directed to Ibero-America, and subsequently a limited movement began to non-European countries.

Despite the fact that Spanish emigration to Europe began at the end of the forties, it was not until 1969 that institutionalised educational support was created, with the establishment of the Primary School Council for the Education of Spanish Emigrants. This date coincided with the Government's interest in restructuring the Spanish education system, being the year of the White Book on Education which laid the basis for the L.G.E. of 1970. This was aimed at providing equal opportunities for all Spaniards, including those obliged to leave their country in order to find work.

In 1977 the Committee for the Educational Promotion of Spanish Emigrants was created, an entity which excluded representation of groups outside the sphere of the State Administration, including representatives of the Ministry of Education (which provided teachers and inspectors), the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (which through the embassies coordinated education provided for Spaniards), and the Ministry of Labour through the Spanish Emigration Institute (which granted scholarships and paid part of the salaries of the teachers in the form of residence allowances, providing the material infrastructure necessary to provide the education). These measures were necessary due to the large number of Spaniards living in those countries. Successive governments have centred their attention on this second generation of Spaniards who may feel a lack of roots in both their country of origin and that in which they live. They are all educated

in the schools of the countries to which their parents emigrated, and they receive cultural support through the attention which they are given so that they do not lose contact with the inherited culture.

The first support given by the Spanish Government in 1969, and directed to primary education, has been gradually extended, until Royal Decree 481 of 12 March 1978 issued regulations on recognition of academic titles equivalent to E.G.B., B.U.P. and C.O.U. In France and England there are schools which teach the entire Spanish programme, but it must be made clear that they are the exception.

According to information given in the report on "The role of the school in the configuration of the cultural identity of Spanish immigrants in Switzerland and the Netherlands"

adding temporary workers (9months) to annual and permanent onces, there were 126,387 Spaniards working in Switzerland. They came from Galicia (24%), Castile (15%), Andalusia and León (11% respectively), i.e. the least developed areas of Spain. In Switzerland they live in urban and industrial zones, working in the building, hotel, metal and textile industries and in health services. Spanish emigration to the Netherlands has diminished considerably in recent years. Of the 39,000 Spaniards living there in 1970, only 20,000 now remain there, mostly as workes in industrial areas.

The basic problem of these emigrants is their lack of

integration in the countries in which they live, and this is prolonged to the second generation. The child of an emigrant finds his education divided between two schools, the Spanish one and that of the host country. In many cases they leave the Spanish school, since they prefer to continue with their regulated studies and going to the Spanish school two or four times a week demands an extra effort, while in many cases the academic courses themselves require a considerable effort due to a lack of cultural integration.

If they return to Spain they will have problems and run the risk of academic, work and social failure (according to the report). A possible solution would be to provide young people returning to Spanish with a supplementary education course, and for the Spanish Administration to manage to legislate the recongnition of foreign academic titles.

The main aim of the Committee for the Educational Promotion of Spanish Emigrants is to teach emigrants' children Spanish language and culture.

The number of E.G.B and B.U.P. pupils studying courses provided by the Committee and the Ministry of Education and Science, can be seen in Tables VI.19, VI.20, VI.21 and VI.22.

Table VI.19 EVOLUTION OF THE NUMBER OF E.G.B.PUPILS IN CENTRES DEPENDING ON THE COMMITTEE FOR THE EDUCATION PROMOTION OF SPANISH EMIGRANTS

COUNTRY	SCHOOL YEAR 1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
Germany	18,000	17,295	17,834	15,746
Australia	1,051	1,087	1,316	1,493
Belgium	4,150	3,776	3,527	3,188
Canada	250	250	307	385
U.S.A.	-	-	705	960
France	17,479	18,367	17,528	17,072
Netherlands	3,271	2,654	2,511	2,353
Great Britain	4,235	4,486	3,885	2,792
Switzerland	7,590	8,026	7,436	7,100

Source: Min. de Educ. y Ciencia, Publications Department, various numbers of "Comunidad Escolar".

Table VI.20 NUMBER OF E.G.B. PUPLIS IN CENTRES DEPENDING ON THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION & SCIENCE

COUNTRY	SCHOOL YEAR (*) 1982-83	1983-84
France	-	-
Italy	174	192

Portugal	778	889
Colombia	372	413
Morocco	3,385	3,173
Andorra	2,704	2,877

Tabel VI.21 EVOLUTION OF THE NUMBER OF B.U.P. PUPLIS IN CENTRES DEPENDING ON THE COMMITTEE FOR THE EDUCATIONAL PROMOTION OF SPANISH EMIGRANTS

COUNTRY	SCHOOL YEAR (*) 1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
Germany	927	1,064	1,120	1,125
Australia	-	-	-	-
Belgium	845	849	872	1,015
Canada	-	-	-	-
U.S.A.	-	-	250	381
France	2,200	2,205	2,292	2,830
Netherlands	280	312	279	244
Great Britain	176	442	439	271
Switzerland	800	717	713	689

Table VI.22 NUMBER OF B.U.P. PUPILS IN CENTRES DEPENDING ON THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

COUNTRY	SCHOOL YEAR (*) 1982-83	1983-84
France	615	543
Italy	71	85
Portugal	668	509
Colombia	115	203
Morocco	1,132	1,297
Andorra	266	290

Table VI.23 EVOLUTION OF NUMBER OF SPANISH E.G.B.TEACHERS ABROAD BY ORGANISATION

ORGANISATION	SCHOOL YEAR (*) 1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
Committee for Ed.Prom. of Sp. Emigrants	834	814	860	847
Min. of Educ. & Science	236	239	246	255
TOTAL	1,070	1,053	1,106	1,102

Table VI.24. EVOLUTION OF NUMBER OF SPANISH B.U.P. TEACHERS ABROAD BY ORGANISATION

ORGANISATION	SCHOOL YEAR (*) 1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
INBAD	136	142	156	164
Min.of Educ.& Science	131	130	135	152
TOTAL	267	272	291	316

Source: (*) Min. de Educ. y Ciencia, Publications Dept., various numbers of "Comunidad Escolar".

Tables VI.23 and VI.24 show the evolution of the number of teachers abroad over the last four years, by the organisation from which they came.

3. COMPENSATORY EDUCATION

Through the Ministry of Education and Science the present Government has prepared a Programme of Compensatory Education, to mitigate failings in education in the most depressed rural and urban areas, where due to a lack of various items it is not possible to apply a policy of equal opportunities for education.

According to the Decree, zones of high academic failure will be preferential areas for action under the programme for compensatory education and those where there are one-teacher

schools , those where many students give up their studies, as well as isolated areas.

A sum of Ptas 750 million has been assigned to putting this programme into effect in the 1983-84 academic year, to be destributed as follows:

GOODS AND SERVICES	250 million pesetas
Autonomous Communities with transferred educational responsibilities	120 million pesetas
Other Autonomous Communities without transferred responsibilities	130 million pesetas
EQUIPMENT	500 million pesetas
Autonomous Communities with transferred educational responsibilities	242 million pesetas
Other Communities without transferred responsabilities	258 million pesetas

To this budget should be added the salaries of the 346 E.G.B. teachers who will carry out this programme in the Autonomous Communities with educational responsibilities, and the 354 in those Autonomous Communities still without educational responsibilities.

An agreement between the Ministry of Education and the National Employment Institute provides for the cooperation

of 299 persons employed under contract, with a variety of academic titles and professional qualifications, who have taken part in the development of the courses given in the Autonomous Communities which have not yet received transfers of educational responsibilities.

Though the figures cannot be given with great detail yet for the 1984-85 academic year, due to the date by which this report is being prepared, the 700 E.G.B. teachers will be maintained, and the budget for the Programme of Compensatory Education will be increased by Ptas. 100 million, which will be used to equip centres, because one of the basic problems is the lack of equipment in centres in depressed areas, which are generally rural.

During the first academic year of the Programme of Compensatory Education, the Ministry of Education (through the General Sub-directorate for Compensatory Education, belonging to ghe General Directorate for Educational Promotion) has carried out an important task which has taken specific shape in the creation of 263 centres of resources throughout Spain, especially in the most depressed zones, which will provide a modern infrastructure (libraries, video equipment, preparation of didactic material, laboratories, etc.) for the ill-equipped centres in the areas where they are situated. The teachers sent to fulfil the objectives of the Support Services are charged with the tasks of:

- counselling and facilitating the teaching tasks of the teachers in badly equipped centres (in respect of number of teachers, equipment, and so on), organising seminars and meetings for the teachers of the area;

- helping the pupils, analysing in groups and individually the problem of taking full advantage of education;

- encouraging parents' associations in the areas affected, involving them in the task of educating their children. Interesting experiments have been carried out in this respect in pre-school education and courses designed for parents on feeding, hygiene and learning, among others.

These support services have reached over 1,500 centres, and in many depressed zones have involved a large proportion of the population in the task of education.

At a time of economic crisis and high unemployment, the Ministry of Education and Science is aware of the high number of pupils who leave the education system between the ages of 14 and 16, and being unable to incorporate themselves into the productive system are in theory a marginal population, liable to increase juvenile delinquency, especially in large cities where social control is more diluted. They constitute a universe who for different reasons has rejected the education system without an adequate training for a profession, and

thus, they constitute a problem of social self-margination, since they will go on to do unskilled jobs in a society tending with reindustrialisation to demand ever more qualified personnel even in the posts of least social prestige.

In an attempt to avoid these young people reaching a limit situation, the Programme of Compensatory Education has given 165 occupational courses, to encourage these adolescents to return to the education system or to motivate them towards a profession, which will take them (even if indirectly) to professional training as skilled labour.

Another motive of preoccupation is the high rate of illiteracy, and a programme has been carried out particularly in the Andalusian Community, one of the regions which due to its high illiteracy rate has needed a compensatory education programme directed to this population which has not been reached by other efforts of the Ministry of Education aimed at solving this problem.

At the present moment detailed information on the first year of compensatory education is only available for those Autonomous Communities which have not received the transfer of educational responsibilities. Seventy-one resources centres have been created, and have supported the teaching programme in 1,736 centres situated in 1,098 municipalities, with a total of 151 teachers (Table VI.25).

Support Services have been provided in 1,344 centres in a total of 938 municipalities, and their teaching support or teacher replacement service has been provided directly for 3,660 teachers and 15,693 pupils, while 50,512 pupils have benefitted indirectly from this programme, either through retraining of their teachers or the preparation of texts by the support service, or any other type of activity undertaken within this programme (Table VI.26).

Table VI.25. NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN THE RESOURCES CENTRES AND THEIR AREA OF ACTION BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES WITHOUT TRANSFERS OF EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Autonomous Community	Resources Centres	Teachers		Municipalities	Centres
		E.G.B.	Others		
Aragón	7	5	-	164	168
Balearic Islands	2	5	1	60	163
Cantabria	3	9	6	46	61
Ceuta	1	1	-	1	14
Castile-León	19	22	12	308	356
Castile-La Mancha	12	17	6	158	192
Extremadura	8	32	-	259	374
La Rioja	2	-	-	33	35
Madrid	7	12	13	40	86
Melilla	-	-	-	-	-
Murcia	7	7	-	19	178

Navarra	-	-	-	-	-
Principality of Asturias	3	3	-	10	109
TOTAL	71	113	38	1,098	1,736

Source: CIDE: report on Compensatory Education.

Table VI.26 NUMBER OF PUPILS, TEACHERS, MUNICIPALITIES AND CENTRES REACHED BY THE SUPPORT SERVICE, BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES WHICH HAVE NOT RECEIVED TRANSFERS OF EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITY	PUPILS		TEACHERS	MUNICIP.	CENTRES
	DIRECT	INDIRECT			
Aragón	1,678	7,546	323	85	87
Balearic Islands	583	2,800	129	20	55
Cantabria	1,380	1,380	61	46	61
Ceuta	262	-	-	1	2
Castile-León	4,648	7,066	637	325	389
Castile-La Mancha	3,073	12,768	654	181	208
Extremadura	1,080	12,905	1,050	221	307
La Rioja	820	830	79	33	35
Madrid	925	1,430	82	9	36
Melilla	-	-	-	-	-
Murcia	610	2,987	493	5	41
Navarra	-	-	-	-	-
Principality of Asturias	634	800	152	12	113
TOTAL	15,693	50,512	3,660	938	1,344

Source: CIDE: Report on compensatory education which is still under preparation.

The results of the 90 courses for 14 and 15-year olds were very satisfactory, with a large number of teachers and instructors and persons being involved one way or another. The courses were attended by almost 4,000 young people who for various reasons had left the education system, and some of whom it is hoped will return to their studies (Table VI.27).

Table VI.27 COURSES FOR 14 and 15-YEAR OLDS, NUMBERS OF TEACHERS CONTRACTED AND BY QUALIFICATIONS, AND NUMBER OF PUPILS BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES WITHOUT TRANSFERS

Autonomous Community	Teachers contracted				Qualific. Teachers		No pupils
	Courses given	Min.of Educ.	INEM	Others	EGB	Instr.	
Aragón	5	6	9	1	6	10	150
Balearic Is.	7	5	7	3	6	7	128
Cantabria	1	2	1	2	2	2	21
Ceuta	1	1	1	-	1	1	30
Castile-León	12	17	21	-	17	21	387
Castile-Mancha	4	6	8	-	6	8	265
Extremadura	29	30	40	45	30	58	835
La Rioja	1	1	-	1	2	1	22
Madrid	8	35	45	1	35	46	1,493
Melilla	3	3	-	9	3	9	89
Murcia	3	3	5	-	3	5	85
Navarra	7	7	14	-	7	14	180

Principality of Asturias	9	11	4	8	9	14	233
TOTAL	90	127	155	70	127	196	3,918

Source: CIDE: Report on Compensatory Education.

The results of the 30 courses for 14 and 15-year olds were very satisfactory, with a large number of teachers and inspectors and personnel involved in one way or another. The courses were attended by almost 4,000 young people who for various reasons had dropped out of school, many of whom it is hoped will return to their studies (Table VI.27).

Table VI.27 COURSES FOR 14 and 15-YEAR OLDS, NUMBERS OF TEACHERS CONTRACTED AND BY QUALIFICATIONS, AND NUMBER OF PUPILS BY AUTONOMOUS COMMUNITIES WITHOUT TRANSFERS

Autonomous Community	Teachers contracted				Qualific. Teachers		No pupils
	Courses given	Min. of Educ.	INEM	Others	EGB	Instr	
Aragón	5	6	9	1	6	10	150
Balearic Is.	7	5	7	3	6	7	128
Cantabria	1	2	1	2	2	2	21
Ceuta	1	1	1	-	1	1	30
Castile-León	12	17	21	-	17	21	387
Castile-Mancha	4	6	8	-	6	8	265
Extremadura	29	30	40	45	30	58	835
La Rioja	1	1	-	1	2	1	22
Madrid	8	35	45	1	35	46	1,493
Melilla	3	3	-	9	3	9	89
Murcia	3	3	5	-	3	5	85
Navarra	7	7	14	-	7	14	180

CHAPTER VII - TEACHING STAFF

1. CLASSIFICATION

A diversity of types and classes of teaching staff and a variety of legal situations applying to such staff have been features of the Spanish teaching profession throughout its history. within the overall educational system, teachers work in establishments of the public and private sectors. Those in the public sectors may be considered "numerarios" (permanent civil servants), or they may be contracted under administrative law.

Until August 1984 there existed three degrees of dedication for teachers in the public sector (normal, full and exclusive, according to the number of hours devoted to their official teaching duties), while the permanent staff with full tenure could belong to one of the numerous corps and scales into which the profession had come to be divided.

This situation had existed for many years. The only weak attempt to unify the legal status of the civil service teachers, prior to the General Law on Education, was the Law on Public Instruction of 1857, known as the "Moyano Law". This law already contained the basic features which have been maintained up to our own days, except for revolutionary periods: (1) access to the teaching profession in public sector establishments would be by means of public convocation and competition, and the specific teaching posts would also be awarded by the same means, based on merits and years of service.

In the years prior to 1970 the compartmentalization of the teaching profession became more accentuated, with the consolidation of non-generalised rights, independent administration and different pedagogical lines for each type of teaching.

The Education Act (known by its Spanish initials L.G.E.) took a novel approach, grouping together in its third section all teachers (including those in private establishments) in a common framework, and establishing general lines for their system of employment. This law simplified the enormous diversity of the public sector, reducing the number of corps or categories from over thirty to eleven, which were further grouped into four main sectors: 1) Teachers in Pre-school Education Centres and National Schools for Basic General Education (hereafter referred to by its Spanish initials E.G.B. ; 2) Teachers from High School Centres; 3) Teachers from Vocatioal Education Centres (Formación Profesional or FP in Spanish) of the first and second grades; and 4) Teaching staff from University Level Centres.

The L.G.E. also opened up the path of the so-called "teaching career" by a procedure of reserving places in the professional corps to be filled by staff of lower rank within the same level or of a lower teaching level.

Recently, the structure of the professional teachng corps has again been profoundly modified, the classification again being simplified. The University Reform Act (L.R.U.) of 1983 establishes only four categories of permanent civil service university teaching posts, and also made it possible to establish contracts with a smaller number of associate teaching staff. With regard to teachers at non-university levels, the Law of

Measures to Reform the Civil Service (of 2nd August 1984) integrated the 26 professional teaching corps and scales into only two corps and two scales.

Both laws look to the gradual elimination of staff taken on by means of contracts under administrative law. This type of staff was until recently in the majority in the public sector establishments, and was recruited as an improvised solution to the explosion in demand for education, and the inability of the Administration to provide the economic resources and fill the places necessary to solve this problem. In contrast to the situation of staff employed under the normal labour system, those taken on under an administrative law contract enjoy no security of tenure, their salary is relatively low and they have incomplete rights to Social Security benefits. Many teachers employed under contract at non-universiuty levels have become permanent during recent years by means of examinations with restricted access. The university contract teaching staff has also begun to become permanent as planned in the L.R.U.. The conditions in which this occurs, and the requirements for presentation to the slection panel, have raised protests and are highly polemical.

1.1. STAFF NUMBERS

During the 1982-83 academic year, there were 235,258 teachers of the first level. Of this total, the majority (153,061) worked

in the public sector, as against 82,197 in the private sector, these latter belonging to schools of the Catholic Church or other organizations. The majority of teachers at this level (155,163) are women, as against 80,095 men. The proportion of women is higher in the private sectos, where there are 58,816 (71%) of the total) as against 96,347 in the public sector.

One reason for this difference could be the fact that private sector salaries are lower than in the public sector, and there is also less security of tenure.

Teachers at this level are engaged in Basic General Education (E.G.B.) itself, of chindren from six to fourteen years, and also in Pre-school Education, Special Education and Permanent Adult Education (E.P.A.)

Teachers of E.G.B. are distributed as shown in Table VII. 1.

Teachers of B.U.P. and C.O.U. in the 1982-83 academic year numbered 69,768, of whom 44,708 worked in the public sector, and 25,060 in the private sector.

Of the total number of teachers, 65% work in the public sector and the remaining 35% in the private sector. Of the latter group, 16% work in establishments of the Catholic Church, and 19% in those of other private sector organizations.

TABLE VII 1. DISTRIBUTION OF E.G.B. TEACHERS

	Public Sector	Private Sector				TOTAL PRIVATE	TOTAL GENERAL
		Catholic Church		Other Organizations			
		Subsidised	Non-subs	Subsid.	Non-subs.		
Pre-school Education	22,339	3,9o3	8O1	5,856	4,444	15,OO4	37,343
E.G.B.	124,859	27,764	47O	31,929	5,9O4	66,067	19O,926
Special Education	3,695	67	1	114	27	2O9	3,9O4
Permanent Adult Education	2,168	149	76	321	371	917	3,O85
Over all Total	153,O61	31,883	1,348	38,22O	1O,746	82,197	235,258

Source: Statistics of Basic, Special and Adult Education (Gabinete de Estadísticas, Min. de Educación y Ciencia). Academic Year 1982-83.

TABLE VII 2 DISTRIBUTION OF B.U.P. AND C.O.U. TEACHERS ACCORDING TO TYPE OF EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENT

Type of Establishment	Number of Teachers
Public Sector	45,387
Private Sector: Catholic Church	11,246
Other Organizations	12,816
Total Private Sector	24,062
OVERALL TOTAL	69,449

Source: Statistics of B.U.P. and C.O.U. 1982-83
Min. de Educación y Ciencia.

There are many women teachers at B.U.P. - C.O.U. level, in both public and private sectors; in the former the figure reaches almost 50%.

Vocational Education teachers number 42,174. Of these, 25,082 (59% of the total) work in the public sector, and the remaining 41% in the private sector. The public sector

establishments are larger than the private ones, and employ more teachers in each. Of the total number of teachers in the public sector, 74% are men, while the corresponding figure for the private sector is only 61%. The cause may be that the private sector has more training centres for professions traditionally considered feminine, and most of their teachers are women. The total figures for these teachers are 69% men and 31% women, Table VII 3 shows a classification of Vocational Education teachers by sex, for the 1982-83 academic year, according to the type of establishment in which they work.

TABLE VII 3. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION TEACHERS BY SEX AND ESTABLISHMENT IN WHICH THEY WORK

	TOTAL	WOMEN
Public Sector	25,082	6,526
Private Sector	17,092	6,694
TOTAL	42,174	13,220

Source: Statistics of Vocational Education. Min. de Educ. y Ciencia. 1982-83.

The entry of students into the Universities grew so rapidly that forecasts were exceeded, and it was necessary to recruit a large number of supplementary teaching staff (no-numerarios

or P.N.N.). The number of university teaching staff rose from 8,967 in 1967 to 27,832 in the 1975-76 academic year, and 42,174 in the 1979-80 academic year.

The increase in numbers from the 1971-72 academic year to that of 1979-80 is shown in Table VII 4.

TABLE VII 4. EVOLUTION OF THE NUMBER OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING STAFF

Acad. Year / Teaching Staff	1971-72	1975-76	1979-80
State Sector	22,306	26,575	36,601
Non-state	738	1,257	1,869
TOTAL	23,044	27,832	38,470

Source: Spanish University Statistics, Min. de Educ. y Ciencia (S.E.U.I.)

1.2. ENTRY INTO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

In the public sector teacher s officially enter the profession by taking public examinations. In the private sector they generally work under a system of labour contract, and

their rights and duties are established in collective wage agreements.

The recent Law of Measures for the Reform of the Civil Service states that in order to become a teacher in the public sector, the following qualifications are required prior to entry: to enter the Corps of Primary Teachers, a university diploma, technical architect or technical engineer title, or others declared equivalent for teaching purposes. To enter the Corps of Secondary Education Teachers it is necessary to be a university graduate, a qualified architect or engineer, or hold a qualification declared equivalent for teaching purposes.

The Education Act of 1970 provided for primary teachers to enter the profession by public competition, but also allowed students from University Training Colleges for E.G.B. Teachers to enter directly if they had obtained marks in the "outstanding" category throughout their course. The law of 2nd August 1984 does not mention this possibility, while the project on the Reform of Teacher Training (2) published in May 1984 by the Ministry of Education and Science, proposes the elimination of this direct access, considering it atypical of the system.

During the 1979-80 academic year, the university teaching staff with permanent tenure amounted to only 24.1% of total teaching staff at that level. The remaining staff members could and can take charge of teaching under the same terms as the former, except in the case of assistant teachers; nevertheless, the supplementary staff without tenure did not enjoy the same

rights, having no stability of employmnent, while their salaries, prestige and power were much lower. This caused most of the conflicts in Spanish universities during recent years (3). For a long time this staff demanded a form of entry other than that of the competitive examinations as then applied, and questioned the life tenure of the permanent staff. (4 and 5).

The University Reform Act of 1983 totally changed this situation. The forty-one different classifications of university teaching staff were reduced by the creation of only four corps of permanent staff. These are the Corps of University Professors, of University Assistant Professors, of Professors of University Schools and of Assistant Professors of University Schools. Furthermore, the possibility is admitted of taking on associate staff by means of labour contracts, but they can never exceed 15% of the foregoing groups.

To enter these Corps it is not necessary to take the controversial competitive examinations, since the law establishes a system of public competition on the basis of merit, similar to the German and Anglo-Saxon ones, eliminating the memory exercises. These competitions will be held by each university, which will appoint from two to five members to make up the Teaching Staff Selection Panels.

A Ministerial Order of 16th February 1984 carried the terms of the University Reform Law one stage further, by allowing the supplementary staff to enter the Corps of Assistant Professors

by means of aptitude tests to be set by each university. In order to qualify for this type of test, it was necessary to have held the title of Doctor by 10th July 1983 and to have completed five academic courses of university teaching or research by 30th September 1983. The tests were made with regard to 192 "areas of knowledge", and each was judged by consensus in a panel with seven members.

The staff without the necessary qualifications or declared unsuitable, will continue to work under a contract of administrative law until 1987, when each university, by virtue of its own autonomy, will decide on their future.

1.3. PROVISION OF POSTS FOR PERMANENT TEACHING STAFF

This has been done for a very long time by public convocation and competition, based on merit and years of service. This system of "transfer" and "promotions" is particularly complex in the case of primary school teachers, because of their greater number and wide geographical distribution. There is a general tendency among them to seek transfer from rural areas to urban centres.

2. CURRENT PROBLEMS AFFECTING TEACHING STAFF AT PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR ESTABLISMENTS.

2.1. TEACHING STAFF AT PUBLIC SECTOR ESTABLISHMENTS.

There are problems common to all teaching staff with civil servant status in this sector, and other specific to each level and type.

The matters of common preoccupation include the demand for a teaching career, total unification of salaries with those of non-teaching civil servants, the establishment of a total number of working hours per day which takes account of the specific features of teaching, an increase in the number of jobs in order to facilitate replacements, a lower number of pupils per class, and the holding of union elections.

The specific problems of different levels include the demand of E.G.B. teachers for greater social respect and higher salaries, a different policy on transfers, an increase in staff numbers and better distribution of staff in schools, so that apart form a "pool of replacements". there can also be specialists in each school. In this respect it should be mentioned that the Education Act of 1970 states that teachers of pre-school, special and adult education who had studied at the former Normal Schools, should take specialist courses before entry. The University Training

Colleges for E.G.B. Teachers, the Institutes for Sciences of Education of the Universities (I.C.E.'s) and the Universidad a Distancia (equivalent of the British 'Open University') have given a large number of courses. But the statistics show that not all the teachers in these types of education have taken specialist courses. Out of a total of 85,526 teachers in the public sector in this type of education, only 31,478 have received special preparation for it. In the private sector 32,159 teachers give these types of education, and 19,288 of these have received special training. the inadequate distribution of human resources is more pronounced in the public sector, due to the rules for assigning posts, at present subject to reform. The decrees on "Staff Numbers", "Transfers" and "Working Hours" will be an answer to all these problems of E.G.B. teachers.

The distribution and use of training of B.U.P.-C.O.U. teachers is also less than optimal. Recent curricula have reduced the number of hours devoted in schools to subjects such as Latin or German, and the teachers have been obliged to teach "related subjects". This description covers a wide range, since half the subjects are considered to be "arts" (including music) and half "sciences".

Vocational Education teachers have also expressed fears about staff who will be excess to requirements after the forthcoming reduction in the number of specialist subjects.

Some teachers from both high school and vocational education belonging to thirty schools have been taking part in the Experimental Reform of Secondary Education since the 1983-84 academic year. As this system becomes come generalised, it is planned that obligatory general education will be lengthened in a common system from fourteen to sixteen years of age.

The teachers taking part in this reform are doing so voluntarily and enthusiastically, and when their experiences are evaluated, they will be used to plan adequately the integration of the first two years of B.U.P. with the two of Vocational Education in the first grade.

Finally, an ample majority of supplementary university teaching staff (without tenure) does not agree with the form of entry into the profession established by the University Reform Law, and since it was issued, they have been expressing their dissatisfaction and demanding a labour contract. For their part, University Professors have expressed their disgust because in the Law of Measures for Reforming the Civil Service, they find the titles of 'Licenciado' (a first degree) and Doctor considered on the same level.

2.2. TEACHERS IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

From the 1975-76 academic year to the present time, the

number of teaching staff in the private sectos has declines consistently in favour of the public sector. This change has been particularly noticeable in Pre-school Education and Vocational Education, where the Ministry of Education and Science has taken energetic measures to create additional places for pupils.

The Organic Law Regulating the Right to Education (L.O.D.E.) of 15th March 1984 modified the working conditions of teachers in the private sector establishments. Its Article 3 states that "within the limits of respect for the Constitution, freedom of teaching is guaranteed to teachers", and consequently the ideas of the school will no longer determine the content of their lessons. Furthermore, in those establishments receiving subsidies from public-sector funds, teachers will no longer be chosen by the owner of the establishment, but by the School Council. The teachers themselves will be represented in this body, in the proportion of at least one third. The remainder will consist of representatives of the parents of the pupils and of the pupils themselves, the headmaster, the head of studies and the secretary.

On the other hand, many of these private sector teachers are worried to see that the L.O.D.E. does not establish equality of salaries with those of the public sector, despite incorporating concerted education into the public service. Many also believe their jobs to be at risk due to the crisis in this sector. One of the alterations in the L.O.D.E. made by the Senate consisted of defining the guarantees protecting teachers from unfair dismissal.

3. TEACHER TRAINING BEFORE AND AFTER THE GENERAL EDUCATION ACT

3.1. PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Before the promulgation of the Education Act (L.G.E.) of 1.970, teachers of this level were trained in non-university establishments with origins going back to 1838. Despite being establishments for the professional training of teachers, a constant feature of their curricula prior to the L.G.E. was the predominance of cultural content, in order to complete the inadequate preparation of the students in such matters, given the early age at which they entered these Schools. On the other hand, little attention was paid to pedagogical training and teaching practice. Exceptions to this habitual pattern were the 1931 plan created during the Second Republic, and better known as the "Professional Plan", and the 1967 plan, which was clearly inspired by the former. The "Professional Plan" required students to have completed their secondary education to the level of 'bachillerato', and provided for three years of study aimed at pedagogical training and special didactics of those disciplines, followed by one year of teaching practice. The 1967 Plan, as well as requiring completion of the 'bachillerato', again placed emphasis on the importance of pedagogical disciplines, which had diminished during the years following the Civil War, and privided for two years of study followed by one of practice.

The Education Act of 1970 ordered the "Normal Schools for Primary Teachers" to be integrated into the university system, which was only done in a deficient manner.

From 1971 onwards, the so-called "Experimental Plan" was put into practice, but not confirmed until 1977. It changed the denomination "schoolmaster" for "Teacher of Basic General Education (E.G.B.)", and that of "Normal Schools for Schoolmasters" for "University Schools for E.G.B. Teachers". The course of studies at present followed by the future school-teacher lasts for three academic years, which start after the completion of B.U.P. and C.O.U. and lead to the Diploma. One of the main problems of the present system is the excessive number of students, which has stretched the resources of these Schools to the limit, overwhelming their precarious installations and making it necessary to take on additional teaching staff hurriedly. The number of students registered was multiplied by 1.8 in the period from 1971 to 1981, rising from 47,551 to 86,551. Despite the lack of atraction felt by Spanish students for short-term university courses, and the lower status attributed to these studes and the profession to which they lead (6), there are a number of factors which may have contributed to this heavy demand. The first one to be mentioned is the fact that it was not necessary to take the Selectivity Examination obligatory for entry into other university courses, and only since 1981 has an entrance examination been imposed specially for these Schools. This

measure has not checked the flow of those who have been rejected in selectivity tests or those who prefer this way of least effort to gain entry into a University. In the second place, these studies allow those who have obtained the Diploma to continue a second university cycle in any area, after taking a so-called "bridging course", which is merely a series of examinations in subjects that have not been studied, and this meant that many students preferred this way of achieving a university degree.

To this should be added the greater ease of access to the studies, since the Schools are widely spread geographically; there are 88 Schools, of which 64% are in the public sector.

The last point to be mentioned is the greater ease in achieving the levels demanded of the students during their studies. According to the average situation for the period 1965-81, 59% completed their courses (out of the total number of students beginning them), while the corresponding figure for university faculties was 22%, and that for the Higher Technical Schools was only 6% (7). This seems to contradict what the students themselves say. In a survey of 350 students from six Schools in different areas of Spain, only 15.21% of women and 17.39% of men admitted having selected these courses "because they are short and easy course", while 91.30% of women and 89.13% of men answered, "because I like teaching", and a similar number stated that it was "because I like dealing

with children" (8). However, many of the students who attend these Schools never take up the professions, given the high rate of unemployment among holders of these Diplomas. Everthing seems to indicate that these courses, which are projected as professional, in fact are functioning as a first university cycle. For all these reasons, the Experimental Plan of 1971 has been subject to criticism, which has also extended to the shortness of the courses, for which an additional year is being demanded.

With regard to the curriculum, the scant importante of professional pedagogical training has come under fire, as well as the deception involved in the so-called "special didactics", which, in general, are simply an extension of the subjects taught at "Bachiller" level, and criticism has also been directed against the inadequacy of the practical classes and the excessive number of subjects (9). From the very outset there have been proposals for reform, coming from the teachers themselves and professional associations, while both the organization and the content of these studies have been, and continue to be, the subject of study.

In 1982 the Ministry itself oficially created a working group to reform these Schools, but neither its conclusions (10), nor those of other groups, have had more than a partial effect on educational policy. At present the Ministry has the firm intention of profoundly restructuring these courses (see the last section of this chapter.

3.2. SECONDARY EDUCATION TEACHING STAFF

Before the L.G.E., teachers at this level received their scientific training either at University in the case of future B.U.P. teachers, or in other centres,not all dependent on the Ministry of Education and Science, in the case of teachers of Vocational Education or other secondary studies, such as Schools of Commerce, among others.

In addition to their scientific training, students followed a two-year course of pedagogical theory and practice, with teaching practice in the second year in a secondary school with the help of a permanent teacher who acted as tutor. At the end of the course the student received the "Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude" (C.A.P.), which was necessary in order to take the public examinations for official entry into the teaching profession. (this Certificate could also be granted after two years of practical teaching in a Spanish or foreign secondary school).

The L.G.E. stated that all teachers had to receive both their scientific and their pedagogical training at universities. The institutes of Education Sciences (I.C.E.) which the law created dependent on each university, were from then onwards the institutions responsible for giving a course of theory and practice with a total duration of three hundred hours, at the end of which the students would obtain the C.A.P.

This course has received strong criticism in respect of its content, form and the conditions in which it was imparted. The fact that it was an obligatory requisite for application to take the entrance examinations for the teaching profession, and that students had to pay a registration fee varying from six thousand to forty thousand pesetas depending on each I.C.E., have contributed to generating dissatisfaction and discontent amongst the graduate students. The causes of this situation must be attributed to the weak infrastructure of means and staff possessed by the I.C.E.'s which over all these years have not been strengthened or even provided with a stable body of staff. A further cause is the heavy demand for the C.A.P. course in view of its obligatory nature. The I.C.E.'s themselves have insistently demanded an improvement in these conditions, so that their teaching can achieve its aim efficiently, responding to the real needs of the future teacher, or if not, eliminating this activity (11). The latter solution is the one chosen in the 1984 project of the Ministry, the authors of which consider that the training of secondary school teachers should take place in the future Faculties of Pedagogy with the University Schools for the Training of Primary School Teachers.

3.3. UNIVERSITY TEACHING STAFF

Teaching staff at this level receive instruction in their basic subject at the university itself, and until the Education Act of 1970 it was not considered necessary for them to

receive any pedagogical or didactic training. The law stated that in order to enter the university teaching corps, it would be necessary to have completed the "corresponding training courses in the I.C.E.'s", but it did not mention the length or content of these courses. This function of the I.C.E.'s has never been fulfilled, and training of teaching staff at this level has been obtained during the period of study for the doctorate with teaching practice as assistant lecturers.

4. IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

4.1. CENTRES FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Before the Education Act of 1970, L.G.E., there was already an interest for the in-service training of teachers, and in 1964 this led to the issue of regulations on the Circles of Pedagogical Cooperation, the origin of which goes back to 1905. These were groups of teachers organised by the inspectors of each province, with the aim of exchanging innovative experiences so as to improve their teaching.

But it was in 1969 when interest in the continuing improvement of teaching at all levels led to the creation of the Institutes of Education Sciences, each one being dependent on a university. They had a three-fold mission: to undertake research in areas of pedagogy or those related to education, to train secondary level teachers by means of the C.A.P. Courses (as well as primary teachers trained under former plans which did not include the specialities and levels contained in the Education Act), and to organize activities leading to the improvement of those people already teaching.

At the same time, the National Centre for Research in Educational Development (C.E.N.I.D.E.) was created to coordinate the I.C.E.'s, as a joint product of the Ministry of Education and Science and the United Nations Development project

(U.N.D.P.) via its executive organ U.N.E.S.C.O.. U.N.E.S.C.O. experts took an active part in the creation of this entity and in the impulse given to the I.C.E.'s, helping to train personnel and granting U.N.E.S.C.O. scholarships for study in foreign institutions.

The C.E.N.I.D.E. has the mission of putting the L.G.E. into practice. It coordinated and improved the training of the I.C.E. staff, and publicised the results of their research and other activities, while at the same time undertaking its own activities.

In 1974 the C.E.N.I.D.E. was abolished, due to the fact that its nature as an organ of the Central Services of the Ministry of Education and Science made it less flexible and efficient. In its place was created the National Institute of Educational Sciences (I.N.C.I.E.), an autonomous body of the same Ministry, which assumed the functions of the C.E.N.I.D.E., improving and extending them.

The network formed by the I.N.C.I.E. and the I.C.E.'s has undertaken a joint programme to improve teaching at all levels, including universities. From 1975 onwards, national plans were organised, with activities subsidised and controlled through the I.N.C.I.E.. The criteria for such improvements were issued by the various General Directorates of the Ministry of Education and Science, who set the annual priorities. The courses were mainly aimed at improvements in the pedagogical and didactic areas. They involved programming and evaluation of

objectives, psychology of learning, educational methodology and technology, training design and special didactics. They also covered training for non-teaching civil servants connected with education, such as Headmasters, Heads of Study, Counsellors, Tutors and so on.

When judging the performance of the I.C.E.'s, one should bear in mind their deficient infrastructure and the disproportionate volumen of activities they were expected to fulfil. Most of these were undertaken at the request of local teachers, who participated actively in working groups, courses and seminars.

University teaching staff also took part in courses aimed at didactic improvement and, more particularly, at up-dating their specialised subjects; staff at this level were also responsible for most of the research undertaken by the I.C.E.'s.

The in-service teacher training activities of this network of centres continued after de I.N.C.I.E., in its turn, was abolished in December 1980, its coordinating functions being assumed by a new General Sub-Directorate of Teaching Improvement.

Today, the promulgation of new laws has created a radically different situation. The University Reform Law of 1983 granted autonomy to each university, and by virtue of this, each university will, in the near future, decide whether or not it wishes to continue maintaining an I.C.E., and what functions should be assigned to it. The General Sub-Directorate of Teaching Improvement no longer channels the former subsidies to these institutes. The Decree of 14th November 1984 of the Ministry

of Education and Science assigns to the Teacher Training Centres (C.E.P.'s) the mission of improving teaching staff and to act as a stable platform for the team-work of the teachers of all educational levels, run participatively, and backed by the central academic authorities.

Finally, the measures taken by the education authorities in the area of teaching improvement include the establishment in 1983 of a network of Centres for Study and Exchange for Pedagogic Renewal (C.E.I.R.E.S.), which replace the former Circles of Pedagogic Cooperation. The C.E.I.R.E.S. have been set up as groupings of teachers at the first level from both public and private sectors, coordinated by the Inspection Departments of the E.G.B. of the Provincial Directorates of Education and Science. The Ministry decides the priority areas for study and experiment, and provides economic support for the projects presented at the centres, which must aim at an improvement in the practical side of teaching. The above-mentioned Decree of 14th November 1984 integrates the C.E.I.R.E.S. into the C.E.P.'s of each territorial area.

4.2. CURRENT MOVEMENTS FOR THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND RENEWING PEDAGOGIC TECHNIQUES

In 1966 grouping of teachers of all educational levels (Though predominantly non-university) began to spring up in Spain. These movements for pedagogic renewal took up the tradition of the Institución Libre de Enseñanza and, particularly, of the Catalonian pioneers who has founded the first "Summer School" in 1913.

1975 was the key year in giving an impulse in the creation of movements throughout the country, in response to the demands of teachers who were dissatisfied with the academic and social realities and with the system of institutional in-service training. Since 1979, these groups have held annual meetings which have manifested their common approach to the situation of the school within the political and social realities, and their will to make the school an instrument of change, thus demanding a single, lay, obligatory free school system.

The most important activities of the Movements for Pedagogic Renewal (M.R.P.) are the "Summer Schools", which are held each year. In 1983 over fifty thousand teachers attended one of the fifty meetings organised by the forty-six groups existing in the majority of provinces. Their remaining activities are winter courses , working groups, publications, pedagogic sessions and school camps.

The M.R.P. always take school practice as their point of departure in their dialectic relationship with the natural and social environments, and the needs that these latter produce. The attraction of their activities, which persuade so many teachers to interrupt their holidays to improve their professional skills, is due to the diversity of the courses offered, which include over one hundred subjects, and to the possibility offered through such meetings for the teachers to exchange experiences and debate educational problems. To this should be added the recreational aspecto of these courses, which usually include

activities in the areas of folklore, art and leisure.

The present education authorities have recognise4d and expressed gratitude for the tasks undertaken by the M.R.P. since their creation, and the Ministry has strengthened its economic and social support for these groups. It is highly probable that the M.R.P. will cooperate actively in the future Teacher's Centres, serving as catalysts for them. Nevertheless, as their representatives have declared, it is necessary to avoid the loss of their autonomy and their sense of criticism which has been one of tneir specific features, and it would not be desirable for them to be absorbed into the Administration (12).

5. PROJECTS FOR REFORMING THE TRAINING AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHING STAFF

In May 1984 the Ministry of Education and Science published a draft plan to reform the initial and in-service training of teachers at non-university levels. The document, (13) which presents this plan begins with a diagnosis of the current situation, which it considers to be unsatisfactory, and proposes new guidelines for a radical change in this type of studies. The Ministry plan in an attempt to overcome the partial approaches to the problem manifested in the deficient integration of the universities in the training of primary school teachers and in the inadequate pedagogic training of secondary school teaching staff. It proposes that both types of teacher should receive interdisciplinary training at university, which in the new organization set up by the University Reform Law will be run by departments, thus overcoming the narrow framework of the faculties. This will make the use of the new system of "credits" possible, which, together with the establishmente of new areas of knowledge, both in education and in special didactics and other subjects, will impose a radical change in the curricula of teachers at the basic and secondary levels.

With regard to initial training, a scale of three different degrees in proposed: 1) that of teacher of basic general education and infant education; 2) that of teacher of special education and other specialities; and 3) previous degree recognition for

secondary education teachers, which will replace the present C.A.P..

Other qualifications related to education, such as specialist in curriculum development, psycho-pedagogic counselling, educational organization and other, will be obtained in a second cycle in education, or a degree course. The doctorate in education will train researchers and teacher-trainers in areas of knowledge related to education.

The second part of the document gives the guidelines for ministerial action to reform the in-service training of teachers. In view of the deficiencies in planning and coordination from which the present system suffers, and within the framework of the University Reform Law and the division of Spain into autonomous regions, the creation of Teacher Centres (C.E.P.'s) is proposed, along the lines of similar British centres. They will attend to the needs of primary and secondary teachers, who will make up their governing bodies (14). The C.E.P.'s will be created by, and will depend on the Ministry of Education and Science, and may receive the support of autonomous and local authorities.

These centres are defined as places for the communication and exchange of pedagogic and didactic ideas and experiences, in accordance with the needs of the teachers. There will be many of them: they are planned to reach the figure of five hundred eventually, and there will be a wide geographical spread. Each

C.E.P. is calculated to be able to attend to the needs of between sixty and a hundred schools in urban areas, and a greater number in rural areas. They will have collegiate bodies made up of teachers from the various educational sectors, members of the central educational authorities, and representatives of local corporations, and will operate democratically both in the preparation of their annual plans of activities, and in the control of the budget, most of which will be financed by funds from the central educational authorities.

As mentioned above, within this new institutionalization of further training, the national plans of further training, formerly carried out by the I.C.E.'s, will now be undertaken via the C.E.P.'s. These centres will enable teachers to adapt the school curriculum to the specific conditions of the enviroment.

Other functions of the C.E.P.'s will be:

- taking part in the elaboration and difussion of the educational reforms proposed by the ministerial authorities.

- developing further training and up-dating initiatives proposed by the teachers in each area.

- furthering the development of applied research.

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FINAL CHAPTER

FUTURE PROSPECTS

Throughout the foregoing chapters, we have attempted to give as exact and detailed description as possible of the current situation of the Spanish educational system. To do this, we have continually referred back to the General Education Act of 1970, and to the reforms which began to take place after it was passed. The success of the Act has been disparate, but there is little doubt that the Spanish educational system would be very different today, if the Act had not established the bases for the transformation of the former system.

Although in successive chapters we have repeatedly referred to the deficiencies of the system, and to the projects for reform which are in existence, it seems to be a good idea for this report to end, specifically with as systematic as possible an account of educational policy at the moment, for, it is on the success or the failure of this policy that, in the end, the future state of the Spanish educational system, like all others facing up to its own deficiencies, and meeting the needs of both present and future, will depend.

The educational policy whose general outlines we are going to examine in this chapter is, naturally, that of the present government. Even when the comparative newness of the policy is stressed, the reader of this report should not forget that

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the greater part of the reforms which are under way are attempting to confront needs which are felt almost universally, and deficiencies the diagnostic of which enjoys a wide and general consensus. The most important of these reforms are laid down by the Constitution itself, as for instance University reform, the decentralisation of educational administration, or the contention that compulsory education should be free. All of these were begun by earlier governments, as well as others, such as the reform of Secondary Education, or Primary. Thus the changes being wrought by the present educational policy are being carried on against the background of consensus which at no time should disappear from view.

Educational policy, which we shall set forth in a moment, falls neatly into four major sections. In the first place, the efforts to achieve harmonious collaboration between public and private entitities to guarantee the right of all to education, the best-known manifestation of which is the Rights to Education Act (hereafter LODE) which regulates both the powers of the various public administrations (central government, autonomous communities) and their relationship with private education. Secondly, programmes to correct the inequality of opportunity, thirdly, reforms designed to improve the quality of education, and fourthly and last, University reform.

1. THE LODE AND THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF NON-UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

In Chapter I of the second part of this report there appeared transcript of articles of the Spanish Constitution of 1978 which related to education, and brief mention was made of the two organic laws which, up to now, have taken account of these: the Statute of Teaching Establishments Act (hereafter LOECE), passed in 1980 with a UCD (Central Democratic Union Party) majority, and the Rights to Education Act (LODE), approved by Parliament in 1983, and still waiting to come into force, which will depend on the outcome of certain appeals against it before the Constitutional Tribunal. The LOECE was, at the time, fiercely opposed by the then minority socialist group, and, from the point of view of the present government, 'the Statute of non-university teaching establishments Act broke the constitutional balance and agreement.' This Act was principally designed to ensure the right of private initiative to set up and run schools, and the rights of the owners of these schools to establish an ideology. Participation of the scholastic community in schools supported by public funds, freedom of conscience, freedom of teaching,

> control of subsidies to private schools, which form an essential part of the mandate of the Constitution in educational matters, were nevertheless forgotten about in this Act' (1).

Throughout this report we have systematically taken private education into account, including (Chapter IV of the First Part) the fact that nearly all EGB and FP schools are only private insofar as the ownership is concerned, but not with regard to the financing, which is done by the state. The controversy which has surrounded - and continues to surround - the LODE stems from the fact that it is an Act which affects both state and private education, in an attempt to abolish this traditional division in the educational system by means of the setting-up of an integrated network of state and other schools with the co-ordination of the public authority.

Below we shall examine certain aspects, and possible repercussions, of this integration.

a) The primary objective of the LODE may be considered as the integration of all teaching establishments into a mixed network, totally cohesive and controlled, which makes it possible to attend to the right of everyone to education, as laid down in the Constitution. With this mixed network it should be possible, in the first instance, to trace a kind of 'carte scolaire', which would permit a rational planning of resources, and the standardisation of working conditions in all schools maintained with public money, insofar as things like minimum requirements, the gratuitous nature of education, recruitment of teachers, and the participation and running of the schools

are concerned. The aim of all this is that all teaching establishments should contribute to the satisfaction of the social demand for education, and to make possible, in conditions of equality, the freedom of choice of school.

'Thus the LODE permits a more suitable distribution of public resources devoted to education. In this way, the dichotomy and even the conflict, which the Right and other interested groups are attempting to establish between the principles of equality and liberty, which is both ethically and politically unacceptable, must be overcome by the simultaneous affirmation of both principles. Freedom of choice is preached for all: for all to be able to choose it is necessary that there be a guarantee of something worth choosing. The freedom of some must not bring about a limitation in the freedom or right of the rest: the freedom of choice of one group cannot be exercised at the expense of the right to education of another. Freedom of choice must necessarily be compatible with the validity of all school places, and with equality within the educational system as a whole, which all users of that system must enjoy. This is an attempt to ensure pluralism and equity' (2).

b) The second objective of the LODE, then, is the drawing together of the diverse aspects of freedom of education. Of these, the main ones are the freedom of private individuals

to set up, and run schools, the freedom of teaching of teachers, the freedom of the pupils to learn and the freedom of parents to choose a school. The regulation of these liberties proposed by the LODE corrects in certain important aspects, the regulation laid down by the LOECE, and has caused a lot of controversy.

For example, let us consider the question of the parents' right to choose a school. The regulation is the same in both Acts for state schools and for co-ordinated or subsidised schools. However, the LODE is much more specific about criteria of selection in those cases where there are more applications than there are places. The LODE established that economic and ecological criteria should be taken into account; the LODE introduces, as the first criterion, the level of family income, the closeness of the family home to the school, as the second criterion, and, as a third fundamental criterion, whether brothers and sisters had previously attended the school. Basically the principle is that if there is any difficulty in selecting pupils, preference should be given to the poorest, or those living nearest.

Thus an attempt is made at an equitable distribution of places when they are scarce, however this has greatly displeased a small number of parents and people in the education business, who see in this a limitation of their own discretional powers

to admit pupills.

Opposition has also been stirred up by the simultaneous recognition of the freedom to establish the 'individual nature' of the school by its owner, and the freedom of teaching for teachers. Naturally both liberties limit one another mutually, and although the relationship between them has already been established in some detail by a ruling of the Constitutional Tribunal, certain school-owners fear that this might limit the coherence of the schools.

c) A third objective of the Act is the participation of parents in the internal life of the school, along with the teachers and pupils. In Chapter IV of the Second Part of this report we have listed the organizations of participation which are at present in existence, in accordance with the LOECE. As stated there, the LODE modifies their composition and extends their jurisdiction, following a constitutional mandate, the idea being that the parents' rights do not come to a stop at the school gate, and that there be a closer relationship between family education and school education. Now, the owners of the schools think that participation is going too far when, through the School Board, it it extends to choosing the head-teacher (in those schools where this person is not the owner himself) and to the control of the selection of teachers:

'The school board of (state) schools shall consist of the following members:

a) The headteacher of the school, who shall be chairman.

b) The director of studies.

c) A councillor, or representative of the municipal authority in which the school is situated.

d) A certain number of teachers, elected by their own teachers' committee, which shall not be less than one third of the total number of members of the school board.

e) A certain number of parents, and pupils, chosen respectively among themselves, which shall not be less than one third of the total number of constituents of the board. Representation of pupils shall begin to take place at the start of the higher cycle of EGB.

f) The school secretary, who shall act as secretary to the board, having a voice, but not a vote.'(Article 41)

'The school board shall have the following powers:

a) To choose the head-teacher and designate the administrative team proposed by him.

b) To propose the revocation of the nomination of the head-teacher, with the prior agreement of the members, adopted by a two-thirds majority.

c) To decide on the admission of pupils, with strict obedience to what is laid down in this law and any ordinances which may develop it.

d) To resolve conflicts and impose sanctions in terms of the discipline of pupils, in accordance with the norms which may regulate the rights and duties of said pupils.

e) To approve the project for the budget of the school.

f) To approve and evaluate the general programme for the school, which shall be devised annually by the administrative team.

g) To draw up guidelines for the programming and development of estra-curricular school activities, visits and excursions, dining facilities and summer-schools.

h) To establish the criteria for the participation of the school in cultural activities, as well as sporting and recreational ones, and also those activities of a social nature in which the school could collaborate.

i) To establish a relationship for collaboration with other schools for cultural and educational ends.

j) To approve the rules for the internal running of the school.

k) To instigate the renewal of school equipment and installations, and to keep an eye on these.

l) To supervise the general activities of the school in its administrative and training aspects.

ll)Any other authority that might be vested in it in the corresponding organic rulings.

The school board shall meet manndatorily once every term, and whenever the president calls a meeting, or when a meeting

is called for by at least one third of its members' (Article 42)

'The school board of co-ordinated schools shall consist of:

The head teacher

Three representatives of the owner of the school.

Four teachers' representatives

Four representatives of parents or tutors of pupils.

Two pupils' representatives, starting from the higher cycle of EGB.

One representative from the administration and service staff'. (Article 56)

'The school board of a co-ordinated school shall:

a) Intervene in the appointment and dismissal of the head teacher of the school in accordance with what is laid down in Article 59

b) Intervene in the appointment and dismissal of the teachers at the school, in accordance with Article 60.

c) Guarantee that the regulations concerning admission of pupils shall be complied with.

d) Resolve matters of a serious nature in the school which concern the discipline of pupils.

e) To approve, at the proposal of the owner, the school budget where it concerns funds provided by the state, as well as the authorised amounts, and to approve the annual statement of accounts.

f) To approve, and evaluate, the general programme for the school which shall be drawn up by the administrative team.

g) To propose, where appropriate, to the central administration the authorisation to establish complementary payments by parents for extra-curricular educational activities.

h) To participate in the general pedagogical policy of the school, and to establish guidelines for extra-curricular activities.

i) To draw up the guidelines for the programming and development of complementary activities, visits and excursions, school meals and summer schools.

j) To establish the criteria for the participation of the school in cultural activities, as well as sporting and recreational ones, and also those activities of a social nature in which the school could collaborate.

k) To establish a relationship for collaboration with other schools for cultural and educational ends.

l) To approve, at the proposal of the owner, the rules for the internal running of the school.

ll) To supervise the general running of the school in its administrative and teaching aspects' (Article 57)

The participation of all interested parties in the general programming of education (Article 27.5 of the Constitution) is orchestrated by the LODE by means of the State Schooling Board (Consejo Escolar del Estado) as well as through other

bodies at various levels of government. Although the intention is that all these boards, right down from the state one to the school boards themselves, shall limit the intervention of the public authority, this Act has been considered 'interventionist'.

2. THE RIGHT OF ALL TO EDUCATION AND THE CORRECTION OF EDUCATIONAL INEQUALITY

'Spanish society is profoundly unequal, and the pronounced differences are as much a question of the distance which separates the 'peaks and troughs' of our social structure, to use Tawney's terms, as they are of the different opportunities for upward social movement, according to whether an individual comes from a humble background or a high social class. Thus social inequality in Spain is of a grave nature in both dimensions: inequality of condition, and inequality of opportunity'. (3)

In Chapter I of the First Part of this report we gave some figures concerning the educational imbalance of the Spanish population, which were later commented on, in Chapter VI of the Second Part, in terms of illiteracy. In Chapter I we also gave figures concerning the inequality in distribution of income, greater, as we stated, than in all developed nations of the OCDE, and very stable during the years of development. This inequality of conditions determines an inequality of opportunity which, in turn, perpetuates the inequality of conditions. The influence of social origins on the lives of individuals in Spain has, throughout this century, been double what it has been in England, and treble what it has been in the United States. (4)

Education has, everywhere, a double role:- either that of transmitting inequality, or that of redistributing social inequality. In Spain, it is a commonplace that the role has customarily been, above all, the first of these.

Social heritage by means of education has, in Spain, also been much greater than in the United States or in England. Thus our educational system has been more effective than in other countries in transmitting greater degrees of inequality.

Throughout this report we have indicated to a high degree of precision the social origins of university students (Chapter V of the Second Part) and reference has been made in lesser detail to the classism of the Bachillerato by comparison with Formación Profesional (Chapter IV of the Second Part). Perhaps it is useful here to point out that, in 1980, children from higher class families had twenty-eight times more chance of getting to university than the children of agricultural workers, and thirteen times more chance of passing their elementary studies. Furthermore, in 1978, the proportion of young working-class people in Formación Profesional was twice that in Bachillerato, and the proportion of upper-class young people was four times higher in Bachillerato than in Formación Profesional. It should also be borne in mind that a high proportion of young people from the lower classes never received compulsory education, and therefore, never attended

any kind of secondary school (5).

Perhaps it is a good idea to draw attention to the fact that these percentages have little or nothing to do with academic capacity or performance. Perhaps in other countries social inequality is reproduced through academic performance, and that each level of education legitimises in this way the inequality of access to the next level. In Spain this happens to a very low degree. The social origins of the pupils has very little influence here on the marks obtained at the 8th level of EGB; and in tests for admittance to university the results from students from the lower classes are even better than those of students from certain higher classes. (6) And yet the opportunities of the least-favoured drop more as the level is increased. To put it another way, educational inequality in Spain is a direct and immediate reflection, without beating about the bush, and without academic legitimisation, of economic and social inequality.

What is thus understood by equality of opportunity is nothing more than the reverse side of the right of all to education, and it has important implications for policies at different levels of education.

The Organic Law of the Right to Education (LODE) is called what it is precisely because its aim is to establish an

institutional framework for this guarantee. So, 'When speaking of equity and of a right to education it is a good idea to begin by correcting an error which is unfortunately very widely held to be true. The search for equality does not consist of giving the same things to those who feel they are unequal. Real equality of opportunity does not require a free and undifferentiated offer of education at all levels, the costs to be borne by the public purse. To put it another way, the search for that equity understood as equality of educational opportunity has a different form at those levels which the laws define as obligatory than it has at those others of a post-compulsory nature.'

Insofar as education is compulsory, it should aspire to an equality of results. Basic education is not an obstacle race; it is not a place where free rein should be given to a competitive spirit between pupils, and certainly not a place where a spirit of rivalry should be encouraged. It is simply an educational level, the objective of which is to provide basic instruction, and assist in the training of all citizens.

At post-compulsory levels of education, the principle of equality demands that no-one be discriminated against nor hindered in his educational advancement through lack of economic means. The aim at these post-compulsory levels whether they be secondary or university education, is not

equality of results, but equality of opportunity.

At compulsory levels, each little boy or girl, independently of the place where he or she lives or the social condition of his or her family, should have his or her right to a basic education attended to by means of a school place which is both gratis, and worth having. This universal right to basic education is an essential principle of 'social' citizenship. In regard to this, the state should guarantee that everyone may take advantage equally, and there exist no discrimination. At post-compulsory levels, the right to education consists of being able to to take full advantage of the educational system and its facilities, according to personal capacity and intellectual effort. At these levels equality of opportunity does not consist of a generalised offer of free places, but of the individualised support of a grants system'. (7)

a) In the programme of the present government, preference of place was given to the generalisation of schooling from the age of 4 to the age of 16. To achieve this it is necessary to increase the supply of school places at both ages, but also that there be a demand for such places.

This, of course, will not be difficult where the ages of 4 or 5 are concerned, to judge by what is stated in Chapter II.

Surely there are very few parents who would disdain the opportunity to send their children to school at this age, preferring to wait until the child is 6 before sending him to school. The problem is more serious at the ages of 15 or 16, for at these ages many adolescents prefer to leave a school which does not satisfy them, and many others are obliged to go to work before reaching the legal age of 16. We shall speak further of this when we return to the reform of secondary schools a few pages further on.

Starting from the basis of total schooling at EGB , investment at this level should be restricted to replacing those schools which are in a poor condition, which would make it possible to devote resources to the other levels. Up to 1986, the construction for, and equipping of, more than 250,000 school places is envisaged, and these would have to be enough to cover the requirements of those between 4 and 5 years old (see Chapter II). Equally, the setting up of between 200,000 and 300,000 school places at secondary school level is also foreseen, depending on the progress of the reforms being carried out in this area, and on the availability of budgetary resources. This rate of construction for, and equipping of, school places, with the consequent increase in teacher numbers, will make it possible to cover the aim of the generalisation of schooling to between 4 and 16 years old. However there would still be some holes and gaps to fill, which would

would make it necessary to have in existence certain ad hoc programmes.

b) The present government has set in motion a Programme of Compensatory Education, which is more similar to the ZEP in France than to programmes with a similar name in other countries. This programme has been conceived as an emergency measure to remedy the educational situation in the more forgotten or depressed social groups or areas, with special attention being paid to outlying or rural districts, and to young people of 14 or 15 who do not attend school. A quantitative description of the first year that this was put into practice has been given in section 3 of Chapter VI. The results of the programme may be considered as satisfactory.

c) At post-compulsory levels, a grants policy is the principal resort which the public authorities have in order to bring about equality of opportunity. In Chapter IV of the First Part, a superficial account was given of the historical development of the Spanish grants system. It is as well to finish off here what was begun there. The system has been corrected in various ways, laid down in Royal Decree 2298/83, dated July 28. 'In the first place, grants shall be concentrated at the post-compulsory levels (BUP, FP and University) where they may perform an effective compensatory function, and not at the EGB level, where they have functioned as a fraudulent means of financing non-subsidised elitist private

schools. In the second place, a system of criteria of awards shall be established, which will permit those who most need them to benefit from grants, according to the economic level of the families. In the third place, control mechanisms shall be introduced jointly between the Ministry of Education and Science, and the Ministry for Economy and Inland Revenue in order to prevent cheating on declarations of income when applying for the grant. In the fourth place, a relationship will be established between the amount of the grant and the minimum wage, in order that the grant should not lose its purchasing power, and giving it a compensatory value for income not received. Finally, for grantholders of very low incomes, an additional sum will be provided, of a compensatory nature, for families which need the earnings of a son who is studying.

The downward trend of resources devoted to grants, the fall in which over 15 years had contributed largely to the uncontrolled growth in costs of transport and student refectories, has been inverted: at the two first years of the socialist government, the increase was of the order of 76% over 1982. In turn, if the total amount of resources available for grants was to increase, then each grant should increase in quantity, so that they might serve both as stimulus and effective compensation. The maximum grant should, to a large extent, compensate for the

cost of the opportunity to study' (8)

A valuation of these changes is being carried out at the moment. Here are the quantitative variations of greatest significance which have taken place:

In the first place, an increase in the number of grant-holders at all levels. Between 1982-83 and 1984-85, the number of grantholders in Bachillerato has gone up from 82,800 to 125,000; in Formación Profesional, from 34,000 to 57,000, and in the University, from 79,000 to 100,000.

In the second place, the actual sums of the grants have increased, especially in the University. Between 1982-83 and 1984-85, it has increased from 130,000 pesetas to 280,000 pesetas. This increase is mainly due to a rise in the maximum grant, which has gone up from 100,000 pesetas to 125,000, as a consequence of which, for the first time, in 1985, the assistance rendered has been inversely proportional, (distinguishing three sections of income) to family income.

For the next grants year, the widening of exemption from fees, and the speeding-up of the process, as well as the reduction of academic requirements, are being studied.

At university level, the present government is carrying out a joint policy of grants and fees . Academic fees cover 20% of the cost of studies. Given the class-ridden nature of the University, and the doubtful progress being made by the Spanish fiscal system, the rest is being paid mainly by those who do not go to university. This situation is without doubt unegalitarian and antidistributive, and should be corrected by raising the fees at the same time as (and below) grants. Early attempts to carry out this policy have, during the first term of the academic year 1984-85, brought forth protests from students, who do not believe that the increase in grants is really going to come before the increase in fees.

d) Another programme being carried on to fight inequality of education is that of Adult Education, described in Chapter VI of the Second Part, as far as quantitative development is concerned. As indicated there, the needs of permanent adult education can be estimated as equivalent to formal education. Obviously, at the top of the list of the needy here are the total illiterates, followed by semi-literates.

Apart from specific measures in connection with the Programme of Compensatory Education, undertaken in collaboration with various local authorities and with the Autonomous Communities of Andalucía and the Canaries, mostly, and with support

for Popular Universities, the present government is radically re-orienting adult education, getting rid of its excessively academic slant, and trying to give it a more integral nature. 'In permanent adult education, the student should be able to avail himself of extensive opportunities to build up his own curriculum starting from a plural and integrated educational service. The aim should be to devise a joint programme at annual intervals, and certain homogeneous pedagogical criteria, which should be compatible with the autonomous behaviour of the local institutions which are acting in this field' (9)

The middle-term aim is the setting-up of a network of centres of permanent education similar to those which exist in the more advanced European countries, which will make it possible for citizens, whatever their age, to benefit from these educational services in order to complete their education or enrich their culture.

The legislatory future of permanent adult education, and the programmes for action in this field will have as their base the White Book (Libro Blanco), devised in collaboration with those Autonomous Communities which have assumed full educational powers, and with the various Ministries involved (Agriculture, Labour, Defence, Justice and Culture, basically). Future legislation must consider permanent adult education

as education directed towards work, to the exercise of civil rights and responsibilities, and to personal development, having as a base a general education which the students were not able to acquire at the appropriate age.

e) Another priority area of activity against inequality, whether natural or social, is the area of Special Education. In Section 2 of Chapter III, devoted to Primary Education, a sufficient amount of information was given about the general lines of activity envisaged in this field, being guided by the need to advance progressively along the road to integration, very carefully, and being adapted to each specific case.

3. THE QUALITY OOF EDUCATION

After the guarantee for all of the right to education, and the correction of educational inequalities, the raising of the quality of education is the third great aim of current educational policy. As we have seen in earlier chapters, the majority of indicators which can be used to to measure quality lead us to suppose that this quality is low. As far as input is concerned, the unit cost of maintaining a school place is low, and in Secondary Education the real costs is far below the theoretical; once the costs of construction and staff are taken away, there is very little left for maintenance and running. Also the teacher-pupil ratio is unusually high. If we accept scholastic failure (internal) as a measure of the quality of out put, it is evident that there are too many pupils, at all levels, who fail subjects, have to repeat a year, and who, finally, drop out. We do not possess a systematic and rigurous comparison of what Spanish pupils learn as compared with those in other countries.

Unfortunately, Spain did not fully join in the project of the IEA. But we are able to know that, despite their, certainly deficient, education, the civic attitudes of our pupils were no less democratic or tolerant than in other countries with a long democratic tradition (see pp. 38 ff.) And we also know, as a result of an investigation by Gloria Pérez

Serrano (10), who applied the IEA tests to the 5th and 8th years of EGB, that in Natural Sciences, the level of knowledge of Madrid pupils at the end of EGB is below that of pupils in Germany, the United States and England, but higher than that of pupils in Italy, Holland, Chile and Belgium. This is a result which is not very surprising, bearing in mind the low relationship between material means and scholastic performance demonstrated by the researchers since the Coleman Report, and the fact that negative marking by teachers (what is called scholastic failure) depends strictly on the standards which are used.

Whether these indicators are good or bad, what is true is, that in order to improve the quality of education, one only has to increase the input, and improve the way in which it is used by both teachers and pupils. A series of reforms and programmes are in process at the moment to carry these out, - more urgently for the latter -. In particular attempts are being made to get a better educated set of teachers, to make progress in educational methods, and to improve curricula, rectifying defects and adapting them to social change.

3.1. ACTION ON TEACHERS

In so far as the basic and in-service training of teachers is concerned, the defects in the present system and the

projects for reform have just been dealt with in the preceding chapter. Whereas the projects for the reform of basic training are at present under consultation, and are making slow progress, because they overlap with all the University reform, the reform of in-service training is going more quickly: there has just appeared, in November 1984, a decree setting up Teacher Training Centres, the first of which will start to operate before the next academic year. At the moment the situation lies somewhere between the old Institutos de las Ciencias de Educación, which will continue inside the universities, and the new Training Centres.

Policy on staff is tending, in the first place, to subordinate the special mobility of state teachers to the needs of the schools, and towards the constitution of stable pedagogical groups; and in the second place, to increase motivation and performance of teachers through the structuring of an education degree programme. On the one hand, recasting into two (Maestros and Teachers of Secundaria) of the 26 bodies and scales of teachers existing at the moment will facilitate horizontal movement; on the other hand, channels of vertical movement are being opened, not only in the varying scales and intervals within the two new bodies, but also between the different levels of teaching: Maestros will be able to pass directly to become Teachers of Secundaria, and senior teachers at this levels, by means of compet-

ion on merit, to being a university teacher.

3.2 ACTION ON METHODS AND TECHNOLOGY

Programmes of notable breadth and extension in order to introduce new technology into education have been set in motion by the Autonomous Communities of Cataluña, Basque Country and Galicia, and are being carried on in other communities by the Ministry itself.

The Atenea project, for the introduction of microcomputers into education is being finalised to be carried through in 1985, and it is planned that it will last for five years. In its current version, it foresees the the equipping of 1,800 schools with more than 9,000 machines, and the training of 5,500 teachers, and the subsequent specialisation of almost 1,300, as well as the translation and production of software in collaboration with other European and South American countries.

Also under way is a more modest project, co-ordinated by a Ministerial Commission on Audio-Visual Materials, to promote the use of audio-visual material, and especially video, in education.

For the rest, both the programmes of teacher-training and the reforms in the curricula at various levels of education

emphasise in an extraordinary way the importance of methodology in teaching.

3.3 CURRICULUM REFORM

The modernisation and adaptation of curricula and syllabuses is, as with methodology, one of the basic objectives of the reforms undertaken in the various levels of education outside the university.

a) As pointed out in Chapter II of the Second Part, preliminary work on a Bill for Infant Schools is being carried out

The model for infant schools means simultaneously attending to the educational, social and sanitary needs of the smallest children. The model for infant schools is oriented towards the active development of the child's possibilities, in such a way that, from the very outset of the educational system, the causes which lead to social and cultural inequality are broached. The work of the Ministry of Education and Science at this level will be fundamentally a structuring task. Infant schools will continue to be the prerogative, as they have been until now, of various Ministries, local authorities, regional authorities and many private entities.

b) In Chapter III there was an extensive description of the contents of the initial and medium cycle of EGB. The introduction of the programmes for the higher cycle, which was going to be carried out during the academic year 1983-84, was finally postponed by the MEC, in the hope of being able to evaluate the results of the earlier cycles.

The reform of EGB requires, in the opinion of the present government, a re-orienting of the changes which were gradually introduced after 1981 by the last UCD governments under some pressure, and rather hastily. In just two years it was the intention to remodel the eight courses of study which go to make up primary education, without giving sufficient reflection to the complexity of the system, nor to the inertias of its functioning.

Having suspended the entering into force of the programmes for the higher cycle of EGB, we embarked upon a systematic evaluation of the results of the restructuring of education in the first set of pupils completing the initial cycle of EGB, and enquired about the opinions of the teachers on the new aspects. The study covered almost nine thousand pupils.

The results of the study highlighted certain profound differences between the reality of education and the educational objectives assigned to the EGB. One figure in particular

stood out in the study: only 60% of the pupils attained that 42% of knowledge which it is supposed should be provided by this first cycle of EGB. Among the teachers, only 55% considered that the information which had been given to them about the 'reformed programmes' had been sufficient to help them to carry out their work effectively.

Thus, the MEC is proceeding to readjust once again the minimum levels in the programmes of the initial and medium cycles, and carefully and progressively to design a new curriculum for the higher cycle.

A first phase of experimentation, during the academic year 1984-85, has as its objective the evaluation of the degree of mastery of the proposed terminal objectives, to promulgate a new, active methodology for the teachers, and to identify the needs for didactic resources and teacher training. The experiment as such will actually begin in the academic year 1985-86, and it is envisaged that it will become more general at the same time as the reform of secondary education.

Both the new formula of the reformed programmes in the first two cycles of EGB, and the introduction of the new curriculum for the higher cycle of EGB are based on the consideration that primary education as an educational level which

is compulsory, should therefore provide that knowledge, and those attitudes, habits and skills which should be common to all Spanish citizens. 'For this reason, the EGB should be considered as an educational level which has its own meaning, capable of providing all citizens with an integral education, one which is adaptable to the social and cultural environment of the pupil'. (11)

This conception of the role of the EGB requires a new approach to evaluation. Evaluation in EGB does not consist of the evaluation of the pupil, but in collecting information with the object of regulating the educational process, adapting the objectives and contents of the programmes according to this information. Evaluation should make it possible for the teacher to obtain basic information about the effectiveness of his work, and about the levels of his pupils in relation to the established objectives. All this does not exclude the carrying out of external evaluation of a conventional nature, but this would be the responsibility of the CIDE.

c) As far as the reform of secondary education (Enseñanzas Medias) is concerned, the diagnosis is clear. BUP was designed by the General Education Act as a cycle of education with little substance in itself if divorced from the idea of giving access to university. Since 1970 it has become a very trad-

itional cycle, with curricula and methodology which are not very up-to-date. The teacher|pupil ratio is very high in some cases, and technical education has not been sufficiently developed, and, in general, the academic nature of education is very highly emphasised. On the other hand, the conversion of COU into a mere prolongation of BUP designed to prepare students for university entrance accentuates the dysfunctional nature of a cycle which does not prepare people for employment, and the main objective of which is to be a one-way path to higher studies.

As has been seen in Chapter IV, this binary scheme is not only unfair, but also dysfunctional: it is in FP where there is the highest number of dropouts and scholastic failures. The fundamental objectives of this reform were explained, also in Chapter IV, though naturally, this reform is not planned for the very short term. As the Minister of Education has written:'the reform of secondary education requires a period of about 7 or 8 years before it will all hang together. This is not only because of the cost which it supposes in terms of new school places which would make it possible to attend to an entire age group, nor in terms of of readaptation of already existing schools, nor because of the difficulties in adapting teachers to the new cycle, or because of occasional resistance from pressure-groups. The reasons for the gradual nature of the change are derived

principally from deficiencies in EGB, which result in a high rate of scholastic failure. The prolongation of compulsory education cannot lead to more failure, to a more extended rejection of the educational system. Thus the reform of secondary education can only be carried out parallel to a reform of the quality of EGB. All the same, this need not be a reason why the commencement of the road to reform be delayed, for the country needs this reform, and much depends on it.' (12)

Consequently, when people speak of raising the school-leaving age to 16, they are aware that the ills of the educational system are not going to be remedied with more of the same. In order that schooling be worthy of the name, it is necessary to find a solution which runs in parallel to the deficiencies of the EGB, and of the first two years of secondary education as they are at the moment, and to the deficiencies in school places and in demand for education which mean that more than 200,000 young people of 14 and 15 are not attending any kind of school; these will shortly be dealt with by the Programme for Compensatory Education. The aim, in this medium term, is to establish an initial cycle of secondary education from 12 to 16 years of age, similar to that obtaining in other European countries. Then, for some pupils, there would begin a Bachillerato which would lead to university, or to vocational training which, like the Bachillerato, has hardly

In what has been done so far, many difficulties have arisen. From the teachers, there has been resistance both direct and indirect. The most frequent types of resistance met with are: teachers who are against becoming nurses to adolescents, others who have talked about the conversion of the Bachillerato into a kind of EGB; there are some who fear that standards will fall. On the other hand, the demands of determined groups that the new plans introduce or expand the numbers of hours devoted to their subjects are strong and persistent, and, objectively speaking, the process of adaptation of teachers' specialities to the changes that may be introduced may well be a difficult one. And these are all difficulties which have to be added to those of a more general nature mentioned before. (13)

Finally, perhaps it is worth mentioning that, given the experimental and open nature of the reform, and without dismissing the possibility that the final structuring of the reform will be the province of the MEC, some Autonomous Communities, particular that of Cataluña, have designed experiments which differ in certain aspects from those set in motion by the MEC. It is hoped that out of all these esperiments will come a project which is valid in its major outlines for the whole of Spain, and which will yet be adapted to the social and cultural characteristics of each Community (14).

4. UNIVERSITY REFORM

In Chapter V, and particularly in section 5, we have explained in some detail the University Reform Act, which, unlike the LODE, has been developed by means of successive decrees during 1984. In this final chapter it would be as well to point out some of the progress which has been made in this area.

Since the law was passed, the university staff assemblies have been constituted, and some of them are at present passing their own statutes. A law has been passed which regulates the Consejo Social, and a university advisory council, the Consejo de Universidades, has been set up. Before the summer of 1984 certain 'suitability tests' were held, as laid down in the Act, for the conversion of contracted teachers into full-time permanent staff teachers. These tests were passed by about 70%, which brought forth a storm of protest from the other 30%. Through successive decrees, there has been regulation of contracts of University departments with companies, areas of knowledge, the constitution of University departments, studies in the third cycle and other aspects of the Act. At present the regulations concerning admittance to University, and a structured framework for syllabuses are under study. Initial steps are also being taken for the transfer of the Universities to their respective Autonomous Communities. In short, without too many difficulties, progress is being made along the road to autonomy, the modernisation

of the academic structure, and the functional connection between the University and its social environment.

NOTES TO FINAL CHAPTER

1. J.M. Maravall. La reforma de la Enseñanza. E. Laia, Barcelona, 1.974. This final chapter is based on this book by the present Minister of Education.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. The proportions are taken from a study carried out at the CIDE.
5. Data taken from different reports.
6. Data taken from surveys of the CIDE and the General Directorate of Universities.
7. J.M. Maravall, op. cit.
8. Ibid.
9. Ibid.
10. G. Pérez Serrano, Rendimiento Académico en la EGB CIS, Madrid, 1.983.
11. J.M. Maravall. op. cit.
12. Ibid.
13. P. de Blas et. al. Hacia la reforma de las Enseñanzas Medias. ICE of the University of Deusto, Bilbao, 1.984.
14. P. de Blas, op. cit.