

The constellations of disadvantage become visible in Spain

In this article we will present two of the most important aspects that affect young people nowadays: the early school leaving and the precariousness of the labour market. The high rate of early school leaving shows that there is a rejection of the education system, but also the disadvantaged situation in which many young people live.

Society has relied on education as the most efficient way to overcome social differences. However, reality proves that educational institutions do not have the answer, since the current causes of the disadvantage do not have their origin in educational institutions. Early school leaving positions young people in a disadvantaged situation for their insertion into the labour market. Insisting on the real causes of this disadvantage needs a comprehensive policy to be developed and directed to family, school, the social environment and, above all, to those who suffer such a situation.

What we are going to present next are some thoughts carried out by the investigation group AREA for the development of the European project “Thematic study on policy measures concerning disadvantaged youth”, coordinated by the Group IRIS.

Key words: constellation of disadvantage, disadvantaged youth, precariousness, early school leaving, absenteeism from school, academic failure, inclusion, exclusion, vulnerability, social capital...

1. Introduction

“Disadvantaged youth” is not easy to define because it includes a heterogeneous group of people. If one investigates “disadvantaged youth” in the Spanish scientific bibliography, the analysis of the situation and the causes of this “disadvantage” predominate. This analysis focuses on social and economic structures: segmentation of the labour market, inequality of opportunities in the educational and training field, territory, place where they live, whether they belong to an ethnic minority or to a disadvantaged social class...

In the investigations made in the pedagogical or social-work field, the importance of the individual view is stressed to analyze the repercussions, the strategies of the system to increase motivation, and measures that are approved or used in order to increase the abilities and interest of young people for their education and search for work.

When it comes to the issue of the situation of the disadvantaged youth, some researches use concepts such as social exclusion/inclusion, “work disaffiliation” (Castel, 1990), “social disqualification” (Paugman, 1993), and “social branding” (Goffman, 1981).

A specific definition that facilitates the use of these concepts is preferable

when it comes to empirical researches. The most common definition uses the concept *disadvantage* as a synonym of social exclusion/inclusion. The approval by the European Commission of programmes to fight against social exclusion and poverty promoted studies that used the concept of social exclusion. However, since the approval of National Action Plans for Social Inclusion (1) the use of the concept “social inclusion” has spread. We consider that the concept “disadvantage/disadvantaged” is based on diverse causes and dimensions and also that the situations of social inequality always take place in a particular territory. These situations depend on gender, social and family networks, age, level of education, ethnic group, labour insertion, health-care system, etc.

Social differences are expressed in many ways but it is in the field of education, at work, in family situations and in the economic and cultural resources that people have acquired, where differences are really noticeable. Whereas some can have access to a certain level of wellbeing, some others cannot or find it difficult to meet their basic needs.

These differences are also evident when people and social groups try to give an answer to social disadvantages. Some of them are aware of these disadvantages and able to act from the very moment they appear. Others are either not aware of them or have to wait for the social service to give them an answer or offer them a solution.

Next, we are going to explain the situation of disadvantaged young people in relation to two different fields: the educational/training field and the labour market field. Later on, we will describe two different experiences that could be seen as “good practice” if we consider both, the results we obtained and the fact they take place on a local, as well as on a national level.

2. Education as a constellation of disadvantage.

Education has been seen in its different stages as the most valuable way for society to overcome social differences. However, reality has shown us that the situation of social disadvantage, especially the one that affects young people, has to do with multiple causes that do not allow school/education alone to find a solution neither for the causes of inequality nor for the inequality itself.

As a result of different educational models promoted by different political parties, four organic laws have been passed in the recent history of Spain in order to structure the education system (LGE, LOGSE, LOCE and LOE). These changes have caused a situation of certain educational instability and social mistrust towards the education system. To overcome this mistrust is one of the objectives pursued by the LOE (2006).

The General Law of Education (LGE, 1970) tried to satisfy the demand of the labour market, which required qualified labour force to deal with the economic development the country was experiencing (White Book). The most conservative groups of the old Franco regime managed to impose a segregationist and classist law that favoured private and religious education, while the resources to invest into the extension of public

(1)
The Action Plan II for Social Inclusion in the Kingdom of Spain 2003-2005 was proposed with the objective of a coordinated and comprehensive support for vulnerable people and groups. This plan names the groups of disadvantaged people and the respective measures. The concepts “vulnerable people” and “disadvantaged people” are used indistinctly.

education were insufficient. Although the aim of this law was to provide compulsory education for children between 6 and 14 years old, the reality turned out to be quite a different thing, as all around Spain there was a high number of children who did not get any schooling at all.

The establishment of democracy in Spain came along with changes in the education system. The educational precepts of the Spanish Constitution (1978) contained in the article 27 were developed by the LODE (2), the LOGSE (3) and in the LOPEG (4). In these laws the right of the citizens to education, the structure of the education system and their participation in the development, control and evaluation of the educational activity were developed and covered. Between 1985 and 1995 the three main objectives of the pedagogic reform policy were: universalization of the public service, democratic management and no-discrimination of users by means of diversified attention to pupils.

The LOGSE (1990) made education compulsory up to the age of 16, chose a comprehensive education system and harmonized the incorporation into the labour market thanks to a new design of vocational training that has not been modified since 1990.

Later on and as a consequence of the conservative party coming into power (1996-2004), the education system was modified through a new organic law (LOCE, 2002), that once again promoted a selective and segregationist education that favoured private and religious education. This law did not totally come into force as the arrival to power of the *Partido Socialista Obrero Español* (PSOE) in 2004 meant it was partially stopped. The new government started a new process to elaborate a new organic law that regulated non-university education. The LOE (2006) was passed after a long process of social participation and got a large parliamentary support, which made the implementation process possible during 2006-07.

The model of organization chosen by the Kingdom of Spain combines different institutions: institutions supported by public funds (public and state assisted institutions), by private funds (private institutions), and by a management model based on competence distribution between the Central Government, Regional Governments and Local Corporations.

The comprehensive school that has been implanted in Spain aims to give an answer to the new social situation by introducing and developing mechanisms that make up for the potential differences in origin. It also aims to offer the same opportunities to every pupil regardless of his/her social class, purchasing power, gender, ethnic group, religion, etc. This type of education wants to be as inclusive as possible, in spite of the fact that in our society there are not enough deeply rooted cultural traditions to accept differences.

The changes that have taken place in the labour market, family, migratory movements, the configuration of multi-ethnic societies, the globalization of economy, the introduction of new technologies, the recent incorporation of the females to the labour market, the changes in couple relationships and buying habits... are making all of us get closer to each other. The social

(2)
Organic Law for the Right to Education (LODE), 1985

(3)
Organic Law for the General Planning of the Education System, 1990.

(4)
Organic Law for the Participation, Evaluation and Governance of Education Centres, 1995.

changes, the fragmentation of the society, the loss of certainty on which modern society has relied have made that the school context is nowadays defined by complexity, loss of certainty, not-knowing how and where to go regarding contents, methods and structures. The presence in education centres of young people with diverse interests, motivations and school biographies places some of them in a disadvantaged situation. This situation might have existed before or appeared in the education centre itself. In any case, these young people need assistance, always having in mind the principle of “diversity” and “multi-culturality”.

During the last years, Spain has experienced a considerable growth of its population with regard to its quantity, as well as its structure and the existence of foreign population. If in 1999 Spain had 40.202.160 inhabitants (748.953 of which were foreigners), it had 44.108.530 inhabitants the 1st of January 2005, 3.730.610 being foreigners (8.5% of the total).

Table 1. **Population in Spain, sorted by gender and age group. 2005. 2005**

	Total Both genders	Porcentaje Both genders	Porcentaje Males	Porcentaje Females
	2005	2005	2005	2005
Total	43.141,40	100	100	100
0 to 4 years old	2.201,00	5,1	5,3	4,9
5 to 15 years old	4.524,50	10,4	10,9	10,1
16 to 24 years old	4.784,80	11,1	11,5	10,7
25 to 64 years old	24.523,10	56,8	58,1	55,7
Over 65 years old	7.108,10	16,5	14,2	18,7

Source: National Institute of Statistics (INE)

Out of all the population, 8.420.476 are people enrolled in school during the course 2005/06. These students were irregularly distributed, as public schools have 66.83% of non-university pupils, whereas the private/state-assisted schools only have 33.17%. With regard to university, 90.4% study in public universities, whereas private universities and those run by the Church have 9.6%.

13.57% of the students (1.142.713) are in post-compulsory secondary education (upper secondary and vocational training). 43.97% of the students that are in post-compulsory secondary education (502.472) are in vocational training and 56.03% (640.241) are in upper secondary. 1.442.081 people are in university, 17.12% of all people in education.

Of the figures we have given, we would like to emphasize the educational polarization that exists in Spain between public/state assisted-private education, the students who are in upper secondary versus those who are in vocational training, as well as the increasing importance private university education is experiencing.

Schooling of immigrant population is one of the main objectives of the education system, because it was designed to meet the needs of a much more homogeneous and closed society than the one we have today.

In Spain education is compulsory for children and young immigrants between 6 to 16 years old, regardless of their legal situation, because the legislation of “minor’s rights” is being applied instead of the law on aliens: *“Foreign minors in Spain have a right to education. Foreign minors who are in a risk situation*

or under the protection of the competent civil service have a right to health care, even if they live in Spain illegally" (Art. 10.3. Constitutional Law 1/1996, from the 15th of January, legal protection of the minor, Art. 10.3. Partial Modification of the Civil Code (BOE nº 15, 17-01-1996).

The number of young immigrants in the education system has grown considerably during the last decade. We have gone from 53.213 students in the year 1994-95 to 457.245 in 2004/2005. Currently, they represent 6.45% of people in no-university education (6.937.177 pupils (5)).

Table 2. **Distribution of non-university pupils. Course 2003-2004**

	Total pupils	% Foreigners	% Nationals
Pre-primary education	1.425.593	5,85	94,15
Primary education	2.469.616	8,07	91,93
Special education	28.898	6,19	93,81
Lower secondary Education	1.855.726	6,7	93,3
Upper secondary education	648.428	2,96	97,04
Vocational training	463.796	3,33	96,67
Social guarantee	45.120	8	92
Total	6.937.177	6,45	93,55

Source: CIDE (Ministry of Education and Science). 2006

Immigrant pupils come from all over the world: South America (44.81%), Africa (19.07%), EU (13.49%), rest of Europe (12.83%), Asia (4.64%), Central America (3.76%), North America (1.10%), Oceania (0.25%). Most of them are provided education in public centres (81.57%) and few of them in private centres that might be supported by public funds or might not.

The number of university students went up during the year 2003-04 to 35.409 people, that is 2.3% of all university students. Out of them, 19.3% are PhD students.

Although Spain is among the developed countries in the world, it has serious deficiencies related to the level of education of its population in comparison to other countries around it, as we can see in chart 3.

Table 3. **% of population with regard to the level of education of adults, sorted by age group. Year 2003 (6)**

	Lower than upper secondary		Upper secondary		Higher education	
	25-34 years old	25-64 years old	25-34 years old	25-64 years old	25-34 years old	25-64 years old
Germany	15	17	63	59	22	24
Austria	15	21	70	64	15	15
Belgium	22	38	39	33	39	29
Denmark	14	19	51	49	35	32
Spain	40	57	22	18	38	25
Finlandí	11	24	49	43	40	33
France	20	35	42	41	37	23
Greece	28	49	48	33	24	18
Ireland	22	38	41	35	37	26
Italy	40	56	47	34	12	10
Luxemburg	32	41	50	44	19	15
Netherlands	24	34	48	42	10	24
Portugal	63	77	21	12	29	11
United Kingdom	29	35	38	37	28	28
Sweden	9	18	51	49	16	33
OCDE average	25	34	46	42	29	24

Source: MEC (Ministry of Education and Culture). Education Indicators. 2005

(5)
Source: Bulletin CIDE #14, July 2006: "The foreign student body in the Spanish education system (1994-2005). MEC

(6)
Figures refer to the year 2003 and are the last ones officially published by the MEC (Ministry of Education and Science).

Spain is the second country whose population aged 25 to 34 has more citizens (40%) who have an academic level lower than compulsory secondary education (certificate of success in lower secondary education or lower). This figure has been beaten only by Portugal (63%). Between the country that has least young people (25-34 years old) who have a secondary education certificate or lower, Sweden (9%), and Spain, there is a differential of 31 points and of 54 points with Portugal.

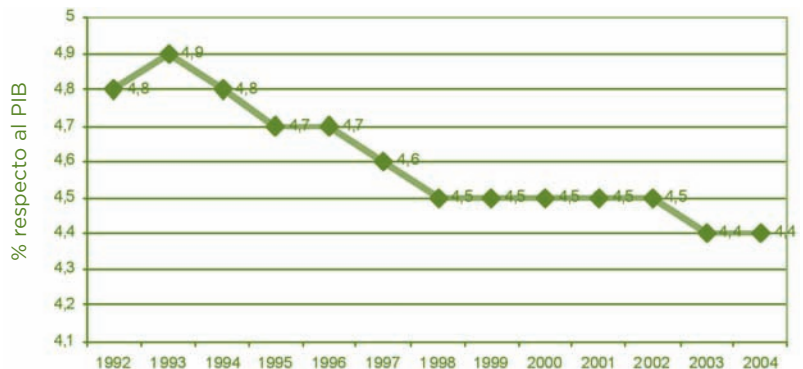
With regard of post-compulsory secondary education (in Spain vocational training, upper secondary or its equivalent) we are in the same place as Portugal. 22% of the people have a certificate. The difference between the country that holds the first place (Austria with 70% of graduates) and Spain is of 48 points. Between the first (Austria) and the last (Portugal with 21%) there is a difference of 49 points.

In relation to university education, Spain holds a better position in comparison to the nearby countries, as the country that has the highest number of graduates is Finland (40%), followed by Spain (38%). The country with the least graduates is the Netherlands (10%).

The figures show that there is no doubt Spain does not have a logical school structure (pyramidal), since the percentage of graduates in university is similar to the one of population that has a secondary education certificate or less than that. The difference between secondary and university education also reflects the lack of technical experts and people with a post-compulsory secondary education certificate, which has consequences in the labour market. The differences in relation to countries such as Germany, Finland or the United Kingdom are obvious and have repercussions for the industry and the labour market in general.

The Spanish results are not indifferent to the investment effort in education that public administrations have made. During the decade 1992-2002 (process of implementation of the LOGSE) the education administrations (7) made irregular and decreasing investments in relation to the GDP. The boost that was given at the beginning of the implementation of the LOGSE was progressively restrained and reduced as you can see in chart 1.

Figure 1:
Development of public expenses for education in relation to GDP



Source: Educational Indicators 2004. MEC (Ministry of Education and Science)

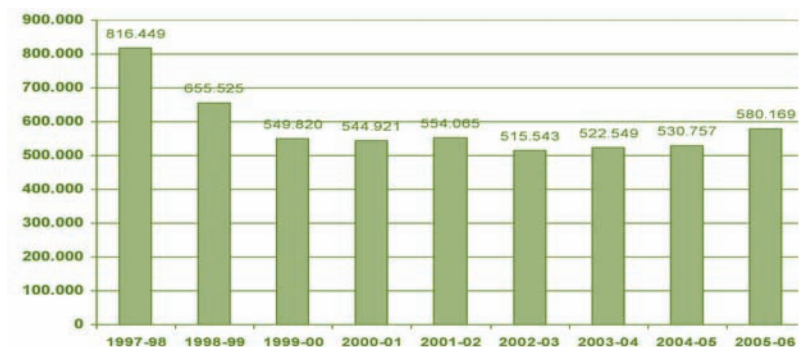
(7)
1992-1996 governed by PSOE (socialists) and 1996-2004 by Partido Popular (conservatives).

At the same time the LOGSE was introduced in Spain, the country was affected by an economic crisis between 1991 and 1992, and recovery symptoms began to appear at the end of 1995. Recovery process and growth existed until 2001, when on the horizon appeared once again some economic “storm clouds” that, however, did not turn into a new economic crisis.

In 1993 and despite the negative effects of the crisis for the Spanish economy, the highest percentage ever of GDP was invested in education. The economic recovery and its repercussions on the GDP after 1996 did not affect the education, as the GDP percentage invested kept on falling despite the economic growth. The conservative government, opposed to the education system currently in force, had to work on its implementation after 1996. At the same time, they focused their interests on the defence of a new education law that was passed in 2002. The differences between those who had political responsibility of taking care of the implementation of the LOGSE and, at the same time, did not want the education system that was currently in force made it possible to take decisions that were favourable to private/ state assisted/ religious education. On the other hand, public education became less and less popular. Public education started receiving less money; whereas private/state assisted education got more and more money and had more freedom or room for decisions.

We can find prove of this, although it is not the only aspect, through the substantial decrease of grant holders (students who need extra economic support and are in a socially disadvantaged situation). There was a decrease of 41.11% between 1996 and 2004, since in the year 1996-97 (first budget of the *Partido Popular*) there were 887.242 grant holders and in 2003-04 only 552.549 (Chart 2).

Figure 2:
Evolution of the number of trainees in the period 1997-06



Source: MEC (Ministry of Education and Science). Data and figures 2005/06.

The progressive decrease of economic resources allocated to education, the scarce development of rules and the increase of economic agreements with private education institutions has as a consequence that public education does not get the necessary resources (although these had already been reduced) to meet the various demands of pupils by means of different ways foreseen in the norms. For instance, reduce the number of pupils in every classroom, increase the Programmes of Social Security and groups of curriculum diversification, as well as a higher number of teachers who are to assist those students with specific needs, incorporate new professionals to the centres as e.g. social workers, introduce new ways to help disadvantaged students... The weak support of the education administration to pupils and disadvantaged young people left the way

open for them to leave school too early and progressively, because the education system could not meet their needs and requests.

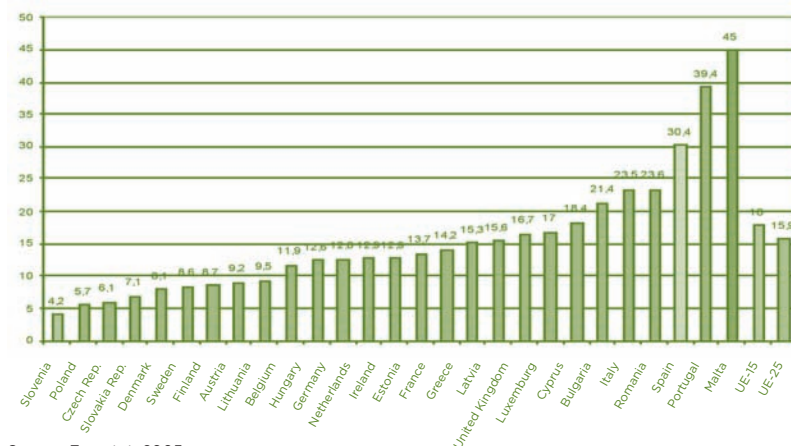
The reports about the Spanish education system carried out by the OCDE (Education at Glance: OCDE indicators), also known as the PISA reports (2000 and 2003), the education indicators of the MEC (ministry of Education and Science) and the ones published by Eurostat reveal that early school leaving and the number of young people who do not get an elementary school certificate (compulsory secondary education) is one of the worst problems of the education system. This problem also weakens the foundations on which the new economy and the knowledge society are based on.

The Spanish society did not really get to know about the first PISA report. The government/authorities did not take corrective measures to put a stop to the negative results and the high dropout rate from school of young people. The negative results the Spanish education system got were used for political interests to justify the need of substituting the LOGSE for a new law (LOCE) without taking extra measures and urgently finding an answer to the new situation. The results the students got in the second PISA study (2003) were hardly any better than the last ones, although the majority of the Spanish society neither meets the requests of the education nor gives an answer to them yet.

Although the early school leaving is not exclusive of the Spanish education system (Lisbon Strategy 2000), it is an alarming fact in European countries, because the high number of young people that drop out from school find it harder to start working and are more likely to be vulnerable or excluded from society. Something that proves this concern is that the representatives of the European governments that got together in Lisbon in 2000 do not want the European average to be higher than 10%.

Spain is the second country in the EU-15 (an average of 18%) that has the highest rate of school dropout (30.4%). Only Portugal has a higher rate (39.4%). The country that has the lowest in the EU-15 is Denmark (8.1%). If we compare Spain with the EU-15 (15.9%), it occupies the third place, after Malta (45%) and Portugal (39.4), whereas Slovenia (4.2%) has the lowest early dropout rate (see Chart 3).

Figure 3:
Early school leaving in the
UE 2004

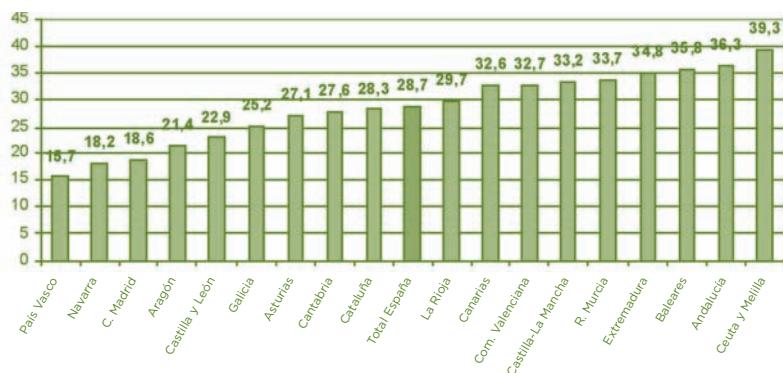


Source: Eurostat. 2005

After five years of the twenty-first century, Spain is the only country whose dropout rate has not decreased, but has even grown.

According to the education indicators (2006) of the Ministry of Education in 2003, the lowest dropout rates are in regions such as the Basque Country (16%), Navarre and Madrid (both of them have 18%), Aragón (21%) and Castilla y León (23%). (Chart 4)

Figure 4:
Early school leaving in Spain 2003



Source: MEC. Education indicators. 2006

The highest percentages are in Ceuta and Melilla (39%), Andalucía (36%), Balearic Islands and Extremadura (both of them have 35%). With regard to gender, more males than females drop out early from school in all regions: Males in the Balearic Islands, Ceuta and Melilla (45% and 44% respectively), and females in Ceuta and Melilla and Andalusia (34% and 30% respectively). Both genders present lower rates in the Basque Country, Madrid and Navarra.

It is less usual for females than for males to drop out from school, and it is more usual for children whose parents only have an elementary school certificate to drop out than for those whose parents have a higher level of education. However, it is in secondary education where the dropout rate has increased.

The fact that children can start going to school later than they used to do before, temporary jobs, high rates of unemployed young people, the growing number of immigrants and diversity of pupils in schools, the growing early school leaving rates, academic failure, rejection of the education system of a high number of young people... require that the education system applies specific measures in order to help pupils to overcome situations of disadvantage during their school time and prepare them for their working life.

In the new Spanish social reality some important concepts appear, such as the disappointment of young people with the education system, boredom, lack of motivation, eagerness to leave school as soon as possible and start to work. Young people do not want to realize (sometimes just do not want to accept) neither the sense and the importance of the education for their future working life nor the importance of getting a certificate.

3. Work: integration or disadvantage factor?

Work has traditionally been considered as the most important factor for the social integration of young people. The transition of young people to work reveals the knowledge, the social capital and the know-how and social skills they have acquired during their school time. Although in Spain it is not absolutely necessary for low qualified workers to have a certificate, the shortage of jobs makes the requisites to get one as well as to preserve it more demanding. It is generally known that those who do not get a job have fewer possibilities to enjoy goods and services. This situation can be improved thanks to the social policies the state carries out with unemployment subsidies, promotion of the education or various ways to offer social protection.

Labour insertion is closely associated to the qualification young people receive at school. That is why early school leaving and/or the low level of education some young people have contributes to have a more precarious transition to work. When young people leave school they have to choose between having a job that is most of the time temporary or precarious, being unemployed or trying to improve their qualification in a vocational training centre, occupational houses, Social Guarantee Programmes, going to an adult school, doing an occupational training, taking different courses... all of them supported by the Public Employment Services and developed out of the schools.

Young people leave school with very different backgrounds depending on the family or institutional support they have received. They try to find their way in a labour market that is aggressive, as it offers them temporary jobs and precariousness and insecurity in both, their present and future life.

Spain's unemployment rates have decreased during the last decade although young people, the immigrant community, females, ethnic minorities and "disadvantaged and vulnerable people" are still the most affected ones.

Table 4. Evolution of unemployment rates, sorted by age

	1992	1996	2000	2003	2004	2005
16 to 19 years old	42,6	52,2	33,6	30,9	29,08	27,70
20 to 24 years old	36,2	38,2	23,4	30,9	19,46	16,15
25 to 54 years old	17,2	19	11,9	10,1	9,46	7,67
Over 55 years old	9,4	11	8,5	6,4	6,68	5,54
Total	20%	21,7%	13,4%	11,2%	10,56	8,70

Source: INE (National Institute of Statistics). Labour Force Survey and Ministry of Work and Social Affairs.

If in 1992 we had an unemployment rate of 20%, this same rate has been lowered to 8.70%. The unemployment has decreased in all age groups, but the most affected ones are still young people aged 16 to 24. The unemployment rates do not affect males the same way they affect females, as the percentage of unemployed young females doubles the one of males. The female unemployment rate, that was 27.3% in 1992, was 12.2% in 2005, whereas males' unemployment rate, that was 37.9%, reached 7% in 2005.

As we can see in table number 5, unemployment affects to a lesser extent young workers who have higher education, whereas those young people who have a level of education lower than that (illiterates, primary education or first years of secondary school) are the most affected ones.

Table 5. **Unemployment rates: young people and level of education. 2005**

	Total unemployed people	16 to 19 years old	20 to 24 years old	25 to 29 years old
Total	9,16	29,15	17,04	11,18
Illiterates	21,67	68,38	32,2	22,15
Primary education	10,51	34,61	18,84	15,51
Lower secondary education, training and labour insertion	11,14	28,79	17,54	12,04
Upper secondary education, training and labour insertion	8,79	25,06	16,02	9,78
Training and labour insertion with secondary education certificate	7,12	16,16	11,35	7,7
Higher education, except PhD	6,86	18,2	17,07	10,82

Source: INE (National Institute of Statistics), Labour Force Survey, IV 2005

If we take a look at how unemployment generally behaves, considering the level of education of the unemployed population, we can see the rates are lower in the case of those people who have higher education levels. That is why the unemployment rate of those with an elementary education level is 43.58%, whereas the rate of those with a higher education levels is 6.86%.

The level of education young people achieve affects the time it takes them to find their first job. The study carried out by the union *Comisiones Obreras* “*Young people and Unemployment*” (2003) confirms that the higher the level of education, the fewer months it takes to find a job.

The number of months someone who has only gone to primary school needs to find a job (40.6 months) is almost the double of the months someone who has a higher education needs (22.9 months). However, the Youth Report Spain 2004 (INJUVE) reduces the waiting time until finding a job. According to this study, unemployed young people go through 10 months of waiting on average, and only 8.6 months when considering young males and 11 months when considering females. Young people who are older than others or those who do not have a high education level are more likely to be unemployed for a longer time. Young people who only have gone to secondary education need 11.1 months to find a job and those with a university degree only 6.5.

Table 6. Duration of unemployment, sorted by age group and level of education

	Total	Level of education			
		Primary Education	Lower secondary E.	Upper secondary E.	Higher Education
Base (N=)	(491)	(28)	(231)	(130)	(98)
Less than 1 month	2,3	4,0	1,4	2,3	4,1
1 to 2 month	22,3	29,3	22,8	21,1	20,6
3 to 5 month	15,6	14,0	13,8	22,0	12,1
6 to 11 month	16,1	14,8	15,2	11,1	23,8
12 to 24 month	16,8	7,4	19,3	16,3	14,8
Over 24 month	6,5	12,3	7,2	8,3	1,0
Not answering	20,4	18,3	20,2	18,8	23,6
TOTAL	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
Average (nº of months)	10,0	10,7	11,1	10,6	6,5

Source: Youth Report Spain 2004. Leaving unemployment and ability to choose / opportunities depending on level of education, p. 266

According to the *Youth Report Spain 2004* the great majority of young people who have not finished primary education would accept any job, whereas only 8.7% of those with a university degree would accept any job.

One of the things that also affects young people in the field of work and makes them more vulnerable are temporary contracts the labour market offers them. From 1998 to 2005 the rate of temporary work has always been higher in the case of females than in the case of males and, moreover, it has always been higher than 30%. In 2005, this rate has reached 33.3%. Considering the gender, it has affected 31.7% of males and 35.7% of females. (INE:EPA (Labour Force Survey): 2006). During this period (1998-2005), the rate of temporary work has only been reduced a 0.5%.

The law 63/1997 gave tax privileges to both private and public institutions that hired young people indefinitely. However, during the period 1998-2005 there has been a decrease (-1.9%) in the number of indefinite contracts in private institutions, whereas there has been an increase of 6.8% in the number of indefinite contracts in public institutions. The figures by the end of 2005 are 35.2% in the private sector and 25.1% in the public sector.

Temporary work affects groups of all ages, regions and economic sectors, but it is especially concentrated on young people aged 16 to 19. Between the years 1998/2004, people of this age have experienced an increase of the rate of temporary work of 56.23 points, whereas the age group of 20-29 has experienced a decrease.

Table 7. Development of the temporality rate depending on age and sector

	Age				Private		Public		
	16-19	20-24	25-29	< 30	> 30	< 30	> 30		
1998	26,34	69,78	47,93	59,20	21,91	59,68	25,24	54,54	12,83
2004	82,57	62,12	44,42	53,24	24,22	52,13	26,57	64,22	16,32
Dif/	+56,23	-7,66	-3,51	-5,96	+2,31	-7,55	+1,33	+9,68	+3,49

Source: INE. EPA. Elaborated by UGT. Page 10 (The Achilles heel in the Spanish work market. UGT. Madrid. 29th of April 2005)

The labour market also has a very high accident rate, which positions Spain among the highest rates in the EU-15. According to the figures of the Ministry of Work and Social Affairs, in 2005 890.872 people suffered an accident while being at work and 935 lost their lives. This means there has been an increase of 19.148 accidents and a decrease of the deadly accidents by 21.

Table 8. **Accidents during work sorted by type of contract. 2005**

	Total accidents		Deadly accidents		
	2004	2005	2004	2005	
TOTAL		871.724	890.872	968	935
Indefinite contracts		410.489	418.708	506	463
Temporal contracts		459.013	470.792	455	468
Not classified		2.222	1.372	7	4

Source: MTAS (Ministry of Work and Social Affairs). INEM (National Institute of Employment). Annual Statistics 2005.

Depending on the type of work contract, workers who are hired temporarily suffer more accidents, some of which are deadly (see table 8). Proliferation of subcontracting, scarce tradition of protecting measures in work, little preventive education of workers and young people and not exhaustive inspections are some of the causes.

4. Some answers for disadvantaged young people by public services

All kinds of social disadvantages are concentrated in the education system as education faces numerous demands and contradictions by the people who take part in it. The education system neither has the resources nor the possibility to solve the disadvantages, not even partially, as they need a more comprehensive policy promoted by different institutions.

The education system meets the needs of the student body with what is called “attention to diversity”. The new regulating law of non-university education (LOE, 2006) promotes more measures. Thanks to that, education needs of students can be met. Among these measures we would like to mention: the education support for young people who have psychic/ physical problems or have a lower education level than the one they should have in theory, curriculum adaptation or diversification, development of programmes for initial professional qualification. These programmes substitute Social Guarantee Programmes of the LOGSE and will promote and make guidance and counselling of students that want to integrate into the labour market easier. Social Guarantee Programmes are widely accepted by students and have proved to be an effective measure to prevent and/or decrease early school leaving. In 2005, 44.883 participated in measures in educational centres.

Public institutions such as the Ministry of Work and Social Affairs, local corporations or the private initiatives through non-profit NGO’s have also given legislative, training and welfare answers addressed to disadvantaged young people. We are now going to present two initiatives that we consider have quite satisfied young people’s needs: the first of them is on

a national level and run by the Ministry of Work and Social Affairs, “Workshop schools and Trade workshops”, the second one is on a local level, we are talking about the attempt of Sagunto to reduce absenteeism during compulsory education.

a) **“Workshop schools and Trade workshops”.**

The programme of **Workshop schools and Trade workshops** is part of the active employment policy promoted by the Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs and is defined as a dual system of training-employment. The difference between both of them is the length of the programme: Workshop schools last two years and Trade workshops one year.

These projects were born in 1985 and pursued three objectives: reconstruct monuments, rescue old jobs from the past, train young people for a later labour insertion, promote the social integration of young people, promote employability by creating strategies to seek a job by oneself and also promote business culture to promote self-employment. After two years of testing, the Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs approved these projects on the 29th of March of 1988.

The labour situation in which these programmes were developed needed a higher personal qualification of many young people who had dropped out of school and either had no working experience or had difficulties to start working.

These projects have a first stage (8) of theory training and another one of training and work together. During the first stage students get an occupational vocational training and some money as a grant, whose quantity has varied along the years. During the second stage (9) the “working pupils” complete their training with working practice and are hired with a contract of training.

The pupils taking these courses are selected by the Public Employment Service (10) and the promoting company. The minimum requisites that are required are the following:

- To be at least 16 years old but not older than 25.
- To be unemployed and registered at the Public Employment Service (11) of any region.
- To fulfil the requisites required for a training contract.

To belong to a group that has insertion difficulties, such as females, disabled people, someone who is getting unemployment benefits or has been unemployed for a long time.

The number of young people participating in the courses during the last decade was 469.660, distributed among those who have taken the courses; the number of programmes has been 12.847, as we can see in the following table:

(8)
During the first stage they have a work contract of six months.

(9)
During the second stage they have a training contract of 6-18 months and daily perceive 75% of the minimum wage

(10)
The transfers to the regions started in 1997 and were first carried out in Catalonia and Galicia the 1st of January 1998.

(11)
The transfers to the regions started in 1997 and were first carried out in Catalonia and Galicia the 1st of January 1998

Table 9. **Number of projects per year (12)**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Workshop schools	949	941	1,043	1,021	1,106	973	971	907	788	873
Trade workshops	450	347	468	458	374	356	288	194	181	159
Number of participants										
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Pupils in Workshop schools	39.883	40.143	44.636	42.909	44.868	36.888	36.404	32.350	27.220	27.481
Pupils in Trade workshops	13.544	10.336	15.814	15.211	10.214	9.436	7.345	7.065	4.357	3.556

Source: INEM (National Institute of Employment), 2006

To attend Workshop schools and Trade workshops no academic certificate is required. However, when finishing the programme, participants receive a certificate in which you can see which course you have taken, how many hours of theory-practice and training you have received and a basic education certificate of the Ministry of Education and Culture for those who do not have it.

The expenses of the whole project (salary of the technical staff, national health service, insurance for accidents, material, grants...) are subsidized by the Public Employment Service and the promoting company. After May 2004, salary expenses of pupils were co-subsidized with European funds, with the same percentage as training expenses: for Objective I regions 65% and for other regions 40%. In 2005, 494.91 millions of euros were spent. (Table 10)

Table 10. **Total expenditure by year (in millions of euros)**

Years	Millions of euros	Years	Millions of euros
1996	250,55	2001	452,90
1997	271,28	2002	472,89
1998	314,51	2003	475,72
1999	353,62	2004	493,76
2000	411,38	2005	494,91

Source: INEM (National Institute of Employment)

The INEM (National Institute of Employment), the employment services, or the regions are responsible for the evaluation of these programmes. The labour insertion of young people is evaluated six and twelve months after the programmes have finished. After 1997, this evaluation system was completed by having the participants filling out some questionnaires. The results are highly satisfactory in relation to labour insertion, as in 2003 it reached 76.84%. (Table 11)

Table 11. **Labour insertion rates sorted by year and gender**

Year	Males	Females	Total
1996	65,85	44,18	58,84
1997	73,89	51,28	66,71
1998	75,95	57,56	69,73
1999	78,63	56,43	69,38
2000	83,04	66,50	76,96
2001	82,49	67,90	77,19
2002	81,75	67,16	76,61
2003	82,43	67,20	76,84

Source: INEM (National Institute of Employment), 2006

(12)
Statistics do not include information about Catalonia (with management transferred since the 1st of January 1998), due to lack of available data.

Promoting employment with Workshop schools and Trade workshops has led to highly satisfying results. A proof for that is that, during 2005, 1.032 projects that needed an investment of 494.91 millions of euro were carried out. The number of participants was 31.037 people in 2003, and 82.43% found a job.

b) Intervention programme against municipal school absenteeism (13) in Sagunto (14).

In Spain, there are a lot of initiatives on a local basis that try to favour school and social integration of pupils. To reach the objective they focus on certain activities: reduce school absenteeism (masked or intermittent), school failure and early school leaving, through the application of measures that favour integration of pupils and collective intervention of parents, children, teachers and public services.

The Programme against municipal school absenteeism (15) of the town of Sagunto (60.000 inhabitants) aims to reduce the absenteeism from school, especially during secondary education. It is being carried out in six public centres of secondary education and aims to offer actions to prevent, detect and reduce the absenteeism from school by focusing on the four main causes of the absenteeism: the child himself, the family, the school and the social environment.

(13)
Absenteeism can be understood as "the sporadic, frequent or total, and not justified absence of a minor who is registered in school and has to attend classes because of age reasons. This absence might be of his/her own free will or his parent's due to family conflicts and/or socio-economic and cultural imbalance deriving from typical differences within the education system when it is about handling intercultural students, due to not applying compensatory measures, or to the lack of institutional involvement to motivate in a positive way. All this could entail negative effects in the children's socialization process.

(14)
Information in www.sagunt.es

(15)
Some concepts similar to the one of absenteeism could be "lack of schooling" or even "early school leaving". It is understood that in a lack-of-schooling situation the minor is not in a school community and an administrative record of registration in an educational centre does not exist, whereas by "desertion or early school leaving" we understand that although the minor is registered in school, he stops going to class for periods of different duration or definitely.

The programme is based on the Bill of Children's Rights passed by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1959, on the Spanish Constitution of 1978 (article 27 and 39), on the statute of autonomy of the Valencia Community (1982) and on the law of local regime (April, 1985), which in its article number 25 offers the local government the possibility to:

"...Participate in the organization of the education and cooperate with the education administration in the creation, construction and support of public educational centres as well as to take part in their management and the monitoring of compulsory education..."

This programme has been created for students of compulsory secondary education who do not go to their education centres, minors with behaviour problems and difficulty to adapt to school, those who run the risk of dropping out from school, minors who are no longer provided schooling and those who have left school too early.

Not going to school very often hinders that the student has a normal education process. If this absence is very long, it could even prevent him from having the necessary education for his personal and professional development and, as a result of that, end up being in a socially disadvantaged situation.

Absenteeism from school is a consequence of many and variable circumstances. Even if we seek to define the causes they all interact and feedback with each other. That is why both, a global and interdisciplinary action is needed in the different fields where the causes arise, as well as the coordination of different professionals who are involved in the programme.

All the actions they carry out are focused on the young people who do not go to school. They are individually dealt with, by specific workers of the programme (social workers and educators). Teachers, family and municipal social services collaborate, too. The coordination, design of strategies, taking them into practice and the evaluation of the progress needs everybody's participation. The dropout of the project of any of the actors makes its failure very likely.

This project has found a high degree of acceptance due to the fact that the methodology they use has very effectively reduced the absenteeism from school.

Every single intervention needs a concrete and personalized plan to be designed. Everybody takes part in its elaboration, development and evaluation.

The personalized plan for every student who does not go to school includes an *educational intervention*. Improving education, orientation and guidance to promote a change in the attitude of the child towards school reality is one of the main objectives. An effective intervention also requires that the personalized plan of every child consider the causes of absenteeism as a previous step to the interdisciplinary establishment of the needed protocols.

The self-assessment the members of the programme regularly carry out has to be done in addition to an external evaluation of the development of the programme, with quantitative and qualitative analysis, to confirm and consolidate the changes in order to ease this disadvantaged situation.

After the experience during the school years 2002/03-2004/05 in which the programme was established/introduced the demand of public centres has increased, as the results have been positive. During the three school years (2002-2005), 6% of the pupils (5.701 students) have been helped and 346.584 € have been invested.

Regarding the results, the need of individual attention, the combination of ordinary schooling and specific treatment, as well as regulated and non-regulated education, with the creation of adapted ordinary education centres during, before and after school time is to be emphasized. It is also necessary to promote and develop quantitative and qualitative curriculum adaptations, design training and education itineraries based on a theoretical and appropriate learning and practical experience.

SUMMARY "GOOD PRACTICES"

	"Workshop schools and Trade workshops"	Intervention programme against school absenteeism
Framework	Courses for the promotion of employment of young people in the framework of occupational training.	Local intervention programmes to control and decrease early school absenteeism.
Action field of policy	Labour policies	Education, equality and social integration policies on a local level.
Participants/funding	2003: 39.415 pupils 2004: 31.577 pupils 2005: 31.037 pupils	2003: 103 pupils 2004: 124 pupils 2005: 108 pupils
Funding	2003: 475,72 millions of € 2004: 493,76 millions of € 2005: 494,91 millions of €	2002-2005: 346.584€
Pilot or long-term	Long-term	Medium and short-term
Where?	National level	Local level
Main objectives	Projects to promote employability, social integration, social insertion and maintenance of monuments.	Offer alternatives to prevent, detect and decrease school absenteeism. Intervention on the causes of absenteeism and early school leaving.
Target group	Young people between 16 and 25 years old that have left the education system and are not successful in seeking a job or belong to groups with special difficulties.	Young people between 12 and 18 years old in a school in town, the family and the social environment.
Main activities	Vocational training, counselling, development of abilities and knowledge to seek a job, promotion of self-employment.	Control, detect, counselling and design of measures for personalized intervention in the context of young people, family and education centres.
Main actors	Ministry of Work and Social Affairs, Public Employment Service (INEM and regions) promoting entities and NGO's.	Education centres, social services, family, companies.
People related to the programmes	Pupils and clients, teachers, professionals, workers of promoting entities.	Pupils, families, teachers, experts, local government representatives and certain persons of the social environment.
Main activities	Theoretical and practical training, counselling, monitoring, evaluation and administrative tasks	Support and counselling for young people that do not go to school, with behavioural problems, risk of social marginalization, labour and educational guidance.
Length of the project.	Programmes have duration of 12 to 24 months. They do not allow participants to participate in other programmes.	Programmes are carried out during the academic course, although some young people require monitoring during the whole or various years.
Acquired abilities	Theoretical training, practical training and acquisition of knowledge about computers (computing teaching: 30 hours).	Self-confidence, assessment of the importance of academic training
Future plans	Continue and extend the programmes.	Continue and extend the programmes.

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