

EPASI Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

a programme of observation, analysis and innovation supported by the European Commission's department of Education & Culture, SOCRATES programme 2.1.2



Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

Country Report: Spain

This report was written by the Spanish team:
Melinda Dooly and Claudia Vallejo (with Dr. Ferran Ferrer)



Faculty of Education, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain

November 2008

The EPASI project is a programme of analysis of educational programmes in fourteen European countries, designed to address various forms of social inequality. The project analysis was conducted in the period 2007 – 2009. This report is part of the overall project, details of which are at <http://www.epasi.eu>.

The analysis is intended to be used within the overall framework of the EPASI programme.

The project has been funded with support from the European Commission. Each report within the overall project is the responsibility of the named authors.

The EPASI project was conducted by the following institutions:

- The Institute for Policy Studies in Education, London Metropolitan University (UK) (Coordinator)
- Katholieke Hogeschool Zuid-West-Vlaanderen (Belgium)
- Univerzita Hradec Králové (Czech Republic)
- Montpellier III - Université Paul Valéry (France)
- Panepistimio Patron ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ (Greece)
- Universitat Autònoma of Barcelona (Spain)
- Malmö högskola (Sweden)



UNIVERZITA HRADEC KRÁLOVÉ



Contents

1. Historical overview and impact on social and educational disadvantage.....	3
2. Conceptions of social/educational disadvantage and their impact on different social groups.....	7
3. Explanation of project summaries included in database.....	11
4. A summary of educational disadvantage in Spain today	12
5. Discussion: Significant policies, programmes or projects designed to address educational disadvantage.....	14
References.....	17
Appendix 1: Project summaries	20
Appendix 2: Project overview.....	21

Education Policies to Tackle Social Disadvantage: Spain Country Report

This study will first provide a brief overview of recent changes in education policy in Spain. This is an important issue for the general educational environment of Spain since the nation is a relatively new democracy. It also explores some of the underlying concepts that have marked different policies and practices and which may lead to educational disadvantage for specific groups. It should be noted that this report is compiled through the information available to the authors through national and European reports, research and education journals, education experts and local and national authorities.

1. Historical overview and impact on social and educational disadvantage

In this section, we consider how the question of educational disadvantage has been approached through diverse education policies in Spain since 1975 (marking the end of the Spanish dictatorship under General Franco). We focus on the post-Franco period as it is not only the most recent period of democratic government in Spain; it is also the longest democratic period in Spanish history. The end of the dictatorship and the establishment of a democratic system was an important factor leading to change and modernisation of the Spanish education system largely due to the fact that since 1975 the different parties that have governed Spain have endeavoured to fill perceived gaps between the Spanish education system and other democratic European countries that had developed modern education systems following the end of World War II (IOE 1997).

Inevitably, these important historical conditions which have occurred in a short span of time have resulted in continuous changes in education legislation, producing considerable instability when compared to other, more stable Western systems. For instance, only in the last three decades six organic education laws have been passed to either complement or directly reform the previously existing ones:

- Ley orgánica 5/1980, de 19 de junio, del Estatuto de los Centros Docentes (LOECE)
- Ley orgánica 8/1985, de 3 de julio, de derecho a la educación (LODE)
- Ley orgánica 1/1990, de 3 de octubre, de ordenación general del sistema educativo (LOGSE)
- Ley orgánica 9/1995, de 20 de noviembre, de la participación, de la evaluación y del gobierno de los centros docentes (LOPEG)
- Ley orgánica 10/2002, de 23 de diciembre, de calidad de la educación (LOCE)
- Ley orgánica 2/2006, de 3 de mayo, de educación (LOE)

All these regulatory texts derive from the Spanish Constitution, approved in 1978, which recognises the right of all citizens to education on an equal basis as well as establishing the free and compulsory character of basic education (article 27). Even though this legal text does not recognise specifically 'at risk', disadvantaged or minority groups, it appears to reflect a philosophy of inclusiveness by underlining that 'everyone' has the same right, despite the lack of specifications of certain groups.

This prolific legislative activity highlights the paradox of a general awareness of social changes and the need for adaptation to these changes, as well as the difficulties inherent in drawing up a stable, concerted ideology and legal framework regarding education. The rate of changes has generated a certain feeling of crisis for many education professionals, leading to a tendency to reject any new initiative aimed at changing the current status of education, since apparently each new intervention inhibits the possibility of maturation and consolidation of the preceding policy (Prats 2002). Moreover, reclamations that the lack of legal stability and support for coordinating and

implementing each new Spanish education policies have been exacerbated by an incremental decentralisation process that began in the 1980s and which has promoted the transfer of significant governing competences - including the area of education- from the central government to the regional administrations (Prats 2002). This process has had important consequences in the financial distribution; for instance in 2002, almost 90 percent of the education expenses were in the hands of the regional governments. It has also produced differences in the way in which money is spent.

Although the current Spanish educational system is based on a regionalised decentralisation, this model cannot be compared to other federal systems, where education is far more decentralised than in the Spanish model. The central government still maintains important and exclusive control over many areas of legislation in order to guarantee educational uniformity and homogeneity through the country. The central government shares some areas of governance with the regional governments while at the same time allowing scarce power and autonomy to local administrations (town halls) and education centres (Ferrer 2000a, 2000b, 2002).

According to a recent European study, Spain's educational system has one of the lowest levels of autonomy in the EU, along with Italy, Greece and France (Eurydice 2007). The PISA results for 2006 show that the autonomy of Spanish educational centres is below the OECD average, especially in decision-making by school principals in proposing and hiring teachers, as well as promoting or incrementing their salaries (Ferrer *et al.* 2008). This autonomy is also lower regarding student issues (discipline, assessment and, in particular, student admission). At the same time, across the board, Spanish centres show a higher level of responsibility in the budget distribution (96 percent) (PISA 2006), thus local administrations (town halls) as well as schools often claim that they lack the competences, autonomy and resources to apply initiatives needed for their specific context and populations. Furthermore, the decentralised model has led to a lack of coordination in the actions executed by different levels of government, along with frequent ineffective duplication of efforts addressing the same problems. This process also has had important effects on the linguistic policies in education, especially in those communities where Spanish coexists with co-official languages such as Catalan, Euskera or Gallego (see, for example, *Plan para la lengua y la cohesión social* 2006).

Educational legislation has faced two other major challenges in the post-Franco democracy:

- the universalisation of free, compulsory education for all children from 6 to 16 years old;
- and, most recently, the significant growth of immigrant pupils in the classrooms.

A quick glimpse indicates that each of the educational policies has tried to cope with one or more of these social conditions in one way or the other. For example, the universalisation of basic rights to education was the major aim of the first legal texts of the democratic period (1980s LOECE and 1985s LODE) and strongly reinforced by the socialist government's 1990 reform (LOGSE), which included raising the age for compulsory education from 14 to 16 years of age (a decision taken earlier, despite not having been enforced in a consistent way). Under this legislative text, the following education levels were established:

- Early Childhood Education (0-6 years) – not compulsory
- Primary education (6-12 years) – compulsory
- Lower Secondary Education “ESO” (12-16 years) – compulsory
- The two final years of secondary education contained several options; none of which are compulsory:
 - Academic Upper Secondary Education “Bachillerato” (16-18 years) - *an academic tract preparing for University studies*
 - Vocational Upper Secondary Education “Ciclo formativo de nivel medio” (16, 17, 18 years) – *a specialised degree in professional and artistic areas (eg electrician, hairdressing, etc.)*
- Higher Education

Fifteen years after the LOGSE, the percentage of children between 6 and 16 attending school is close to 100 percent, and similar levels have been achieved for smaller children from 3 to 5 years (96.6 percent in 2004). As can be seen in the charts below, the rate of students in post-compulsory upper secondary levels, that is, young people between 17 and 18 years of age, has also gone up to 75 percent, although these numbers are still lower than the European average (MEC 2004, 2005; OECD 2008; Eurostat 2008).

Table 1. Spanish achievements regarding universal compulsory education

Percentage of children attending school at age 15 during 2005-2006	97.5
Percentage of children attending school at age 17 during 2005-2006	75.7

Source: Ferrer and Albaigés (2008)

Table 2. Current Spanish status in relation to the Lisbon 2010 objectives

	Spain		EU average		EU benchmarks and goals
	2000	2006	2000	2006	2010
Low achieving 15-year olds in reading literacy	16.3 %	25.7%	21.3%	24.1%	17.0%
Early school leavers (age 18-24)	29.1 %	29.9 %	17.6 %	15.3%	10 %
Upper secondary completion rate (age 20-24)	66.0 %	61.6 %	76.6 %	77.8 %	85 %
Participation in pre-school education, 4 year olds	99.0 %	99.3 %	82.8 %	85.7 %	90%
Adults with tertiary education level (age 25-64)	22.5 %	29.9 %	19.4 %	22.9 %	Not available
Public investment in education, % of GDP	4.28 %	4.25 %	4.68 %	5.09 %	Significant increase

Sources: OECD PISA 2006 database and Eurostat (EU-labour force survey)

The achievement of universal education for all Spanish citizens between 6 and 16 has been considered one of Spain's biggest educational successes. However, the implementation of such an ambitious policy in such a short period and the consequent need to create millions of new places for students at the different educational levels has increased pressure on administrative, structural and human resources (IOE 1997).

Despite the fact that these transformations have been associated with an increase in public spending on education, the amount spent remains much lower than most other developed countries. According to a 2008 report, OECD countries spend 6.1 percent of their collective GDP on educational institutions, while Spain spends 5 percent (OECD 2008 report and OECD's conference "Education at a glance" 2008). The total amount spent per student is also lower. A 2005 report entitled "La situación social en España" – Spain's social situation - points that the amount spent per primary student is 15 percent lower than the European average and 18.47 percent lower for secondary students (Navarro 2005). Many experts feel that this creates a gap between the "good intentions" of the legal bodies and realistic possibilities to implement measures towards quality education and equality in the centres.

The lack of sufficient funds has been exacerbated by the need to build new schools and hire more teachers to face the increasing flux of new students (Essomba unpublished). Though urgent and unquestionable, this has meant a deficit in funds spent in other areas aimed at improving the quality of the system, such as special programmes for student diversity; programmes to overcome student failure and to promote retention of students at risk of leaving their studies early; reception and integration of immigrant students; resources for school libraries and new technologies; as well as initial and continued teacher training.

Since the LODE (1985), Spain has a parallel network of centres financed by public funds: public schools and *centros privados concertados* (private schools subsidised by the government and required to follow the same legislation as the public schools) – herein called *dependent state schools* as defined by OECD, 2004. This legislation, designed to homogenise the curriculum of the

majority of schools, anticipate some funding for the schooling of students in *dependent state schools* but does not anticipate any funding for extracurricular activities. Currently the Spanish school system is made up of 67 percent public schools, 26 percent *dependent state schools* and 7 percent completely private institutions¹. According to a MEC report (2007) the amount of students attending private centres (both *dependent state schools* and completely private institutions) during the academic year 2007/08 were:

- Primary education (6-12 years): 32.7 percent
- Secondary education (12-16 years): 33.4 percent

Significantly, this ratio is much higher than the OECD average (16 percent)².

Recent events (mostly due to immigration) have revived a long conflict between public and private education. Critical voices claim that private schools receiving public funds - *dependent state schools* - are not assuming their responsibility towards the main problems of the Spanish education system, which is reflected in the unequal distribution of students from groups at risk of suffering from educational disadvantage, especially those from migrant origin. Currently, 7 percent of 15 year old pupils attending secondary Spanish centres were born abroad (Catalonia and Navarre have the highest ratio with 9 percent, and Andalusia and Asturias the lowest, with 3 percent) (PISA 2006 Spanish report).

Statistics show that 82 percent of immigrant pupils attend public institutions, and only 18 percent study in *dependent state schools*, principally due to the expenses families must face when paying the extracurricular activities. The concentration of groups at risk of suffering from educational disadvantage in the public system tends to create “ghettos”, especially in those schools located in the neighbourhoods where immigrant families live, and where more than two thirds of their students proceed from these families. This “ghetto” effect is reinforced by the fact that Spanish parents tend to move their children out of those schools where ethnic and indigenous minorities have become the majority school population.

This unequal social distribution of students in the dual system is considered to be one of the most blatant problems of inequity in the Spanish educational system. There have been some attempts to remediate this situation. The original proposal of the LOE (2006) contemplated the creation of special commissions to guarantee equal access of students with special needs – especially immigrants - to the entire public and *private/ dependent state schools* network. However, the law as it was finally written, after considerable debate, did not manage to reach this goal.

As mentioned earlier, the first legal norms derived from the 1978 Constitution were not very specific about the special needs of some communities and the compensatory measures aimed to guarantee their right to education. The ambiguity of what is “disadvantage” and of who is in need of compensatory measures was encapsulated in the very general label of “*educational special needs*” (*necesidades educativas especiales*). “*Educational special needs*” have become progressively more detailed and explicit in recent legal texts. The LOGSE (1990) calls for compensatory education to avoid inequalities deriving from social, economic, cultural, geographic, ethnic or other factors. The LOPEG (1995) establishes support and specific educational attention to persons with physical disabilities or mental health issues, or to those facing social or cultural disadvantage.

Recent transformations of the student profile in the Spanish education system has created conceptual rifts in the educational model and provoked an evolution from a model based on

¹ These are global percentages. There are considerable variations between different regions and autonomous communities which are not contemplated here.

² Geographical variations range from 58 percent of the students attending private centres in the Basque Country to only 25 percent in Galicia and Andalusia (PISA 2006 Spanish report).

homogeneity and reproduction of the previously existing educational framework towards recognition of diversity and the advantages of social and cultural heterogeneity (Echeita 1994; Pereda *et al.* 1997, 2003; Siguan 1998).

The latest legal norms tend to pay more attention to interculturality, pupils with special needs and the specific circumstances and social realities of the students. Concepts such as “interculturality”, “diversity”, “social cohesion”, “social integration”, “tolerance” and “respect” have been emphasised – albeit not usually defined - in the most recently approved education law (LOE, 2006), along with the insistent message that, to be effective, equality of opportunities must be understood not only as equal access, but also as equality of outcomes. However, many experts claim that frequently this equality of outcomes in official and legal rhetoric is not clearly defined and may, in part, lead to a lack of clear agency and responsibility about how to ensure equal provision of educational opportunities.

The latest legislation states that the problem of equal access to education is not the only factor related to social inequalities. Equal outcomes, understood both as academic results and as opportunities for social progress must also be considered. For this reason, the more recent laws, such as 2006s LOE, reformulated their priorities from equality of access, towards the improvement of quality in compulsory education. The new law emphasizes two values, quality and equity and presents them as compatible goals that must necessarily coexist: equality of opportunities for everyone should be reflected in an improvement of the Spanish academic results and number of students completing their schooling; lowering of current levels of absenteeism, drop-out rates, academic failure; and an increase in the number of individuals from disadvantaged groups accessing higher education and vocational training. Unfortunately this legislation has not been entirely successful. The weakness of Spanish academic results is especially visible in the last phase of compulsory education (ESO, from 12 to 16 years), where 28 percent of the students do not obtain a final graduate certificate, and the number of drop-outs is almost 30 percent (OECD 2008 report; *Progress towards the Lisbon objectives 2010 in education and training, 2007 Indicators and Benchmarks*).

2. Conceptions of social/educational disadvantage and their impact on different social groups

Since the 1978 Spanish Constitution (marking the end of General Franco’s dictatorship), one of the major concerns of Spanish legislation regarding education has to do with equality of opportunities. However as stated earlier, there is no specification of special needs for disadvantaged groups. At the same time, the awareness (and reference to) social/educational disadvantage for different populations has grown in both official and public discourses in recent years (Lorite 2004), although there is little consensus about what constitutes a disadvantaged group. As a result, some special needs groups have gained public visibility and specific attention, while others have remained somewhat invisible. Most official and public texts that deal with disadvantage (eg legal norms, administrative texts, media news, academic production) tend to relate it to ‘visible’ differences (Actis 1997; Pereda *et al.* 1997) – eg physical or ethnic characteristics- thus putting some groups, such as immigrants or the physically or mentally disabled, in the public eye while ‘erasing’ other groups whose conditions do not derive from evident, physical features (eg lower socio-economic classes or indigenous, historic linguistic minorities). Moreover, difference is often conceptualised as equal to *deficit*, according to this “different/deficient” scale (Pereda *et al.* 1997).

Minority Ethnic groups

Different/deficient appears as a major element for defining ethnicity and therefore minority ethnic groups – principally children from immigrant origin- are more visible in official and public discourses and the target of special compensatory policies. Arguably, as a reaction to the recent

growth of immigrant population, explicit references to immigrant origin pupils have begun to appear in Spanish legal texts dealing with education. Significantly, these references have appeared in the last six years (LOCE 2002 and LOE 2006), where they are defined as “late arrivals into the Spanish education system”. Although both reforms promote special measures to avoid inequality, the first one frames an assimilative model while the latter policy (LOE 2006) aims for integration and “normalisation” (the term applied to acquisition of regional languages such as Catalan), and allows the schools and local administration to decide which students need special support and to specify which measures to apply.

However, specialised diagnosis is not always the case, as sometimes compensatory measures are automatically applied to immigrant pupils, without considering their particular conditions and real needs; frequently, diagnosis is based on the different/deficient ideology. For example, Latin-American students are sent to compensatory linguistic classes because of their use of variants of Spanish which are different from the Castilian dialect and thus stigmatised as deficient. Across the board, “new-comers” (students recently enrolling in the Spanish education system and from different nationalities), are assigned to special classrooms (transitional classrooms called “aulas de acogida” and more recently “espais de benvinguda” have been initiated in Catalonia), where they are taught the school’s vehicular language and given compensatory education until they are diagnosed as being “ready” for integration into the mainstream classrooms.

Disability

According to the Blind Persons National Organisation (ONCE), 3.5 million people in Spain suffer some kind of physical and/or mental disability. This group receives a substantial amount of visibility and attention in official and public discourses, both in terms of explicit references and in specific compensatory measures. For many decades, education compensatory policies aimed at disabilities meant separate education in special centres. Although these centres still work with severely handicapped children, this segregating model has evolved in recent norms and policies towards “integrative education” of these students into mainstream schools, supported by resources like tutors, social workers, rehabilitation workers, and specially adapted materials. This inclusive model also considers the collaboration between administrations, centres and external, non-profit agencies that may help in the education of these pupils. These external actors supervise the correct integration in the centres, ensuring that the integration is appropriate to the students’ needs.

Socio-economic disadvantage

Public and official discourses of educational disadvantage as they develop in legal norms, the media or in academic circles are often less explicit when referring to economically disadvantaged citizens. For instance, poverty tends to be related to other, more visible groups (Romans, certain immigrant groups), thus linking it to the previous characterisation of “others”. This “invisibility” of the socio-economic factor is reflected in the lack of specific policies, measures and research dealing with this subject (when compared to the previous categories).

Universalisation of compulsory education has had an important and positive role in the access of economically disadvantaged groups to education, but it has not had an overall effect on their social mobility - education seems to reflect, more than transform, their disadvantaged position in society. Students from working classes have higher drop-out rates and less presence in post-compulsory levels. Not only is their access to higher education lower, but when they do complete vocational studies, these tend to be in less prestigious degrees.

Indigenous minorities

Defining which groups belong to this category presents some difficulties in the Spanish panorama due to the heterogeneity of its diverse communities. It can include some groups, like the Roma and the Berber (especially present in Spain's African territories of Ceuta and Melilla), and it is clearly related to a wider, trans-national group settling into Spain. But it could also be applied to historic communities, like the Basques, Galicians or Catalans, whose existence is prior to the Spanish nation-state and have a defined geographical and political marker: recognition as "nations" within a nation. Indeed, the differentiated identity of these communities is an un-resolved issue and periodically appears in public discourse and debate. Currently, the common denomination in Spain is not "indigenous" but "ethnic" minorities (especially the Roma), or, in more political and polemic terms "historic nationalities", especially for the Catalans and Basques.

Just as the public discourse and consideration of these communities vary, so does the official and normative attention that they receive towards their education rights. Through decentralisation, "historic nationalities" have been given the opportunity to get involved in decision relating to education policies, as well as to the official recognition of their languages, and are therefore not in a minority situation within their territories. However, those groups that do not enjoy this status, such as the Roma, do not receive special attention in the form of specific norms or compensatory policies. Until the 1980s, Roma children attended special, separate schools (called "*escuelas puente*") where their culture and values were transmitted but there was no integration with non-Roma students resulting in a "ghetto" situation.

From 1983 on, most of these schools disappeared and Roma students were incorporated into "mainstream" schools, where – Roma analysts claim – "normality", "diversity" and "deficiency" are defined from an ethnocentric perspective, and minorities are forced to adapt themselves to the uses and traditions of the majority culture. Roma students are frequently stigmatised as deficient pupils coming from a marginal culture (there is an underlying concept of "transmitted" deficiencies leading to academic failure) and sent to compensatory classes (see Abajo Alcalde 1997, 1998; Abajo Alcalde and Carrasco 2004; Anta Féliz 1994; Asociación de Enseñantes con Gitanos 1991, 1996; Fernández Enguita 1999).

Linguistic minorities

The analysis of Spain's linguistic minorities is quite problematic, especially due to the linguistic diversity which can be found in Spain and the heterogeneous official and social status that these languages enjoy within the diverse regions. We have to consider, first, that the country is organised as a "nation of nations" (this term is currently at the centre of a long political debate), composed by autonomous regions, many of them with their own language. There are a total of five co-official languages (which are legally recognised along with Spanish), three popularly recognised languages which are not legally recognised (but have regional support) and five existent minority language groups with a minimum of 3000 speakers (Mercator Media 2007).

The significant growth of immigrant population in the last decades, mostly coming from Africa - especially the Magreb (20 percent), South and Central America (50 percent) and Europe - mostly eastern countries (25 percent), makes this panorama even more complex (MEC 2004, 2005). Some public schools, especially those with a high concentration of immigrant population, count up to 30 mother languages among their students (MEC 2004, 2005). To further add to this complexity, the question of whether the different languages are conceptualised as minority languages vary considerably according to the geographical location where the analysis is set. For example, Catalan may be considered a minority language in the rest of Spain, while in Catalonia it is the main language used in schools (at least at primary school level) and the students who are not familiar

with it will be at a disadvantage.

The incorporation of the mother language in the instruction of minority language pupils – important for cultural and identity meaning, and for its role in the acquisition of a new language - is another delicate issue where, according to many centres, good intentions often clash with limited resources to finance teacher training or specialised language teachers. Similarly, the Spanish government has specific bilateral agreements with other countries, such as the “ELCO” with Morocco, designed to promote the teaching of the Arabic language and Moroccan culture (Pleiades 2007). But the effectiveness of the programme is conditioned by the funds that are provided by the partner country, often of a limited size since these governments prefer to support education within their own country first. Thus, these programmes are mostly supported by volunteers (Losada Campo 1990, 1992; Moreras 1996).

Gender and sexuality

All public schools in Spain and many private centres are co-educational, although there are also a number of single-sex schools, at primary, secondary and higher education levels. These are private institutions and are usually -but not always- run by religious orders. In the Spanish education legislation, there is no specific measure that promotes gender equality; mostly, expressions such as “male and female students...” can be found in legal texts when referring to the education community. However, there are no specific policies aimed at ensuring the rights of groups discriminated on the basis of gender or on the basis of sexual orientation.

However, on a more general basis, some measures have been used to promote gender equality. Although they are not specific educational policies, these measures do have implications for equality of men and women in the Spanish society in relation to education. An example is the IV Plan for Equality of Opportunities between Women and Men 2003-2006 (Plan de Igualdad de Oportunidades entre Mujeres y Hombres, 2003–2006). The Ministry of Work and Social Affairs and the Women’s Institute are responsible for this plan which is based on two fundamental principles: promoting the defence of and guaranteeing the principles of equality in all activities and policies through “mainstreaming” and through “cooperation”.

The plan identifies 8 main points of action:

- Introduction of a gender perspective in public policies
- Gender equality (economic issues)
- Equality in decision-making
- Promotion of quality of life for women
- Equality in citizenship (civil life)
- Transmission of values
- Conciliation of work and home life
- Cooperation between NGOs and public institutions

The following actions are specific to the Ministry of Education:

- creation of and recognition of degrees in gender studies (eg Masters)
- promotion of women in universities, at postgraduate level and as researchers
- increase the proportion of women studying technical subjects at university level
- provide continued education for unemployed women.

The visibility of gender and gender discrimination through specific policies is a rather recent issue in the Spanish public agenda in general. Only since the late 1990s has gender violence - predominantly against women - become a matter of public concern and the subject of several official campaigns. In 2004 the new Socialist government promoted the first law dealing with this

problem. The law emphasizes the vital role of education for preventing this violence and overcoming sexism. Several studies (see for instance González Paredes 2006) have shown a worrying degree of sexist ideas among Spanish youths: 33 percent of teenage girls do not consider violence within a couple to be sexual abuse; 23 percent of teenage boys consider women inferior and 53 percent think that female infidelity requires severe reprisal. On a different note, Spanish women make up 54 percent of Higher Education student profile (Heredero Muñoz 2005) and their presence is quite frequent in media representation, just as professional women are becoming more common in television series, interviews and news articles.

Regarding sexual orientation, the fact that Spain has made homosexual marriage legal in 2005 has had indirect ramifications. The presence of homosexuals in the media is becoming more common, and there are social programmes that promote education and tolerance in this area. However, no specific administrative education policy appears to deal with this subject.

Religious minorities

One of the main objectives of the first democratic government was to separate education from the Catholic domination that it experienced under General Franco. According to the 1978 Constitution, Spain is a non-confessional state, and religious education is an optional course, whose take-up is decided by the student's parents. This change has meant that the conditions of religious education have changed in the last decades. Different laws have established variations regarding the voluntary or compulsory character of these classes, as well as their confessional or non-confessional character and the hegemony of Catholicism or the presence of other denominations. Further complications derive from the growing presence of immigrants, raising the question of how children with diverse religions can have their right to religious education in different denominations and religions guaranteed.

Considering this context, the latest education law (LOE 2006) makes an explicit reference to which other religions – besides Catholicism - may be taught. These possibilities are subject to agreements between the Spanish State and religious communities (such as the *Federación de Entidades Religiosas Evangélicas de España*, *Federación de Comunidades Israelitas de España* o *la Comisión Islámica de España*). However, even though these agreements may aim at achieving equality of opportunities for all believers to learn about their religions, critics complain that, in practical terms, it implies an unequal situation towards those beliefs because, due to their current limited extension in Spain, these religions are unable to compete with bigger communities for official recognition. Critics also argue that the possibilities of arranging agreements with the State for teaching resources are difficult and costly (see report by ATMAN foundation, report IoE 2001).

The question of religious rights – religious dress in public schools, the building of temples and mosques - has been foregrounded in mass media. Indeed, the latest education bill that makes religion optional has created considerable polemic and debate between conservative and progressive spheres of society, exacerbated by the attention of the mass media.

3. Explanation of project summaries included in database

A range of programmes, projects or initiatives taken by local agents to address educational disadvantage is included in the project summary database (see EPASI webpage <http://www.epasi.eu>). In order to select the projects to be included, the Spanish research team first elicited advice and proposals from experts in education policies - specifically experts within the thematic fields covered in this report- in the format of a preliminary survey. In the survey, the experts were asked to recommend policies and/or measures they considered relevant or they felt had

made an impact in one or more of the thematic areas. More than 100 requests for collaboration were sent out; however the response rate was extremely low (this lack of interest is perhaps indicative of the general lack of coordination and hesitance in sharing information between different special interest groups in Spanish education). This poor collaboration from experts implied searching for other selection criteria. Thus, it was decided that selection would include already established experts' recognition, eg prizes, positive external evaluations, official mentions, etc. An attempt was made to try to cover all seven groups described above and in some cases, projects and/or programmes were selected that covered more than one group.

Further criteria included projects, programmes or policies that encompassed a variable range of sizes, organisations, etc. (balance between "macro" measures – administrative policies, legal norms - and concrete "micro" cases or applications). Social recognition of some projects or of the actors/institutions that have been implemented was another criteria employed, as well as an attempt to cover the spectrum of different educational stages and modes: pre-school stages, formal school stages, informal and extracurricular programmes, higher and continued education (programmes aimed at entry and student retention in higher education).

Finally, the question of whether the projects were up-to-date served as criteria – projects that had been recently implemented (most of them still in progress) or in some cases, projects that were in their design-implementation stage. Geographic distribution in order to achieve a balanced perspective of the different Spanish regions was also a factor in selection.

4. A summary of educational disadvantage in Spain today

Despite the highly significant progress which can be found in the projects outlined as good practice in the projects highlighted here, it is apparent that educational inequalities persist. These are considered below in relation to the seven indicators considered in all the project country reports:

- literacy levels
- exclusion/expulsion rates
- attainment levels at end of compulsory education.
- continuing in education post compulsory leaving age
- participation rate in higher education
- employment rates
- evidence of social exclusion and being bullied.

It should be noted that conclusive and/or reliable data was not always available in relation to these indicators for all disadvantaged groups. In national reports about education outcomes, the percentage of non-native students enrolled in schools throughout Spain were usually given, however, outcomes of language, mathematics or science attainment were not broken down into different social sectors or other markers, apart from gender.

In the PISA 2006 report, it was found that in all of the different autonomous regions of Spain, the overall results of immigrant students was lower than for the other students, reaching a difference of as much as 70 points. It also pointed out that in Spain those from privileged socio-economic groups tended to perform better in the test, although there was no really significant difference between those in private and public schools. While these results are not a direct assessment of **literacy levels**, it can be assumed that they are in some way related to the attained **literacy level** of the students.

A further discriminatory practice related to **literacy** has been identified in the Autonomous City of Melilla. According to information provided by the Spanish Government, a dialect of Berber

("Chelha") is spoken by a significant minority in the city of Melilla, probably amounting to 25 percent of the total population. Apart from this, there have been no attempts to teach or use Tamazight within the official education system and the Spanish Government has not created any inspectorate or controlling body in relation to the teaching of Tamazight, thus effectively forcing a large population of the Autonomous city of Melilla to attend basic education in their second language (Committee on the Rights of the Child, UHRI 2004). A similar situation exists in Ceuta.

Similarly, explicit data on **exclusion or expulsion** from school was not found, however, studies show a relatively low "school life expectancy" among working class students after compulsory education (INCE 2003). Likewise, according to a report by the Universal Human Rights Index Committee (UHRI 2008), one in four Roma students leave school early and tend to have more difficulties in employment throughout life. In the same report, the committee expressed concern about differences between the balance of subjects for non-native students who are often 'tracked' into vocational routes, resulting in an institutionalised **exclusion** from alternative, more academic routes.

In a similar vein, participation rate in higher education in Spain is not extremely high, with less than 30 percent of the Spanish population attaining **tertiary education**. At the same time, the demand for skilled jobs is around 35 percent of the population. On the whole, **employment** of youth in Spain is problematic, with almost 66 percent of youth employed on temporary contracts. This is especially true of women, which are more likely to be on temporary contracts (3 points higher) compared to the OECD average (OECD 2006). Although data on unemployment of specific population groups was not located, data from the Spanish [Case Study 3](#), young immigrants between the ages of 16 and 18 represented 31 percent of the people who participated in the *Occupational Training and Job Placement Plan for Youth* during 2006-2007 (Dooly and Vallejo 2008:4). This may indicate that a significant number of youth from this population have difficulties in finding employment. This is further exacerbated by problems with legal situations since many immigrant youth have few problems getting student visas but run into legal barriers when applying for a work permit.

The number of Spanish students in **continued education** has increased between 1999 and 2005, however, despite this increase, reports show that Spain is falling behind other EU countries as far as **early school leaving** and now has one of the highest rates for early school leavers (index of 29.1 in PISA report). At the same time, the Human Rights Index Committee has expressed concern over the **high drop-out rates and registered absences** of Roma children in primary schools, as well as the low number of both Roma and migrant pupils **completing higher education** (UHRI 2004 CERD/C/304/ADD.95)

The PISA report indicates that in Spain, **levels of graduation in secondary education** for females exceed those of males by more than ten percentage points (this refers to graduation of two years of **post-compulsory education**). A breakdown of the profile of students continuing in post-compulsory education was not available, apart from gender descriptors. However, significantly, despite higher female graduate levels following post-compulsory education, the proportion of females choosing science studies (including life sciences, physical sciences, mathematics, computing, engineering, manufacturing, construction and agriculture) is below 25 percent in tertiary education for particular subjects.

In the previously mentioned report by the Human Rights Index the Committee expressed concern about evidence of **social exclusion** of non-native students, predominantly in the form of being bullied (The Universal Human Rights Index 2004). Incidences of physical assault on immigrant students were cited.

5. Discussion: Significant policies, programmes or projects designed to address educational disadvantage

One of the first factors which stands out in this preliminary review is the general lack of interest or cooperation from those experts, politicians and professionals involved in the very creation or implementation of the policies we were looking to describe. Our preliminary survey was addressed to more than 100 persons and/or institutions, and the response rate was below 10 percent. As a result, in addition to including the recommendations received from the experts who did respond, it was also necessary to seek other criteria for the selection of the policies to be incorporated in this overview, considering the vast amount of national and regional policies, grassroots initiatives, individual school programmes and projects, etc. Thus, previous recognition in the form of regional, national or international awards, prizes, or financial aide was also a criteria incorporated into the first selection of examples included here.

Moreover, in the preliminary survey, the categorisation of the themes/groups established in the tables has presented difficulties for the Spanish, due to the differences in the use of the concepts in Spain. When asking the experts to “label” their recommendations, all the projects and policies referring to Roma pupils were labelled as “minority ethnic groups”, putting them in the same category as recent immigrants, such as pupils from Africa or Latin America. Conceptually, it seems that in Spain both communities appear to be categorised under the same concept despite their significant differences: newly arrived groups from foreign countries as compared to members of minority ethnic groups that have inhabited Spain for centuries. Also, experts have included policies concerning other long-term established communities in the country - such as the Berbers, who are settled mostly in the autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla – as linguistic minorities rather than under policies for “minority ethnic groups”. This is so, despite the fact that Berber speakers are the majority in Melilla (approximately 80,000 inhabitants) and the minority in Ceuta – both provinces of Spain and the point of origin of many immigrants into the mainland. Finally, but perhaps, most problematically, the label “indigenous minorities” is not used in Spain. It is not used for either long-time settled communities (eg gypsies), nor for the “national” communities that make up a significant portion of the country, such as the Basques or Catalans.

A further difficulty lies in accessing information about the costs of the projects or programmes. This information has been systematically absent; although it is not clear whether this is due to the prevalent lack of economic funds in many Spanish education compensatory actions, or to socio-cultural reasons, the merit of many of the projects – according to the experts responsible for their positive evaluation - lies precisely in the ability of those in charge to carry them out without significant resources.

Other factors which have emerged in this preliminary overview can lead to the following conclusions. In Spain, civil society - individual actors, non-lucrative institutions - play a fundamental role in the creation and implementation of compensatory “good practices” aimed at marginalised groups. This role includes financing – often through “un-official” means such as prizes, community collaboration, volunteers, etc. The role schools and teachers have in implementing their own initiatives are also highlighted in this overview, implying that opportunities and autonomy to take this initiative is an effective means to promoting new policies. Inevitably, the need for more support from the public administrations – including economic support - in order to assure the continuity of these “good practices” and extend them to other schools is made manifest.

The lack of easily accessible information about “references” and “evaluation” for many of the projects and initiatives mentioned here has also become apparent. Of course, it can be argued that the lack of scientific or official evaluation was somewhat compensated by the allocation of prizes, awards or by public recognition. Many of the projects do include some protocol for their future

evaluation - usually in very detailed and specific terms -, but there are no available results that prove that these parameters have been really applied. When some information regarding the evaluation is available, it tends to have a more informal, observational style versus a systematic and quantitative approach.

A brief analysis of the policies discussed in this report highlights a correlation between the active participation of different members of society in the policies and initiatives and the official/non-official character of the policies. The projects implemented by official institutions and administrations generally lack the participation of the groups they are aimed to, leaving the at-risk group members and their families in the position of receivers. While civil-based initiatives (in many cases proposed and enacted in order to compensate the lack of official policies) are usually implemented precisely by members of the target-sector of the community. For example, heritage language, religion and culture classes are often run by members of that particular community and are held outside of school hours.

Another important factor to emphasise in this brief analysis is the relevance of a “culturally associative” society. Historically, schools, teachers and voluntary associations have provided integrative measures which do not receive specific funding. This may be due to problems dealing with centralised, heavily bureaucratic government entities, combined with a tradition of nuclear communities. Nonetheless, whatever the socio-historic tradition behind these initiatives, it is clear that the Spanish government promulgates this type of activity by publicly recognising (and providing token financial aide to) projects which display individual initiative, volunteerism and some degree of success despite the lack of funding.

The de-centralisation of the Spanish government resulting in a transfer of control over educational policies to the regional governments inevitably underlines the different attitudes of the regions towards different particular groups and issues. For instance, the focus of educational policies in Extremadura is directed towards socio-economic equality and improvement of rural areas, seemingly in parallel to the characteristics of the community itself which is principally rural and poor. In contrast, in Catalonia, the educational policies are aimed at ethnic minorities, indigenous groups and linguistic minorities, due to the high rate of immigration to the region and subsequent cultural diversity.

Despite these regional differences, there are some general tendencies which can be observed. For instance, the visibility of certain groups versus the invisibility of other groups can be noted. This can be seen in the lack of policies aimed at social or economic needs of “national communities” (Basques, Catalans) whereas the number of policies and initiatives for “non-territorial” members (immigrants from other countries) is quite high. Moreover, the policies tend to have an ‘assimilationist’ approach of integrating the “other” through majority language classes and “cultural training” of the host country. These initiatives are compulsory and carried out during the school hours, whereas the initiatives to teach heritage language and culture are usually limited to after-school hours or weekends (and do not usually cover more than two hours per week). Sexual orientation can also be problematised as a largely “invisible” disadvantage. For example, while bullying is beginning to be considered as an issue sufficiently important to merit new policies and laws, bullying of homosexuals is not usually considered.

Likewise, measures aimed at religious minorities are “invisible” throughout Spain, with the exception of the LOE – which has raised a polemic concerning the reform of the conditions of religious education in compulsory education. In other issues of religion – many of which have raised considerable debate in other European countries are practically null in Spain, eg the question

of religious symbols in schools³. In a similar vein, the needs of religious denominations, apart from Catholicism, must be covered by the religious communities themselves with their own resources.

On the whole, there appears to be an extensive use of “integrative” discourse albeit without specifications of what this discourse encompasses. There is a wide spectrum of policies and projects based on an ideology of “interculturality” and “values” without any clear outline of what this signifies, how successful “intercultural education” can be assessed, nor how it should be integrated into an overall concept of quality education for all.

Just as the above discussion underscores, educational policies and practices are often quite disparate. It is clear that many different sectors, both private and public, are engaged in working towards equality and equal educational outcomes. At the same time, it should be made clear that education alone cannot resolve social inequalities and there is a danger in placing too much emphasis on local, regional and national education agencies to do so. It may be more productive to focus on ways to continue supporting positive and effective initiatives such as those outlined in this report and in the database as well as drawing from these experiences in order to build on these and design new ways to confront the challenges of educational and social inequalities.

³ Notably, just as the final version of this report was being edited, an incident involving forced removal of crucifixes from schools in one of the autonomous regions of Spain was highlighted in national news.

References

- Abajo Alcalde, JE and Carrasco, S (2004) *Experiencias y Trayectorias de Éxito Escolar de Gitanas y Gitanos en España* [Experiences and trajectories of School Success of Gypsies in Spain] Madrid: CIDE, Instituto de la Mujer
- Abajo Alcalde, JE (1997) *La Escolarización De Los Niños Gitanos* [The Schooling of Gypsy Children] Madrid: Ministerio De Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales
- (1998) La Evolución De La Escolaridad De Los Niños Gitanos. Esperanza De Un Pueblo Y Piedra De Toque De Nuestro Sistema Social Y Escolar [About the Evolution of Schooling of Gypsy Children. Hope of a Village and a Milestone for Our Social System] *Escuela Hoy*:18-20
- Actis, W (1997) *La Escuela Ante La Diversidad Sociocultural. Discursos De Los Principales Agentes Sociales Referidos A Las Minorías Étnicas De Origen Extranjero* [The School in Face of Sociocultural Diversity. Discourses by the Main Social Agents in Reference to Ethnic Minorities of Foreign Origen] Madrid Colectivo Ioé, Cide
- Anta Félez, JL (1994) *Donde la Pobreza es Marginalización. Un Análisis Entre Gitanos* [When Poverty Marginalises. An Analysis of Gypsies] Humanidades: Barcelona
- Asociación Enseñantes Con Gitanos (1991) *Escuela y Educación: 12 años de debates, propuestas y reflexiones en torno al pueblo gitano* [School and Education: 12 years of debates, proposals and reflections on the gypsy population] Boletín del centro de documentación de la AECG, 3:1
- (1996) *La Asociación y la Educación Intercultural* [The Association and Intercultural Education] Madrid: Boletín del centro de documentación de la AECG, 12
- Colectivo Ioé (2001) *Aproximación A Las Posiciones Sobre La Socialización Religiosa De Los Jóvenes En Dos Segmentos De Población: Jóvenes Y Agentes De Socialización Juvenil* [Towards the Positions of Religious Socialisation of Youth in Two Segments of the Population: Youth and their Socialising Agents] Madrid, Ioé
- Committee on the Rights of the Child (2004) *Thirtieth session. Consideration of reports submitted by states parties under article 44 of the convention. Concluding observations of the committee on the rights of the child: Spain*. Doc. CRC/C/15/Add.185. Geneve: United Nations
- Departament D'educacio:Educación e Inmigración (GENCAT) (2006) *Plan Para La Lengua Y La Cohesión Social. Annex 3: Planes Educativos De Entorno. 30 De Octubre De 2006* [Plan for Language and Social Cohesión: Annex 3: Educational Plans for the Surroundings] Retrieved from: http://Www.Xtec.Cat/Lic/Intro/Documenta/Anexo3_Planentorno.Pdf April 17 2006
- Dooly, M and Vallejo, C (2008) *Spain case study report 3: Vocational education and work placement for school leavers*. Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality, EACEA Action 6.1.2. London: IPSE
- Echeita, G (1994) *A Favor de una Educación de Calidad para Todos*. [In Favour of Quality Education for Everyone]. Madrid: *Cuadernos De Pedagogía*: 228
- Essomba, MA *Análisis Normativo Sobre Alumnado Extranjero E Igualdad De Oportunidades En Educación En España* (Unpublished)
- European Commission. Directorate-General for Education and Culture (2007) *Progress towards the Lisbon objectives 2010 in education and training, 2007 Indicators and Benchmarks*. The full text of the report is available at: http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/progressreport_en.html
- European Parliament, Committee on Employment and Social Affairs (2004) *Draft Report on the*

Social Situation in the European Union. 2004-2009. Retrieved from http://www.europarl.europa.eu/meetdocs/2004_2009/documents/pr/545/545498/545498en.pdf on 26 May 2006

Eurydice (2007) *School autonomy in Europe policies and measures*. Brussels: Eurydice European Unit

Eurostat (2008) *Education in Europe - Key statistics 2006*, 42/2008. Brussels: Eurostat

Fernández Enguita, M (1999) *Alumnos Gitanos En La Escuela Paya*. [Gypsy Students in 'White' (paya) Schools] Barcelona: Ariel

Ferrer, F (2000a) Languages, minorities and education in Spain. *Comparative Education*. 2,36: 187–197

Ferrer, F (2000b) Le projet éducatif d'établissement en Espagne: entre autonomie et responsabilité. [The established educational project in Spain: between autonomy and responsibility] *Cahiers Pédagogiques*, 43–56

Ferrer, F (2002) *La Educación Comparada actual* [Current comparative education] Madrid: Ariel Educación

Ferrer, F and Albaigés, B (eds) (2008) *L'estat de l'educació a Catalunya. Anuari 2006. Vol I (Anàlisi d'indicadors) y Vol II (Anàlisi de context i situacions)*. [The state of education in Catalunya. Yearbook 2006, Vol. 1. Analysis of indicators] Col. Polítiques. Ed. Mediterrània. Fundació Jaume Bofill

Ferrer, F Valiente, O and Castel, JL (2008) Respuesta a ciertos tópicos en clave autonómica [Response to certain stereotypes in autonomic key] *Cuadernos de Pedagogía. Monográfico: Más allá de PISA. Propuestas de mejora*, 381:16-20

Fundación ATMAN (2007) *Informe Internacional Sobre Libertad Religiosa*. [International Report on Religious Freedom] Madrid: Fundación Atman

González Paredes, B (2006) Hacia la igualdad entre hombres y mujeres. Primera parte. Cambios, límites y problemas hoy." [Towards equality between men and women. First part: Changes, limits and current problems]. *Página Abierta*, (March):168

Herdero Muñoz, CE (2005) *Una Mirada Coeducativa a la Loe. Luces y Sombras del Proyecto de Ley Orgánica de Educación (Loe) en Relación a la Igualdad entre Sexos* [A Co-educational look at the LOE. Lights and shadows of the LOE Project in relation to gender] Madrid: Secretaría de la Mujer de la Federación de Enseñanza de Comisiones Obreras. Accessed on June 28 at:

http://Www.Mec.Es/Files/Proyecto_Loe_Y_Memoria_Economica_22_Julio_2005.Pdf

[Ley Orgánica 1/2004, De 28 De Diciembre, De Medidas De Protección Integral Contra La Violencia De Género](#)

INCE Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Educación. (2003) *Sistema estatal de indicadores de la educación 2002: Síntesis* [State system of educational indicators 2002: Synthesis]. Madrid: Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deportes

LODE Available at: ([Ley Orgánica 8/1985, De 3 De Julio, Reguladora Del Derecho A La Educación](#)); Loe ([Ley Orgánica 2/2006, De 3 De Mayo, De Educación](#))

Lorite, N (Ed) (2004) *Tratamiento informativo de la inmigración en España 2002* [How media treats immigration in Spain, 2002] Madrid: Instituto de Migraciones y Servicios Sociales

Losada Campo, T (1990) Islam, inmigración e inserción en Europa. [Islam, immigration and insertion in Europe]. *Itinera. Anales de la Fundación Paulino Torras Doménech*: 142-145

----- (1992) La mujer inmigrante de origen magrebí: de la familia tradicional a la sociedad de

- acogida [The immigrant women of magreb origen: from a tradicional family to the host society] *Text i Context*, Revista del Col.legi Oficial de Psicòlegs de Catalunya, 4:10-13.
- Mercator Media (2007) *Language Overviews*. Available at Madrid: Ministerio De Educación y Ciencia. Available at <http://www.aber.ac.uk/cgi-bin/user/merwww/index/> (last accessed 28 September 2007)
- Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (MEC) (2004) *Procedencia De Los Estudiantes Extranjeros* [Origins of Foreign Students] Madrid: MEC, Ciimu E Ine
- (2005) *Las Cifras De La Educación En España. Estadísticas e Indicadores* [Figures in Spanish education. Statistics and indicators] Madrid: Ministerio De Educación Y Ciencia. [La Educación Española En Cifras](#) (December) [Spanish education in figures – December] Madrid: MEC
- Moreras, J (1996) Musulmans a Barcelona: espais i dinàmiques comunitàries [Muslims in Barcelona: spaces and dynamic communities] *Barcelona Societat*, 6: 85-91
- Navarro, V (Ed) (2005) *La situación social en España*. [The social situation in Spain]. Madrid: Biblioteca Nueva
- OECD (2008) *Education at a Glance 2008*. Available at <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/31/39/41277583.pdf> (Last accessed 15 October 2008)
- (2006) *The PISA 2006 Assessment Framework. Science, Reading and Mathematics*. Paris: OECD
- Pereda, C, De Prada, MA and Actis, W (1997) *La Diversidad Cultural y La Escuela. Discursos sobre Atención a la Diversidad con Referencia Especial a las Minorías Étnicas de Origen Extranjero* [Cultural Diversity in the School. Discourses about attention to diversity with special reference to foreign ethnic minorities] (July) Madrid: Colectivo Ioé
- (2003) *Alumnas y Alumnos De Origen Extranjero: Distribución Y Trayectorias Escolares Diferenciadas* [Students of Foreign Origen: Distribution and Trajectories of Differentiated Schooling] *Cuadernos De Pedagogía*, 326 (July):63-68
- Pereda C, Santamarina C and Camas V (1997) *Discapacidad Y Trabajo En España. Estudio De Los Procesos De Inclusión Y Exclusión Social De Las Personas Con Discapacidad. Ministerio De Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales* [Handicaps and Work in Spain. A study on the process of social inclusion and exclusion of people with handicaps] (Dec) Madrid: Colectivo Ioé
- Plèiades Forum 2006-2007 *Educació i Context Social: L'alumnat d'origen marroquí a Catalunya*. Conference Presentation, Institut de Ciències de l'Educació and Facultat de Ciències de l'Educació, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona 15-17 February 2007, Bellaterra, Spain
- Prats, J (2002) *El Sistema Educativo Español* [The Spanish Educational System]. Colección Estudios Sociales La Caixa N°18: Colectivo Ioé
- Siguan, M (1998) *La Escuela y Los Inmigrantes* [School and Immigrants] Madrid: Ed. Paidós Educador
- Universal Human Rights Index (UHRI) (2008) Institute of Public Law of the University of Bern, Switzerland and LexUM University of Montreal, Canada. Available at <http://www.universalhumanrightsindex.org/en/about.html> Last accessed 27 November 2008

Appendix 1: Project summaries

Theme	Project	Database Code	Subsidiary themes
Minority ethnic groups	Trip around books Project	218	
	School support/reinforcement programme	219	L
Socio-economic	Young Guides Programme (Buddy system)	220	
	Attended study	221	E
	Extremadura's educational policy on Communication and Information Technologies (ICT)	222	
	Catalonia's national pact for education (socio-economic measures)	223	
	Exit Project [Case Study n°2]	225	ERLDIG
	Occupational training and job placement plan for youth [Case Study n°3]	226	ERLDIG
	Transforming schools into "Learning communities" [Case Study n°4]	227	ERLDIG
Religious Minorities	LOE (Education Organic Law 2/2006): measures concerning religion and citizenship education	215	
	Religions in the world (Materials for a lay/non-confessional teaching of world religions in the framework of "The Atman Methodology for Intercultural Education and Training")	216	
	Three cultures project	217	
Linguistic Minorities	Maternal language instruction for Tamazight (berber) children in Catalonia	209	I
	Arabic in the school yards	210	
Disabilities	Learning to produce intercultural goods with mass media (ICT)	211	I-C
	CREDA: Educational resources centres for hearing disabilities	204	
	Bikes for everyone! from strolling in a wheelchair to strolling in adapted bikes, tricycles and tandems	205	
Indigenous Minorities	ONCE Foundation (Blind Persons National Organisation)	206	
	Plan for Roma community pupils	207	
Gender	School attendance promoters	208	C
	Coeducation programmes in educational centres	212	
	Coeducation Project	213	
All	Galician Government's policy for teacher training on gender violence prevention (in the framework of the Galician Law for gender violence prevention and treatment)	214	
	City Educational Project –PEC [Case Study n°1]	224	ECRLDIG

Key: E ethnic minorities; C Socio-economic; R religious minorities; L linguistic minorities;
D disability; I indigenous minorities; G gender

Appendix 2: Project overview

✓✓ Indicates main theme addressed

✓ Indicates additional themes also addressed

Project	Target age range					Target theme(s)						
	pre-school	primary	Secondary	higher	working life	minority ethnic	Socio-economic	religious minority	linguistic minorities	disability	indigenous minorities	gender
Trip around books Project	✓	✓				✓✓						
School support/reinforcement programme		✓	✓			✓✓			✓			
Young Guides Programme (Buddy system)			✓			✓✓						
Attended study	✓	✓	✓				✓✓		✓			
Extremadura's educational policy on Communication and Information Technologies (ICT)	✓	✓	✓				✓✓					
Catalonia's national pact for education (socio-economic measures)		✓	✓				✓✓					
Exit Project [Case Study n°2]			✓				✓	✓✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Occupational training and job placement plan for youth [Case Study n°3]			✓	✓			✓	✓✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Transforming schools into "Learning communities" [Case Study n°4]		✓	✓				✓	✓✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
LOE (Education Organic Law 2/2006): measures concerning religion and citizenship education		✓	✓						✓✓			
Religions in the world			✓					✓✓				
Three cultures project		✓	✓					✓✓				
Maternal language instruction for Tamazight (berber) children in Catalonia		✓	✓						✓✓		✓	
Arabic in the school yards	✓	✓							✓✓			
Learning to produce intercultural goods with mass media (ICT)	✓	✓					✓		✓✓		✓	

CREDA: Educational resources centres for hearing disabilities	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓✓	
Bikes for everyone! from strolling in a wheelchair to strolling in adapted bikes, tricycles and tandems	✓	✓								✓✓	
ONCE Foundation (Blind Persons National Organisation)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓✓	
Plan for Roma community pupils		✓	✓								✓✓
School attendance promoters		✓	✓				✓				✓✓
Coeducation programmes in educational centres	✓	✓	✓								✓✓
Coeducation Project		✓	✓								✓✓
Galician Government's policy for teacher training on gender violence prevention (in the framework of the Galician Law for gender violence prevention and treatment)				✓							✓✓
City Educational Project –PEC [Case Study n°1]	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓

Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

Spain case study report 1 City Educational Project (PEC): A transversal programme to address educational inequalities

This report was written by Melinda Dooly and Claudia Vallejo on behalf of the Spanish Country Team



Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain

October 2007

The EPASI project is a programme of analysis of educational programmes in fourteen European countries, designed to address various forms of social inequality. The project analysis was conducted in the period 2007 – 2009. This report is part of the overall project, details of which are at <http://www.epasi.eu>.

The analysis is intended to be used within the overall framework of the EPASI programme.

The project has been funded with support from the European Commission. Each report within the overall project is the responsibility of the named authors.

The EPASI project was conducted by the following institutions:

- The Institute for Policy Studies in Education, London
- Metropolitan University (UK) (Coordinator)
- Katholieke Hogeschool Zuid-West-Vlaanderen (Belgium)
- Univerzita Hradec Králové (Czech Republic)
- Montpellier III - Université Paul Valéry (France)
- Panepistimio Patron ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ (Greece)
- Universitat Autònoma of Barcelona (Spain)
- Malmö högskola (Sweden)



MALMÖ HÖGSKOLA



Introduction

Instead of choosing five different policies to be developed in this section, the Spanish team has decided to focus its attention on one “macro-project” – **City Educational Project (PEC)** - as our first case study. The project is an umbrella-type project that encompasses a series of interesting, semi-autonomous sub-projects, some of which will be analysed in more detail as four separate case studies.

The decision to focus first on one “macro-policy” was based on the following factors:

- 1) The project is a clear example of a general, transversal social pact aimed at compensating social and education inequalities and to improve education in general.
- 2) It affects, basically, all “at risk” groups selected to be outlined in this research, through the development of eight ‘thematic work areas’ (*ámbitos temáticos de acción*) (including, for example, immigration and academic success), from which specific actions are derived.
- 3) The project includes both general educational policies based on a theoretical framework about education and social actors, and specific, local actions that are materialised through the macro-project’s lines of action (some of which will be further described in detail). These elements of the macro-project are regularly assessed and revised for continual improvement.
- 4) The whole project counts on one fundamental base – full implication and participation of the social actors, thereby involving the target groups and/or related communities in the design, management and/or delivery of the actions.
- 5) It represents a good example of local and transversality of educational policies, based on the advantages of giving educational competences to local administrations (city councils and schools) due to their proximity to the community and knowledge of the specific needs of community members.

City Educational Project (PEC)

The philosophy of City Educational Projects (PEC) lies in the idea that the city must evolve from being just a scenario to being an educational agent who is implicated in and actively influences the education of its citizens. Within the PEC framework, two new educational realities are currently taking place in parallel: one within the formal educational environment, and one that extends its educational action beyond the classrooms and takes advantage of the territorial resources from the city, thus producing educational opportunities for continuity of the learning process and a chance for coherence among the diverse educational possibilities and situations. This premise of relationship between the city and its school revolves around four fundamental axes: 1) the model of a school rooted in its community and social reality; 2) a concept of learning that departs from children’s experience and daily life; 3) the collaboration between school and community associations in order to promote city-school programmes; and 4) the will of the local administration to be co-responsible for education of its citizens

http://w3.bcn.es/V45/Home/V45HomeLinkPI/0,3698,60797962_60807355_1,00.html).

City Educational Projects aim for the creation of an integrated educational network, based on a process of participation and joint responsibility that involves society as a whole, bringing together local administrations, schools, families, cultural organisations and recreational associations. Childhood and youth education are continually more conditioned by what happens outside school hours and by the relationship between what happens during “formal” education periods - activities developed within the classrooms - and those that are offered to them during “free hours” (extracurricular activities). Starting from here, and aiming to give an integrative and communitarian answer to the multiple educational needs of children and youth, different local institutions (city councils, recreational organisations, parent and cultural associations and even

corporations) have started educational programmes and projects from the above-mentioned co-responsibility framework. These projects are based on three pillars or basic principles: social co-responsibility in education, transversality and proximity, meaning the implication of all the territory's community and educational agents to transmit educational values, not only in the school but from a wide range of contexts.

In the words of an expert: "If it were possible to measure the degree of educational power of a city, the amount and quality of schools would not be the only indicator, but also the rest of institutions and tools that generate formation, as well as the way all these agents interact and harmonize" (Trias 1993, quoted in Bertran Coppini 2006).

This new, inclusive educational paradigm in which the concept "education" goes beyond the school and includes all the educational typologies (formal and informal), converges in a commitment between the diverse organisations and city association and groups and the local administration. Local administration is understood as the appropriate agent to guide and coordinate the implementation of educational policies due to its comprehension of the specific social needs and realities of the community. Moreover, due to their proximity, city councils can continuously assume more responsibility as the suitable channels for responding to the situations that occur in the daily life of the community. They are also the ideal agents to extend and improve the educational system's ability for adaptation to diverse situations and to ensure that the decision-making process is flexible and agile, while at the same time guaranteeing participation of community members.

It is not always easy to coordinate these different themes. Although Spain has experienced a clear decentralisation of legal responsibilities towards the regional governments, the Spanish educational legislation does not provide a lot of resources to local governments. Furthermore, the central government still controls in the arrangement, organisation, operation, planning and management of the overall educational system. Nonetheless, this legal framework has not stopped the implication of many city councils in developing a wide range of educational programmes and services such as early childhood, music and art schools, educational support programmes, education-labour world transition programmes and immigrant children integration.

Schools also become a fundamental node in this integrated educational network. The current evolution of the social context, the attention to diversity, the adjustment to the immediate context and the democratisation of education also supposes the autonomy of the teaching institutions to provide fast answers to the impositions that the changing socioeconomic reality raises.

School (...) has to find, in its city, the essential frame in which to integrate its work and project all its formative power, taking advantage of the great educational potentials of local and community surroundings. We cannot understand the future of the city without considering its schools, nor will we be able either to plan the future of the school if we separate it from the future of the local communities in which it is inserted (Subirats 2003, quoted in Bertran Coppini 2006).

Finally, the framework of the City Projects (PEC) also promotes equality of both individual and group opportunities so that all pupils and citizens have the same opportunities and accessibility to these new educational tools and spaces thus improving everyone's chances of success at social and labour levels. In this context, City Projects consider that it is necessary to reframe what is taught and how it is taught, followed by reviewing and redefining the educational contents and programmes in order to ensure that concepts like fairness, social justice, coexistence and sustainability are the main axes of the programme.

Educating Cities: Its first stages

The concept of “Educating Cities” is the theoretical framework from which City Educational Projects (PEC) arose as a means of materialising the ideological framework. First conceptualised in 1990 in Barcelona, four years later this movement became the “International Charter of Educating Cities”, an important network which is made up of more than 330 cities in 34 countries in five continents. The charter expresses the commitment of the cities to the following principles and actions (for the charter text, see the Annex).

Looking back, the analysis of the first City Projects shows, as a common feature, that they have become spaces for public debate, with a focus principally on schooling and all matters related to the relationship between formal education and the city. A first conclusion points to the need of new and future actions to strengthen the participation of other educating agents apart from the schools. The implementation that each micro-project has had is quite different, according to each individual project. Whereas some of them are being successfully implemented, others (a significant majority) have outlined possible actions to be developed but are only in a preliminary stage so that some of the mini-projects of the City Projects are still only a social debate. It seems that the biggest challenge lies in developing the diverse themes without diluting the overall impact of the macro-project.

Still, in general terms, the first generation of City Projects has helped create and reinforce educational social networks in the local community. It must be noted that the implication of some city councils has not always been 100 percent, often leaving the management and responsibilities to the schools. Therefore, the execution of many projects – especially those that require more complex actions - has not always had the support of strong executive structures, nor benefited from specific aid or programmes specially aimed at their implementation. This is why Barcelona (different from the other cities in the worldwide network) has created a “Technical Office” (Oficina Técnica) for this purpose.

Barcelona’s City Educational Project (PEC-B)

As explained previously, the case studies presented below fall within the penumbral of Barcelona’s City Educative Project (PEC-B), now in its second phase. (For a more detailed explanation of the different phases of the PEC, see Annex 2).

In the following pages, we will describe three projects from the thematic area “Academic success and access to employment”, that have been broadly documented, positively evaluated and are still in effect.

- “Éxit” (success) project
- Occupational training and job placement plan for youth
- Learning communities

References

- Bertran Coppini, R (2006) *Los proyectos educativos de ciudad. gestión estratégica de las políticas educativas locales* [Education projects in the city. Strategic management of local educational policies] Madrid: Centro Iberoamericano de Desarrollo Estratégico Urbano Cideu.
- Subirats, J (Ed) (2003) *Més enllà de l’escola. Transformación social i noves dinàmiques educatives i professionals* [Beyond the school. Social transformation and new educational and professional dynamics] Barcelona: Mediterrànea

Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

Spain case study report 2

Exit: Equality in educational success and access to employment

This report was written by Melinda Dooly and Claudia Vallejo on behalf of the Spanish Country Team



Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain

October 2007

The EPASI project is a programme of analysis of educational programmes in fourteen European countries, designed to address various forms of social inequality. The project analysis was conducted in the period 2007 – 2009. This report is part of the overall project, details of which are at <http://www.epasi.eu>.

The analysis is intended to be used within the overall framework of the EPASI programme.

The project has been funded with support from the European Commission. Each report within the overall project is the responsibility of the named authors.

The EPASI project was conducted by the following institutions:

- The Institute for Policy Studies in Education, London
- Metropolitan University (UK) (Coordinator)
- Katholieke Hogeschool Zuid-West-Vlaanderen (Belgium)
- Univerzita Hradec Králové (Czech Republic)
- Montpellier III - Université Paul Valéry (France)
- Panepistimio Patron ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ (Greece)
- Universitat Autònoma of Barcelona (Spain)
- Malmö högskola (Sweden)



UNIVERZITA HRADEC KRÁLOVÉ



MALMÖ HÖGSKOLA



Introduction

Instead of choosing five different policies to be developed in this section, the Spanish team has decided to focus its attention on one “macro-project” – **City Educational Project (PEC)** - as our first case study. The project is an umbrella-type project that encompasses a series of interesting, semi-autonomous sub-projects, some of which will be analysed in more detail as four separate case studies.

The decision to focus first on one “macro-policy” was based on the following factors:

- 1) The project is a clear example of a general, transversal social pact aimed at compensating social and education inequalities and to improve education in general.
- 2) It affects, basically, all “at risk” groups selected to be outlined in this research, through the development of eight ‘thematic work areas’ (*ámbitos temáticos de acción*) (including, for example, immigration and academic success), from which specific actions are derived.
- 3) The project includes both general educational policies based on a theoretical framework about education and social actors, and specific, local actions that are materialised through the macro-project’s lines of action (some of which will be further described in detail). These elements of the macro-project are regularly assessed and revised for continual improvement
- 4) The whole project counts on one fundamental base – full implication and participation of the social actors, thereby involving the target groups and/or related communities in the design, management and/or delivery of the actions.
- 5) It represents a good example of local and transversality of educational policies, based on the advantages of giving educational competences to local administrations (city councils and schools) due to their proximity to the community and knowledge of the specific needs of community members.

Case study 2: “Exit”: Equality in educational success and access to employment

This project entitled “Exit” (*exit* means “success” in Catalan) can be found within the PEC-B’s thematic area “Academic success and access to employment”, and its main objective is to create equality in academic success. The project highlights the general benefits of achieving universal secondary school promotion. This must be viewed within the historical context of Spanish compulsory education - which has been raised to 16 years of age. Since compulsory education was raised from 14 to 16 years of age, the main tendency has been to develop strategies to give individual attention to the students that do not adjust to the basic standards required for graduating. This has placed most of the responsibility of resolving detected difficulties of certain pupils upon the teaching staff.

Aiming to shift the focus from individuals, since diversity has been mostly conceptualised as a psycho-pedagogical matter, to the classroom and overall school administration, the “Exit” project aims to promote academic success of all the students, without any kind of discrimination. It is not, therefore, some form of support addressed to a specific typology of students, instead it must be seen as an educational tool. It does not work as a palliative for some “disadvantaged” pupils; it is meant to give all students equal preparation for their future entrance into the workforce.

The project emerged from a concern about the significant number of Spanish students who do not continue their studies to take their secondary graduate degree after finishing their compulsory studies at age 16. Statistics show that most pupils who finish their secondary graduate degree continue in post-compulsory studies; whereas an important percentage of those who leave the educational system at age 16 are often marginalised in social and labour spheres. Consequently, the project intends to change the view of secondary graduation (between 16 and 18 years of age),

from being seen as a final point to a starting point towards post-compulsory studies or entrance into the workforce. Seen as such, the universalisation of secondary promotion has, in the twenty-first century, the same importance and characteristics as universal literacy had at the beginning of the previous century. The “Exit” project aims to open a way for this universal secondary promotion.

The project was designed both as a programme for integral educational intervention, and for professional orientation for students who are not interested in higher education. The project began in 2001, with an agreement between the Catalan Government Education Department and the Barcelona City Council. The agreement outlines a plan to share data and to design a common programme that would:

- Coordinate both administration’s efforts and existing resources
- Assure pupils’ regular school attendance
- Decrease the levels of absenteeism and truancy
- Help students’ transition between primary and secondary education
- Guarantee students that have consolidated basic knowledge and attitudes before moving to secondary education
- Increase the number of students who graduate from secondary education
- Guarantee coherence between the different services offered at primary and secondary levels (pedagogical, administrative). This implies that all schools giving compulsory education share the same tutorial style, materials and resources, evaluation criteria, and a similar offer of school and extra-school services such as opening hours and schedules, dining room organisation, etc.)
- Reinforce the schooling of pupils with difficulties
- Introduce new educational resources for recently enrolled foreign pupils - especially in language learning, in order to accelerate their integration
- Support schools’ initiatives to innovate the pedagogical action
- Coordinate the actions between schools, the school neighbourhood and district and Barcelona’s Municipal Institute of Education (IMEB), so that school reinforcement programmes and recreational activities become more efficient
- Harness young people’s voluntary participation (this has taken shape in the “buddy” programme, which is a basis of the “Exit” project)
- Improve all pupils’ learning, self-esteem and socialisation
- Work jointly with the Educational Municipal Council and parent federations to increase family commitment to their children’s learning process
- Organise a service for scholastic reinforcement service for pupils attending 5th and 6th levels of primary, and 1st and 2nd of secondary (period of transition)
- Promote new forms of learning through measures such as increasing the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in education and learning processes
- Take advantage of the equipment in the community to improve secondary pupils’ motivation and orientation (public technological resources, etc.)
- Apply more flexible and cross-sectional evaluation criteria
- Reinforce the skills and knowledge that may allow pupils incorporation to post-compulsory studies, continued education programmes or the labour market
- Orient young people’s education towards professions that have openings in the labour market
- Offer services for the families and promote adult collaboration in school life in order to reinforce the school’s image as a referent point in the community and establish a model of integrated education
- Design teaching formulas to improve academic and professional guidance by offering more professionalised learning
- Set up job placement practice in secondary education

- Promote collaboration with the business sector to motivate and prepare secondary students towards professional life

Specific applications:

In operational terms, the “Exit” project proposes a group of interventions addressed to two decisive moments in compulsory education: the transition from primary to secondary and the last stage of secondary (therefore, the complete scope of the project goes from 10 to 16 years).

a) Workshops

The first global action, aimed at the primary-secondary transition, is composed of three workshops held after school. Each workshop is addressed to a different agent involved in this process: pupils, teachers and parents.

The aim of these workshops is to help students in the transition from Primary to Secondary stages and improve their learning skills and attitudes:

-Teaching staff workshop: addressed to tutors working on the last 2 years of Primary and first 2 years of Secondary compulsory education.

-Pupils workshop: reinforcement classes and support, addressed to students attending the last 2 years of Primary and first 2 years of Secondary compulsory education. Students are recommended for the workshop by their tutors.

-Parents workshop: addressed to the families of all pupils attending the last 2 years of Primary and first 2 years of Secondary compulsory education.

b) “Buddy” programme (amics grans):

This theme for the “Exit” project is considered to be one of the most significant bases of the project. The “buddies” are ex-students from the secondary school who are selected by the school’s staff. They return as volunteers to their old schools to help young students overcome their difficulties by helping them with their homework, new technology, music, sports, and games and so on. These “buddies” are usually doing their university studies so they serve as a positive model of academic success for younger students. Being in the classroom – sitting at the same desks as the students - also reinforces pupils’ self-esteem and has significant educational effects. The pupils see themselves as similar to their “buddies” but living different stages in their development. The continuity of the buddy’s presence in the classroom throughout the year is very important to build this positive vision: the ideal length of their voluntary mission should be between 2 or 3 academic courses. Last academic course (2006-2007) there were 118 “buddies” in 68 schools in Barcelona, working with a total of 1,070 students.

c) Workshop on Learning outside the school (Taller de Enseñanzas en Contextos No Escolares - TECNE)

This workshop targets pupils attending their last year of secondary compulsory education. It is held during regular school hours in locations outside the school (according to the tasks that are being taught) and counts on the teaching staff’s participation. The idea is to complement regular classes with professional and occupational learning, open up students to new cultural and professional interests, increase the number of students graduating from secondary compulsory education in Barcelona and to motivate them to continue studying beyond compulsory education.

The TECNE workshops are between 20 and 30 total hours, divided up on a weekly basis during one trimester. The learning and evaluation processes are transversal, thus go beyond specialised knowledge areas. Although these workshops cover a wide range of possible professions (jewellery-making, carpentry, web page design, video-making, sailing, etc.) they share the same objectives and requirements:

- Learn the basic tasks of each activity
- Develop a written project and present it to the class

- Bring interesting ideas into the classrooms, starting from the newly acquired knowledge
- Encourage the use of ICT
- Help pupils discover their own skills as well as learn about new possibilities
- Widen students' perspectives about job opportunities

Evaluation of the pupils is both individual and group-based. This has a significant impact in the students' final year results and includes the design of a "Professional life project". These are research reports that require active participation in the workshops and in simulated job interviews and must display the knowledge they have acquired about the professional context. Since its first year of implementation (2002-2003), the number of districts and school centres where these TECNE workshops are carried out has grown significantly:

	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07
districts	3	7	8	8	8
students	164	562	850	1150	1260
groups	8	12	16	36	40
hours	3608	6744	10200	13800	12600

w3.bcn.es/.../V01SubPresentaciolniciCtl/0,2155,60797962_60832205_1_84603864,00.html?accio=detail

"Exit" Project evolution and evaluation

Quantitative and qualitative evaluation was part of the design of the project, beginning with its "pilot" stage between 2001 and 2005. Evaluation covers all the action points as well as the social actors involved in the project (tutors and teaching staff, "buddies", coordinators, families).

The main conclusions of the evaluation carried out during the academic course 2004-05 were:

- Improvement in pupils' learning, visible in positive curricular evaluations, especially in their knowledge of Catalan and the use of new technologies (ICT)
- Improvement in pupils' adaptation to the academic pace (visible in added self confidence and relationship with classmates)
- More efficient use of the institutes and community resources: pools, summer camps, technological equipments, etc.
- Requests from other communities, districts, and schools to extend the programme
- Increment in amount of involvement and collaboration from local socio-cultural associations in learning reinforcement and recreational activities

Specific outcomes

- "Èxit-Smart" group: This was a joint initiative to sum up efforts towards programmes to reduce school drop-out known as "school failure zero". This was a result from an encounter between the "Exit" project (Barcelona) and "Smart Cities" project (New York City). Participating institutions include Barcelona's Municipal Education Institute (IMEB), the Institute for Learning Technologies (ILT) from Columbia University's Teachers College and the Department of Didactics and Educational Organisation of the Pedagogy Faculty of the Barcelona University (UB). Outputs include:

- Written and audiovisual materials about learning reinforcement
- Design of a formula to evaluate new teaching-learning models in the last years of secondary compulsory education
- "Èxit-Smart" group web page
- Participation in teacher training at the Psychopedagogy Department,
- Post-graduate course called "La tasca educativa en el marc de l'Administració pública i local", at the UB
- Press releases and articles in academic journals and daily press

- On-line course about 'attending diversity'
- Research group on new formulas for on-line learning
- Attendance to several seminars organised by City Councils from Spain, Italy, Finland and other countries
- Counselling for several city councils
- Participation in European projects to fight school failure
- Presentation in European seminars as an example of "good practice"

Current state:

After this evaluation, "Exit" is currently engaged in a generalisation phase (2005-07), aimed at extending the project to all the city districts, thereby converting it into Barcelona's main programme against school failure.

Challenges for the future:

Attending the multiple requirements for a phase of further expansion will require careful planning and implementation as will the intent to improve and widen the areas of shared training (cross-curricular) for orientation and motivation of pupils attending the last years of secondary compulsory education. Another challenge lies in following up the framework established by the "Exit-Smart" group and to incorporate the use of ICT into regular classrooms, all of which will require some significant re-designing of school organisation.

References:

Project webpage:

http://w3.bcn.es/V01/Serveis/SubPresentacio/V01SubPresentacioIniciCtl/0,2155,60797962_60832205_1_84603864,00.html?accio=detall

www.exit-smart.org/articleperspectiva.pdf

Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

Spain case study report 3 Vocational Education and Work Placement for School Leavers

This report was written by Melinda Dooly and Claudia Vallejo
on behalf of the Spanish Country Team



Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain

October 2007

The EPASI project is a programme of analysis of educational programmes in fourteen European countries, designed to address various forms of social inequality. The project analysis was conducted in the period 2007 – 2009. This report is part of the overall project, details of which are at <http://www.epasi.eu>.

The analysis is intended to be used within the overall framework of the EPASI programme.

The project has been funded with support from the European Commission. Each report within the overall project is the responsibility of the named authors.

The EPASI project was conducted by the following institutions:

- The Institute for Policy Studies in Education, London
- Metropolitan University (UK) (Coordinator)
- Katholieke Hogeschool Zuid-West-Vlaanderen (Belgium)
- Univerzita Hradec Králové (Czech Republic)
- Montpellier III - Université Paul Valéry (France)
- Panepistimio Patron ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ (Greece)
- Universitat Autònoma of Barcelona (Spain)
- Malmö högskola (Sweden)



UNIVERZITA HRADEC KRÁLOVÉ



MALMÖ HÖGSKOLA



Introduction

Instead of choosing five different policies to be developed in this section, the Spanish team has decided to focus its attention on one “macro-project” – **City Educational Project (PEC)** - as our first case study. The project is an umbrella-type project that encompasses a series of interesting, semi-autonomous sub-projects, some of which will be analysed in more detail as four separate case studies.

The decision to focus first on one “macro-policy” was based on the following factors:

- 1) The project is a clear example of a general, transversal social pact aimed at compensating social and education inequalities and to improve education in general.
- 2) It affects, basically, all “at risk” groups selected to be outlined in this research, through the development of eight “thematic work areas” (*ámbitos temáticos de acción*) (including, for example, immigration and academic success), from which specific actions are derived.
- 3) The project includes both general educational policies based on a theoretical framework about education and social actors, and specific, local actions that are materialised through the macro-project’s lines of action (some of which will be further described in detail). These elements of the macro-project are regularly assessed and revised for continual improvement
- 4) The whole project counts on one fundamental base – full implication and participation of the social actors, thereby involving the target groups and/or related communities in the design, management and/or delivery of the actions.
- 5) It represents a good example of local and transversality of educational policies, based on the advantages of giving educational competences to local administrations (city councils and schools) due to their proximity to the community and knowledge of the specific needs of community members.

Case study 3: Vocational education and work placement for school leavers (Plan joven de formación-ocupación)

The purpose of the Barcelona City Council's “Vocational education and work placement for school leavers”, initiated in the year 2000, is to facilitate school-workplace transition for those young people who have just completed secondary compulsory education without a diploma and who have left the school system at age 16. As part of Barcelona’s City Educational Project (PEC-B) within the thematic area “Academic success and access to employment”, the plan facilitates mechanisms which favour job placement for these youth, through a personalised programme with multiple phases: information, orientation, training, and insertion.

Its training/employment task relies on the resources arising from the coordination of various municipal institutions, such as Barcelona’s Institute of Education (IMEB), the Institute of Education and the Department of Youth, the Youth Council, the Occupational and Professional Training Board and the labour agency known “Barcelona Activa”. It has also created a regular connection between the secondary schools and the occupational resource network of the city in order to foster the transition of young school leavers into the labour market.

The programme aims at taking care of a significant number of young people who leave secondary education every year without a diploma by encouraging them to take professional training and use available resources for aiding their entry into the workforce. The programme gives assistance and guidance to approximately 2,400 young people each year by helping them with training and employment resources. It is aimed at young people from 16 to 18 years of age who have left secondary school before graduating and who do not have the resources to create their own job-training itinerary or find jobs. The risks for this sector of the population are evident:

-In the environment of a large city with neighbourhoods where the actions of the municipal administration can be limited, there is a large possibility of an increasingly large sector of the population with very little training.

-Young people between the ages of 16 to 18 have a difficult time in finding their first job, especially when they lack a secondary school diploma, which is the case of the target group of this programme.

The plan also recognises the urgency of creating positive expectations amongst young people, in the possibility of gaining access to their first job, the quality of the job, the flexibility of the timetables and the number of hours they have to work, among other elements.

In more general terms, the plan responds to the social needs of young people. Some of the Plan's objectives and actions are:

- Help pupils who have left school and are uncertain what they want to do by showing them the different professional opportunities available to them.
- Help them find out what they would like to do professionally and help make it possible for them to achieve it
- Provide them training in a trade they may enjoy
- Jointly create a plan specially designed for each pupil, to help them tackle the future
- Advise them in their work schedule design
- Promote young people's employment
- Facilitate the transition to an active professional life or reintegration into the school system through a series of assistance designed to help them gain access to training resources. Also provide support for a personal job finding programme through a process of individualised tutorials
- Consolidate the connection between the public and private secondary schools in order to work jointly on the transition from school to the work place and help young school leavers
- Bring the city's resources closer to young people
- Take advantage of the existing city resources when developing the different phases of the programme

As regards the methodology of the plan, the training/employment plan works in a coordinated fashion with the existing labour-related resources in the city of Barcelona and acts as a mediator between the young people and those facilitating the transition of these young people into active employment. In order to get closer to the young people, the plan is organised into a network of centres of "Barcelona Activa", a municipal company fostering local job development, and "4 Youth Information Points", covering the different districts of the city.

The programme works in four phases: information, orientation, training, and insertion, and its services are organised through the following stages or actions:

- Once the interested youth arrives at one of the district information points in the city, he/she is required to give personal information and a first meeting is settled to begin to draw up a joint work plan.
- During this first individual interview a job diagnosis is made for each participant in the plan. In this phase, the service evaluates the ex-student's expectations, the possibilities of fulfilling them, and the programme best suited to help him/her achieve them.
- A technician or a group of experts informs, advises and orients the young person towards the different resources that are available in the city. They also discuss his/her possibilities to participate in a new training or continued education course to acquire more professional skills or competences or to initiate an occupational activity.

- There are 8 people located in 7 offices of “Barcelona Activa”. These experts must follow up the development of the youth if any problems arise.
- Afterwards there are group seminars for job orientation.
- The Plan presents a large selection of training resources to help the young person aim for the future, or, if he/she prefers, choose the option of returning to the educational system. Depending on the profile of the participants, they are streamed towards a particular employment resource or another: workshop, school or skills centres (job and training centres in which the young unemployed person receives occupational training courses combined with professional practice), occupational training, social welfare courses (courses in job starting, training and employment, professional workshops, in collaboration with the municipalities, secondary schools and NGOs), job transition plan (type of social welfare programmes designed to provide young people with personal and professional resources so that they can find a job and/or continue their training) and others.
- During the training period there are many techniques, contents, objectives and time-periods, so that each youth can obtain tangible success in their programme and find their place in the job market and as citizens. The young person can also take part in practice placement in a company, institution or organisation or, even take part in professional training abroad.
- After job training and work place entry, the plan has a monitoring mechanism and tutorial systems for each individual case in order to guarantee that the resources are being used adequately and that the action is a success (up to 18 months to support the job-finding process).

State of the project:

The Plan is currently in its seventh year. Data for this last academic year 2006-2007 is the following. 2,268 young people participated in the plan; 65 percent were male and 35 percent were female. This corresponds with the fact that there tend to be more male school leavers. 34.95 percent of the participants were 16 years old, 33.5 percent were 17 and 15.89 percent were already 18 years old when they participated. 1203 participants were returning from a previous stage in 2005-2006 and 1065 were incorporated during the first 10 months of 2006. Most of the youth (52.28 percent) have been directed to non-regulated training resources, in particular to Social Guarantee Programmes (557) and Occupational Formation (246). Significantly, 501 young participants chose to follow the preparation of the access tests to Medium Degree Professional Formation (Junior college). 140 participants so-called Workshop schools (*Escuelas Taller*). Young immigrants represented 31 percent of the people who participated in the Plan in this period.

Results, outcomes and evaluation

According to [BIDCE –International Documents Bank of Educational Cities](#), during the 5 years Barcelona City Council's “Vocational education and work placement for school leavers” has already been implemented; more than 7,000 young people have gone through the programme, which has made it a benchmark for integration and participation of young people and their start in life as citizens. 22 percent of these young people go back into the school system, particularly into Vocational Training, through an entrance exam, and 39 percent find their first job or maintain contacts with the working world.

The programme has managed to set up permanent links of collaboration with the schools, and, accordingly, all the young people at risk (16-18 years old) can get involved if they do not have other resources. It has also created a regular connection between the secondary education schools and the city's network of employment resources to favour the transition of young people with a high risk of school failure or early school leavers into the labour market.

Nonetheless, there are still some challenges to be met. When the programme was set up there was not as much immigration in Barcelona as today. Currently, immigrant groups make up 31 percent of the programme. Immigrant participants often find themselves in a legal limbo - if the immigrant youth who leaves or graduates from school have legal work permission, the programme can help them in the same way as any other resident; but this is not usually the case and, therefore, different solutions must be sought for this group. The plan is looking into legal assessment and trying to negotiate easier routes to work permission with the local government.

References:

Project's webpage: <http://www.bcn.es/imeb/plajove/>

BIDCE –International Documents Bank of Educational Cities:

<http://w10.bcn.es/APPS/edubidce/pubTemesAc.do?idtem=81&pubididi=2>

Other Websites:

<http://www.bcn.es/imeb/plajove/ingles/index.htm>

<http://w10.bcn.es/APPS/edubidce/pubTemesAc.do?idtem=81&pubididi=2>

Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

Spain case study report 4 Transforming Schools into Learning Communities: Social and cultural transformation

This report was written by Melinda Dooly and Claudia Vallejo
on behalf of the Spanish Country Team



Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain

October 2007

The EPASI project is a programme of analysis of educational programmes in fourteen European countries, designed to address various forms of social inequality. The project analysis was conducted in the period 2007 – 2009. This report is part of the overall project, details of which are at <http://www.epasi.eu>.

The analysis is intended to be used within the overall framework of the EPASI programme.

The project has been funded with support from the European Commission. Each report within the overall project is the responsibility of the named authors.

The EPASI project was conducted by the following institutions:

- The Institute for Policy Studies in Education, London
- Metropolitan University (UK) (Coordinator)
- Katholieke Hogeschool Zuid-West-Vlaanderen (Belgium)
- Univerzita Hradec Králové (Czech Republic)
- Montpellier III - Université Paul Valéry (France)
- Panepistimio Patron ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ (Greece)
- Universitat Autònoma of Barcelona (Spain)
- Malmö högskola (Sweden)



UNIVERZITA HRADEC KRÁLOVÉ



MALMÖ HÖGSKOLA



Introduction

Instead of choosing five different policies to be developed in this section, the Spanish team has decided to focus its attention on one “macro-project” – **City Educational Project (PEC)** - as our first case study. The project is an umbrella-type project that encompasses a series of interesting, semi-autonomous sub-projects, some of which will be analysed in more detail as four separate case studies.

The decision to focus first on one “macro-policy” was based on the following factors:

- 1) The project is a clear example of a general, transversal social pact aimed at compensating social and education inequalities and to improve education in general.
- 2) It affects, basically, all “at risk” groups selected to be outlined in this research, through the development of eight “thematic work areas” (*ámbitos temáticos de acción*) (including, for example, immigration and academic success), from which specific actions are derived.
- 3) The project includes both general educational policies based on a theoretical framework about education and social actors, and specific, local actions that are materialised through the macro-project’s lines of action (some of which will be further described in detail). These elements of the macro-project are regularly assessed and revised for continual improvement
- 4) The whole project counts on one fundamental base – full implication and participation of the social actors, thereby involving the target groups and/or related communities in the design, management and/or delivery of the actions.
- 5) It represents a good example of local and transversality of educational policies, based on the advantages of giving educational competences to local administrations (city councils and schools) due to their proximity to the community and knowledge of the specific needs of community members.

Case study 4: Transforming schools into Learning communities: social and cultural transformation

As part of Barcelona’s City Educational Project (PEC-B) within the thematic area “Academic success and access to employment”, “Learning communities” is a project of social and cultural transformation of schools and their context or surroundings in order to achieve an inclusive and participative educational model for all the community. This includes all spaces and associations of that specific neighbourhood, starting from the classrooms but going far beyond this physical frontier. Some of the main objectives of “Learning communities” are:

- Becoming experts at resolving conflicts in the schools
- Overcoming school failure
- Achieving maximum learning for all pupils
- Contributing to the creation and development of an Information Society for all citizens
- Potentialising cultural activities as an articulating element of collaboration
- Providing the necessary conditions to overcome social exclusion.

The rationale is to improve pupils’ overall learning, thus helping to overcome school failure and problems of conflict in the school between different social groups. This is obtained through the promotion of solidarity, participation and dialogue within the schools. Academic success and social dialogue can be achieved only when schools become communities that open their doors to the members of its community and promote communicative interaction of all social agents: teaching staff, social educators, city hall, families, pupils, neighbourhood businesses, recreation associations and other district associations. Inevitably, this process is less related to what happens within the classrooms and more focused on the co-relations between classrooms, pupils’ homes and the public space (Castells 1994).

Learning communities also wish to overcome the social and educational parallel tracks of the current educational system, where those schools attended by pupils from non-academic families (whose adult members lack university diplomas) tend to have a higher number of early school-leavers, or more who take “junior” degrees rather than higher education degrees. Meanwhile, academic families encourage their children towards higher education and students from these schools tend to have students with higher rates of access to university careers. The main objective of this project, then, is that children from Roma, Arabic and other origins or disadvantaged positions in general, get the same opportunities as the students from other backgrounds. However, if teachers, families and recreational institutions are uncoordinated and act in different directions, school failure of the non-privileged groups seems to be an inevitable option.

To overcome this double-profile where schools perpetuate social exclusion of children with less resources, these schools have to be transformed into learning communities guided by an egalitarian model, which involves contextual transformation through dialogic learning and consensus among as many educational social actors as possible. The proper methodology would be based on acceleration (see next lines) instead of adaptation and the usual compensatory measures.

Antecedents of Learning communities:

The concept of Learning communities is the result of many years of international investigation on educational projects to overcome school failure and problems of conflict in schools. The most widely recognised and successful precedents can be found in the USA and Canada, but there are also successful projects in other places such as Korea or Brazil. To name a few:

- a) The “School Development Programme” is considered by many to be the pioneer programme, and the most recognised by North-American authorities. It started in 1968 at Yale University, in collaboration with two primary schools from New Haven which were experiencing low rates of school performance, as well as other social problems. It was aimed at pupils from Early childhood to 12 years of age who were attending “problematic” schools located in the city centres.
- b) “Accelerated Schools”, initiated in 1986 under Henry Levin’s direction (Stanford University). The model was inspired by worker cooperatives and democratic models of work distribution. Its starting point is a community that analyses its current situation and plans a joint vision of how they desire the school to be. This is the only project that has been widely covered in Spain, both by the general press and specialised educational publications.
- c) “Success for All” started in Baltimore in 1987 as part of collaboration between Johns Hopkins University and Baltimore Education Department. Their focus was on schools presenting significant rates of low school performance and problems of conflict, inter-group violence, etc. Based on research in evolutionary psychology, it is currently the most widespread programme in North-American schools (more than 2000).

These three programmes share common characteristics, basically their focus on social and cultural transformation of the school and its community, achieved through dialogic learning. This helps explain their success and provides the basis of PEC-B “Learning communities” creation and implementation.

Implementation phases

The “Learning communities” project has two basic phases of development, prior to its implementation: awareness-raising and decision-making.

Awareness-raising: this stage is based on training sessions of 30 hours where the current Information Society is explained and discussed, specially focused on the learning processes and

knowledge it requires for those children who will live in this new context in the future. It also focuses on ways to overcome social inequalities and successfully develop students' personal and professional lives. These sessions are addressed to all social actors implicated in the creation of the Learning communities.

Decision-making: Following the awareness-taking phase, the community must decide, jointly, to implement the transformation of the school into a learning community. There are some minimum requirements to make this decision:

- 90 percent of the teaching staff of the school must agree to carry out the Project
- The school's administrative team must agree
- The School Council must give its approval
- The Parents Association must give its approval
- There must be community involvement (social agents, external entities, etc.)
- The General Administration of the Education Department must give the school maximum autonomy.

Once these conditions have been reached, one of the first tasks is to organise work groups, where a leader is placed in charge of carrying out each of the priorities. These work groups are actually "mixed commissions" made up of teachers, families and/or pupils, who are in charge of implementing each particular priority. Actual decisions, however, are taken by the administrative organisations for each case, whether this be the school board, the school council, etc. Another innovation lies in the classroom organisation, which should include the presence of more than one adult during school lessons. This helps that disadvantaged children are not forced to abandon their group and regular sessions to attend separate remedial or compensatory classes (flexible workgroups). From the "Learning communities" perspective, these flexible workgroups are considered to increase inequalities – despite the fact that they are intended to resolve them. A better formula consists in organising interactive groups (see details below) where the teaching staff shares its task and space with other adults – usually parents –, thus, at the same time, increasing the family's motivations and involvement in their children's education.

To achieve this significant transformation, the learning community decides upon certain priorities and actions to be carried out in periods of 2-3 years, some of which are:

a) Interactive groups:

Considered the most radical aspect of the project, it has to do with the major debate about the homogeneous character of most educational models and how to organise diversity and heterogeneity within the classrooms. Interactive groups are the opposite of taking "at-risk" groups of pupils out of the class, sometimes even out of the school, to develop separate activities. In interactive groups, no one is taken out of their original group. However, assuming that the teacher cannot always handle all the class by him/herself, needed resources are brought into the classroom to help the learning process, overcome failure and resolve conflict problems for all children. Other adults in the classroom are considered to be one of these resources, as are pupils' parents and relatives, volunteers and retired teachers.

b) Family training:

Another essential transformation, and the one considered to give better outcomes, is family training. Learning communities consider, for example, that the use of an ICT classroom can be organised in timetables that allow pupils, the family and their relatives to access these resources together is important. This method is especially stimulating for those families who enjoy sharing activities, such as the Roma community. Literacy is also another element offered for those families

who need it. If a real transformation is to be achieved, schools must become centres of education for all the community, in conjunction with the community.

c) Conflict solving models:

Solving conflicts within the classrooms has been a major concern of a wide range of theories and applications, ranging from disciplinary actions to mediation models, many of them quite arbitrary and not always successful. The “Learning communities” project bets for another conflict solving model though to have better results: the communitarian model, where families participate on equal conditions, no matter their cultural origins and differences, and all the community is involved in a dialogue to uncover the origins and causes of the existing conflicts. Through interactive groups and the presence of parents within the classrooms, conflicts between groups tend to disappear from the classrooms. Those families that usually lack motivation to get involved in their children’s education tend to change their attitudes and collaborate when they have the opportunity to see that real transformation and opportunity for participation is encouraged.

Certain family realities have to be taken into account to promote this type of participation. For example, in some of the Catalan centres where “Learning communities” are implemented, 20 percent of the pupils have relatives in prison, whose treatment cannot be different or exclusive from that of other families. Therefore, whenever an assembly is being held, the centre must visit and inform these relatives, encouraging their reflection and participation. This dialogic focus creates the sense of a big family and helps the schools to be perceived not as strangers telling parents what to do, but as co-workers sharing the same educational and communitarian model.

Current state of the project:

Around 40 early childhood, primary and secondary schools are in the project in Barcelona, along with the participation of their communities. The programme has been introduced into the “Language and Social Cohesion” plan since 2004-2005 (Generalitat de Catalunya, Subdirecció General de Lengua y Cohesión Social). “Learning communities” are also being implemented in other Spanish regions such as Andalucía, Aragón, Castilla-La Mancha, Castilla-León, Extremadura and the Basque Country.

Specific outcomes:

Two Catalan summits of Learning Communities, held in June 2005 and 2006 by the Catalan Education Department were attended by all the region’s Learning communities. The second summit had John Comming, professor of Harvard’s Education Faculty and head of NSCALL (National Centre for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy) as invited guest. At a national level, inter-regional summits have also been held since 2005. They occur once a year, in a different community each time and are jointly organised by the Aragón, Basque Country and Catalan governments. Representatives from all Learning communities, including counsellors, students and a wide range of professionals interested in the project usually attend.

Impact (project report):

The schools involved in the project have transformed into “Learning communities”, signifying the implication and participation of all the community especially the families- in these schools. Communitarian construction of a new educational context fully responds to the children’ needs without excluding anyone and at the same time offers qualitative improvement of the pupils’ learning process. The project has been led in particular by the presence of CREA ([Centro Especial de Investigación en Teorías y Prácticas Superadoras de Desigualdades, Universidad de Barcelona](#)). They have also counted on the collaboration of Barcelona City Council Education Institute.

References:

Castells, M (1998) *La era de la información* (3 vols) [The information era] Madrid: Alianza

Websites:

Project's own webpage:

http://w3.bcn.es/V01/Serveis/SubPresentacio/V01SubPresentacioIniciCtl/0,2155,60797962_60832205_2_85191411,00.html?accio=detall

www.comunidadesdeaprendizaje.net

<http://innova.usal.es/courses/CL3790/>

<http://www.mec.es/cesces/flecha.html>