

**WOMEN OF THE SOUTH IN EUROPEAN
INTEGRATION: PROBLEMS AND
PROSPECTS. CATALONIA.**

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Resum

Aquest estudi examina els canvis recents en les condicions de vida i de treball de les dones a Catalunya. L'estudi forma part d'una recerca més ampla -publicada per la CE- on s'analitzen les particulars condicions de vida de les dones del Sud de cara a la integració europea. "Les condicions de vida i de treball" es consideren com parts inseparables de la vida quotidiana de les dones. L'estudi identifica temes claus que han format part, i en certa manera han determinat, la política de la CE (així com les polítiques nacionals, regionals o locals) de cara a les prioritats marcades per la Integració Europea pel desenvolupament equilibrat i la cohesió social entre els Estats Membres i les regions europees i pel Tercer Programa d'Acció Comunitària (1991-1995) per la Igualtat d'Oportunitats entre Homes i Dones.

Resumen

Este estudio examina los cambios recientes en las condiciones de vida y de trabajo de las mujeres en Cataluña. El estudio forma parte de una investigación más amplia -publicada por la CE- donde se analizan las particulares condiciones de vida de las mujeres del Sur frente a la integración europea. "Las condiciones de vida y de trabajo" se consideran como partes inseparables de la vida cotidiana de las mujeres. El estudio identifica temas claves que han formado parte, y en cierta forma han determinado, la política de la CE (y también las políticas nacionales, regionales o locales) de cara a las prioridades marcadas por la Integración Europea para el desarrollo equilibrado y la cohesión social entre los Estados Miembros y las regiones europeas y para el Tercer Programa de Acción Comunitaria (1991-1995) para la Igualdad de Oportunidades entre Hombres y Mujeres.

Abstract

The study examines recent changes in women's working and living conditions in Catalonia. The study takes part of a broader research -published by the EC- in which the particular conditions of women of the South is analyzed in the context of the coming European Integration. The study sees "working and living conditions" as inseparable parts of women's daily and working lives. The study seeks to identify key issues that have become part of, and determined, EC policy (as well as regional/local and national policy) in view of the social priorities set up by European Integration for social cohesion and balanced development among Member States and European regions and the Third Medium-term Community Action Programme (1991-1995) on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men.

Resumé

Cette étude examine les changements survenus récemment dans les conditions de vie et de travail des femmes en Catalogne. L'étude s'insère dans une recherche de plus grande amplitude -publiée par la CE- qui s'intéresse aux conditions particulières des femmes des pays du sud dans le contexte de l'intégration européenne. "Les conditions de vie et de travail " sont considérées comme indissociables de la vie quotidienne des femmes. L'étude identifie les éléments-clé qui ont formé part, et d'une certaine manière ont déterminé, la politique de la CE (tout comme les politiques nationales, régionales ou locales) en relation avec les priorités identifiées par le programme d'Intégration Européenne pour le développement équilibré et la cohésion sociale entre les États Membres et les régions européennes, et par le Troisième Programme d'Action Communautaire (1991-1995) pour l'Égalité des Chances entre Hommes et Femmes.

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1. INTRODUCTION TO THE REGIONAL PRODUCTIVE STRUCTURE

Catalonia is one of Spain's historical nationalities that people usually refer to as one of the most dynamic regions (demographically, economically and socially) in the Spanish context. Thereby we would like to focus this section on the economic aspects, which determine the recent Catalan productive structure. First of all we should stress that the Catalan economy has enormous magnitude in relation to the Spanish one, due to its long economical contemporary history. In the post-war period (1940), Catalonia was already the first Spanish industrial region, with 42% of the active population in industry and the rest distributed equally between agriculture and services. In the same period more than half of Spain's active population was employed in agriculture.

The 60's were an important economic growth period, specially in Catalonia where the economic growth model was based on the industrial and construction sectors. The service sector expanded, just after the industrial expansion in relative as well as total terms. The huge immigration flow, characteristic of the period - actually the key element of Catalan economic growth - came to be integrated into the industrial sector in two basic ways. On one hand, there was labour intensive manufacture available in the region, specifically designed to absorb such a flow. On the other hand, the strong demographic growth - indirectly infused - brought about an intensive urbanisation process, which at the same time led to an enormous increase in the overall availability of active workers within the construction sector (Generalitat de Catalunya, 1982).

The economic crisis of the 70's was much more acute in Catalonia than in the rest of the Spain due to the price increase in energy and to stagnation of foreign demand for industrial products. These two factors directly affected the industrial sector devoted to the transformer industry, which suffered also from the lack of its own resources. Roughly speaking, the economic crisis did not really affect or generate deep changes in the Catalan economy in comparison with the rest of Spain. Nevertheless it was evident that sectors

such as textile or construction suffered from the decline. On the contrary and for the first time, it brought about the advance of the service sector in contrast to the losses in the industrial sector. In the same way economic re-activation took place in Catalonia in the mid-80's. This time it was not based on the shortage of capital intensive industries or on the huge increase of immigrants, but on the increase of the service sector together with the reindustrialization linked to the large influx of foreign capital.

In 1985 alone, Catalonia produced 19,31% of the Gross Value Added in the whole Spanish economy. macroeconomical variables show that the situation in Catalonia, compared to other regions of Spain, is somewhat privileged by its Personal Income rate which is among the highest. To be more precise, in 1964 the Gross Domestic Product per capita is much higher than the national average (by 45%). The Basque Country is the region that had the highest Personal Income (60% higher than the national average) and Catalonia holds second position. During the 1964-1973 period, with a strong economic development, the annual increase rate of Gross Domestic Product was about 7% in Catalonia. However, in the following period, marked by the crisis from 1973 to 1985, the increase rate of Gross Domestic Product in Catalonia was less than 2% and the relative level of the Gross Domestic Product per capita in Catalonia fell, so that the gap between the Catalan and the national average was reduced. Since 1985 it seems that the economic decline has slowed down.

The Catalan productive structure shows - as would be expected from an industrialised economy - a primary sector, which relatively speaking, offers little to total production (2,5% of Gross Value Added compared to 6% in Spain in 1985) and which employs only a small proportion of the active population. The final agricultural production was distributed in 1987 as follows: livestock 59%, agriculture 38% and forestry 3%. In addition we must underline the role played by women in Catalan agriculture, where the land structure is dominated by modest holdings where women's contribution and large families are essential for economic survival. According to the Agrarian Census in 1982, most of the agrarian holdings are small or medium sized (about 37% of agrarian land has between 1 and 5 Hectares, 18% between 5 and 10 Hectares and 25% between 10 and 50 Hectares). Nowadays it seems that intensive production is taking place on Catalan land both in terms of crop changes and with the introduction of new technologies on land saving.

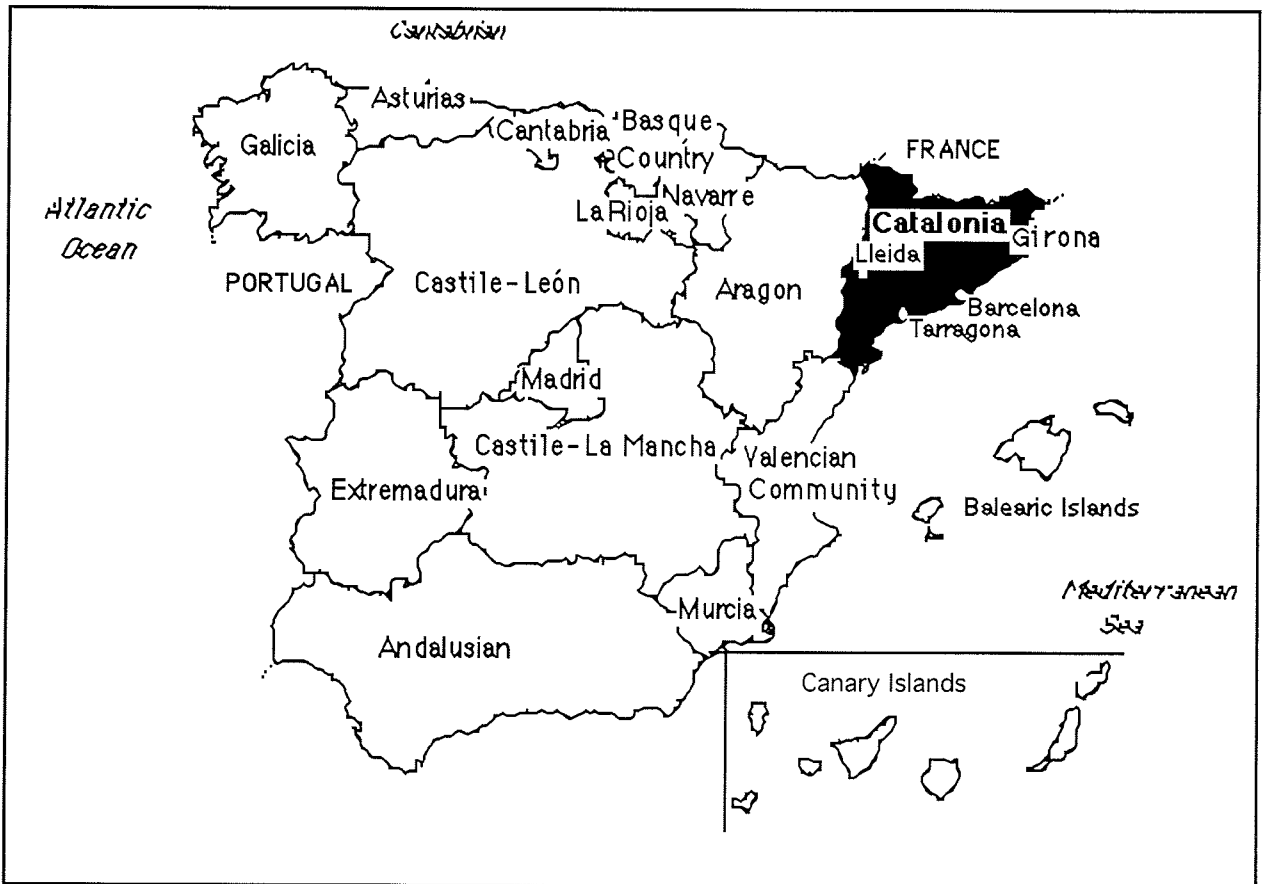
Otherwise the industrial sector employs much of the active population and accounts for a significant share of the overall production in Catalonia. According to the Industrial Census, only five branches of industry constitute 59% of industrial employment in 1986: food, drinks and tobacco (12%), manufacturing of metal products (10%), textile and manufactured articles (19%), transport equipment (9%) and chemicals (9%). Such percentages were slightly smaller in 1978, when these economic branches constituted 58%

of total employment. In fact, this was due to progressive industrial specialisation in Catalonia, together with the restructuration of the productive system and the fall in production during the economic crisis. In summary, the expansion of some concrete economic branches such as chemical products, transport equipment, food, drinks and tobacco was compensated for the decline in other areas such as textiles, which dropped from 22% to 19% of the employment level between 1978 and 1986 (Parellada, 1990). As for the Catalan enterprises within the industrial sector most of them are small or medium (between 1-9 employees: 70% and between 10-49 employees: 22%) and they employ, more or less, one out of three of the total employed population within the industry.

In Catalonia as well as in Spain there has been a relative increase of the service sector since the last few decades. This sector accounted for about 60% of the Catalan GDP in 1985, whilst in 1960 it reached almost 40%. The proportions are quite similar for the rest of Spain. Moreover its expansion has promoted not only an increase in production, but also in employment: people employed within the service sector in relation to the total employed population was 53% (52% in Spain) in 1985, whilst it was only 36% in 1960 (29% in Spain). Finally, it is also worth noting the great importance of the tourist sector within the Catalan economy. Since the 50's the promotion of mass foreign tourism has generated development on the Catalan coast. Nowadays another forms of tourism are becoming popular such as summer houses, which account for an ever-increasing share of tourist accommodation.

One of the main long-term problems of the Catalan and Spanish economy has been the huge increase in unemployment, particularly for youth. We discuss this topic in detail later, for the moment we will just highlight the effects of national policies to promote employment. Such policies have been strongly criticised by the trade unions. They consider them as a main cause of pushing the labour force into a precarious position. Certainly they made a real impact on women. There are two basic reasons: the main policy was based on temporary contracts as well as the decrease in wage costs. This flexible recruitment explains the increase of women's employment. This was reflected, for instance, by the large amount of vocational training contracts or practicing contracts, which were undertaken.

Figure 1. Location of the Research Area: Catalonia and its provincial capitals. Spanish State by Autonomous Regions.



Scale: 1/9.250.000 approx.

Source: Own elaboration.

2. POPULATION

According to the last official data published ("Padró d'Habitants") Catalonia had 5.978.633 inhabitants in 1986. This is a large proportion in relation to the whole Spanish population, 16% to be precise. The demographic importance of Catalonia in relation to Spain has been growing since the 60's (see Table 2.1.). The root of this growth lies behind the concrete demographic dynamics.

When we look at the relative increase in population (see Table 2.1 and 2.2.), it is evident that population growth percentage of Catalonia triples, or at least doubles, that of the whole Spanish population between 1960 and 1970. In this period there were two main factors causing the population growth in Catalonia, immigrant and natural increase, unlike the Spanish case where natural increase was the only factor. During this decade large population contingents from the most depressed areas of the country came to Catalonia, attracted by the employment possibilities in this thriving economic region. They came especially from Galicia and Andalusia (see figure 1), spoke a different language and had different lifestyles. They arrived in such large numbers that the Catalan social balance was deeply affected. In the majority of cases, integration of the second generation, born in Catalonia, did not represent a problem, but one can still find districts, in various towns of Catalonia, which are real ghettos of Andalusian families organising their social life according to the traditions of their motherland. These immigrants, mostly young adults, filled the gaps left in the age pyramid by the Civil War (1936-39): its profile shows both the deficit of births in those years and the high death rate, especially among men, registered during and Just after the war. Hence the Catalonia population was increased naturally and also by the migrants many of whom started families soon after their arrival. Thus, demographically speaking, it was for Catalonia the period of "fat cows". During the 60's an unprecedented explosion took place in the number of marriages as well as in that of the births, as a result of the favourable economic expectations.

Since 1975, all demographic indicators have signalled a change in previous trends. Net migration became even negative in Catalonia. when migrants returned to their land of origin. Equally, Spain has changed from being an emigratory country to an immigratory one. More recently, numerous immigrants from the Third World have been arriving in Catalonia and Madrid, particularly from African countries.

Other variables of the demographic dynamics show a shift of the tendency during the last few decades. There has been a fertility and nuptiality decline and no recuperation signs are visible yet. In 1975, Total Nuptiality Rate was superior to 1 in Spain, which showed a high nuptial conjuncture, but in 1985 it was below 0.64. In 1970, the fertility level indicated that each woman had an average of 2.88 children in Spain and 2.71 children in Catalonia, and the replacement of generations was then warranted; however in 1987, the fertility level showed 1.3 children per woman. This means that Catalonia, together with the Basque Country and some Italian regions, has the lowest fertility levels in Europe. It seems then that marriage and family patterns are changing for the new generation or, at least, being postponed. As a matter of fact, age at marriage as well as age at maternity is higher in the last few years (see Table 2.5): in Catalonia, in 1980 average age at marriage for women was 22.50 and it was 24.54 in 1985 (for men 25.54 in 1980 and 27.08 in 1985). As to age at maternity, the delay is less obvious as it was, 27.87 years in 1980 and 28.48 five years later. Simultaneously new household structures are gaining force, such as cohabitation. We have no statistics on cohabitation but we do have indirect indicators about this new family pattern. For instance, the percentage of children born outside marriage in Catalonia was 2.19% of total births in 1975 and 10.96% in 1985. It is worth remembering that, historically, because of their Catholic tradition, most Spanish regions have had relatively few "illegitimate children" in comparison with the rest of Europe. Lastly, the evolution of mortality among females and males (see Table 2.5) shows a greater level of life expectancy and a widening of the gap between sexes. Therefore it is important to take into account the progressive feminization of the elderly looking at the future insertion and implementation of social policies for the elderly (regulation of retirements, pensions...).

Lastly, it is interesting to note the Catalan territorial distribution of population. The location of economic activities and population that we now know is due to the accelerated economic growth since the 60's. Two basic factors, the drift from the rural to the urban areas in Spain and the fast Catalan industrial development account for the immigration explosion in the Catalan territory (see Table 2.2. on population growth in Catalonia and Spain during the period 1960-1986). The sudden and enormous quantity of incoming population left a great mark at the spatial level due to the real difficulty of providing, for instance, housing or urban infrastructure in general. Therefore the urban speculation, the great agglomeration around the largest traditional industrial colonies and the lack of urban planning which prevailed during the 50's and 60's made up the main features of our history from which we have the legacy of the so-called "inequalities of the recent Catalan territory".

Talking about polarisation centres we must mention Barcelona and its hinterland, nowadays known as the macrocefalic city of Catalonia. This is where the largest and most important shopping centres are found and where the main bureaucratic and political affairs take place. Only Barcelona city has 1,701,812 inhabitants, compared to the almost 6,000,000 inhabitants in Catalonia, which means about 28.46% of the overall population. Roughly speaking, Barcelona province is structured through an elaborate network of small and medium industrial cities. Most of them coincide with the "comarcal" cities. Moreover around two out of three people from Catalonia live within the metropolitan region. Barcelona has 597.8 inhab./km² of density that, compared to the rest of the provinces (Girona 82.9 inhab./km², Lleida 29.3 inhab./km² and Tarragona 83.7 inhab./km²), makes the point of its relative over-population at the regional level clear. However, the dynamics of Barcelona contrast hugely to the north of Catalonia and specially with high mountain zones. There, the problems are just the opposite: population loss and, linked to this, loss of the the smallest villages. This process started in the 30's but it is specially acute now.

Hence we have the legacy of the so-called "centralised model" of development basically based around the industrial and large tourist centres. An important urban network has also developed (see Table 2.4.): 62.06% of the population used to live in cities of more than 10.000 inhabitants in 1960, compared to 80.60% in 1986.

Table 2.1. Catalonia and Spain: total population by sex, 1960-1986.

	1960	1970	1981	1986
SPAIN				
MF	30528539	34041022	37683410	38473331
M	14810135	16641956	18491793	18878072
F	15718404	17399066	19191617	19595259
CATALONIA				
MF	3923968	5107504	5956597	5978633
M	1880009	2486313	2920204	2927882
F	2043959	2621191	3036393	3050751

Source: Population Census and Padrón

Table 2.2. Catalonia and Spain: Variation in total population by sex, 1960-1970, 1970-1981, 1981-1986, 1960-1986, Percentages.

	1960-1970	1970-1981	1981-1986	1960-1986
SPAIN				
MF	11,51	10,70	2,10	26,02
M	12,37	11,12	2,09	27,47
F	10,69	10,30	2,10	24,66
CATALONIA				
MF	30,16	16,62	0,37	52,36
M	32,25	17,45	0,26	55,74
F	28,24	15,84	0,47	49,26

Source: Own elaboration from the Population Census and Padrón

**Table 2.3. Catalonia and Spain: Total population by sex and age groups
1960, 1970, 1981, 1986. Percentages**

	1960			1970		
	0-14	15-64	>64	0-14	15-64	>64
	SPAIN					
MF	25,87	65,91	8,22	27,79	62,54	9,67
M	28,79	64,27	6,94	29,09	62,76	8,15
F	23,11	67,45	9,44	26,55	62,33	11,12
CATALONIA						
MF	23,23	67,2	9,57	25,63	64,5	9,87
M	24,86	66,99	8,15	26,96	64,76	8,28
F	21,73	67,40	10,87	24,35	64,26	11,39
	1981			1986		
	0-14	15-64	>64	0-14	15-64	>64
	SPAIN					
MF	25,70	63,05	11,25	22,47	65,34	12,19
M	26,95	63,73	9,32	23,52	66,41	10,07
F	24,5	62,41	13,09	21,45	64,32	14,23
CATALONIA						
MF	24,92	64,03	11,05	17,38	71,11	11,51
M	26,22	64,70	9,08	16,94	72,96	10,10
F	23,66	63,39	12,95	17,75	69,57	12,68

Source: Own elaboration from the Population Census and Padrón

Table 2.4. Catalonia and Spain: Urban, semi-urban and rural population (MF). 1960, 1970, 1981 and 1986. Percentages

	1960	1970	1981	1986
SPAIN				
	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00
Urban (>10000)	42,88	54,74	62,76	73,86
Semi-Urban (2001 to 10000)	22,66	19,65	17,10	17,91
Rural (<2000)	34,46	25,61	20,14	8,23
CATALONIA				
	100,00	100,00	100,00	100,00
Urban (>10000)	62,06	71,86	76,95	80,60
Semi-Urban (2001 to 10000)	17,44	15,62	13,54	12,75
Rural (<2000)	20,50	12,51	9,51	6,66

Source: Own elaboration from the Population Census and Padrón

Table 2.5. Catalonia and Spain: Demographic indices, 1960-1985

CATALONIA				
	1960	1970	1980	1985
Infant mortality:				
M	36,37	26,02	11,50	9,07
F	28,93	20,71	9,19	7,05
Expectation of life at birth				
M	67,80	69,50	73,80	74,20
F	72,60	74,90	79,50	80,30
Birth rate	17,83	19,20	13,60	9,80a
Total fertility rate	2,23	2,71	1,89	1,36a
Mean age of fertility	29,04	28,87	27,87	28,48
Nuptiality rate	8,00	7,40	5,20	4,90
Mean age at marriage				
M	27,69	26,92	25,54	27,08
F	24,22	22,92	22,50	24,54
SPAIN				
Infant mortality:				
M	49,67	30,00	14,70	12,00
F	39,09	23,21	10,48	8,51
Expectation of life at birth				
M	66,90	69,10	72,30	73,50
F	71,80	74,60	78,60	79,80
Birth rate	21,80	19,60	15,13	10,80a
Total fertility rate	2,76	2,88	2,21	1,47a
Mean age of fertility	20,03b	29,08b	28,83b	–
Nuptiality rate	7,80	7,33	5,88	5,00
Total nuptiality rate				
M	–	1,04c	0,77	0,64
F	–	1,74	0,80	0,65
Mean age at marriage				
M	28,36	27,55	26,13	27,33
F	25,09	23,84	23,33	24,88

Notes:

a: 1987

b: 1960-61, 1970-71, 1980-81

c: 1975

Sources: CED, A. CABRÉ (1989), M. Delgado (1989).

3. FAMILY STRUCTURE

In the first place it should be stressed that the family institution still plays a predominant role in the sphere of personal life in our Catalan and Spanish territory. Women's links to the family are much more intensive, solid and exclusive than men's. Domestic labour is a real handicap to women's participation in the labour market. Instead, the lack of male responsibility towards housework leaves them with free time to sell in the labour market. Hence, it is important to focus on the Spanish and Catalan family features, since they influence women's lives.

In that sense we can look at Table 3.1., where the average size of the household and its distribution by size in Spain and Catalonia appears. We will not pay too much attention to the demographic variables influencing such factors. On the contrary we will analyse the fact that there are similar household size among Spain and Catalonia partly because of the slower fertility levels in Catalonia compared to the whole of Spain; this is an historical feature, since the decrease of fertility happened much earlier in Catalonia than in the rest of the Spanish regions. On the other hand the relative importance of the extended families -which used to be larger- in the overall families is bigger in Catalonia. Anyway a decrease in the household average size occurred in Spain as well as in Catalonia between 1970 and 1981.

If we would like to know real family size, it is much more interesting to analyse household distribution by size, rather than household average size, because the average can lead to misunderstandings. Single households have increased during the last decade in Spain and Catalonia. This matter has a relatively higher relevancy in Spain, due to the single household phenomenon which often appears among the elderly population. Indeed the reason for the frequency of such households is related to the fact that there is a greater proportion of rural and uninhabited regions in Spain. It is important to underline this fact, as that women's life expectancy is higher than men's, therefore, the feminization level of single households is higher and a future rise should be expected. If we look at Graphic 3.2 where the household distribution by category of rural and urban zone appears we can see how the Spanish percentage of single households is 3% higher (in relation to Spain) in the rural zones than in the urban.

Such differences do not appear in Catalonia. The specific behaviour of Barcelona and its hinterland stands out in the statistical data: single households are increasingly common in the large cities. Thus single households could be specially identified either as

an alternative way of life or as a temporary situation due to Job or family reasons. Moreover, it has to be pointed out that households of 5 or more members are more frequent in Spain than in Catalonia (see table 3.1.).

The data for household structure shows most complex families are in Catalonia, even more in rural zones (26% in Catalonia versus 19% in Spain). This is because of the historical tradition of complex families in the Catalan rural regions, based on the ancient link with the legacy of land ownership. Recently, this sort of household appears more often in urban areas too. There is no current data available about family structure. However, we could state that recently the marriage age has been postponed and emancipation from the family occurs much later, in part due to the high cost of housing (bought or rented). Therefore, the current situation accounts for the large number of households with children, since the period of living with the parents is prolonged. Another factor to take into an account is the effect of divorce legislation which, since 1981, has contributed to the growth of single households: In the Census data of 1981 (Table 3.2), single parent households are four times more frequent among women than among men.

In what sense do these facts determine women's lives? In spite of the greater access of women to education, the role of distribution inside the family has not changed too much. In fact, the family is the primary social unit of people's social integration. According to survey undertaken by the Sociological Research Council in 1987 (Ramos Torres, 1990), about the use of time, women still devote an average of six hours daily to housework whereas men have not even reached an average of one hour daily. Data from this research also shows that married men devote less time to housework than single ones and, despite the fact that single women spend half as much time on housework than married women, it is still much more than single men. As a result discrimination increases in marriage. The younger women with higher educational and professional qualifications devote less time to housework, but in any case, all categories of women are discriminated against in relation to comparable male groups. A positive aspect to mention is that men with high education levels have a greater predisposition to housework. In another piece of research undertaken by the Women's Institute in 1987 (Ramos Torres, 1990), it is evident that the average time devoted to housework by urban and rural housewives was similar. Moreover, women within the agricultural sector have to take over other additional tasks characteristic of subsistence economy. These indicators show that there are common guidelines of identity for all women - without considering social differences - which lead them to taking sole responsibility for housework.

If we look at the curve of the women's activity rate we can appreciate how this activity is affected by women's role as housewives. On the contrary the intensity of male activity of all ages, and specially in the central paternity ages, proves the lack of men's

responsibility towards housework. However, we might stress that the increase of women's activity rate in Catalonia during the last years is primarily due to the incorporation of married women in the labour force, although we depart from very low levels of participation. Hence women have acceded to the labour market fulfilling a double role as workers inside and outside the home.

The double - discriminatory - load imposed on working women requires certain remedial actions in the area of education, and must go further than not only equal access (which has been more or less attained). Sex segregation when choosing university courses or professional training programmes (we will go further on this later on) prove there is still work in this direction. It is also evident that at higher education levels the presence of women decreases. For instance, the total female teaching staff in pre-school education (3 to 5 years old) was about 97.24% during the academic year 1986-87 (Instituto de la Mujer, 1988). In this way the traditional women's role is being reproduced indirectly in schools. Another factor preventing women's integration into the labour market is the difficulty of integrating school timetables and holidays with working hours.

A good network of daycare centres can save time for women. This point is highlighted in the Third Programme of Community Action for Equal Opportunities. It is also an essential point in Catalonia now that daycare centres (most of them private) offer sufficient places but cost almost 50% of the minimum professional wage. As a result grandmothers, sisters, aunts, neighbours or friends fill the gaps of this basic service. It is quite obvious that family according to its characteristics and the infrastructure still determines whether or not women can participate in the labour market. The family can act in two ways: as a constraint, if family size is too large and there is no help from older relatives; the family responsibilities must be assumed by mothers, again hindering labour force participation; secondly as a support, so that women combine two roles through help of relatives in housework or childcare.

Table 3.1. Catalonia and Spain: Families by size of household, 1970 and 1981.

	Family members (%)						Average size Household
	1	2	3	4	5	>5	
1970							
SPAIN	7,46	18,04	19,22	21,78	15,45	18,05	3,8
CATALONIA	6,42	18,08	21,68	23,22	15,37	15,23	3,7
1981							
SPAIN	10,25	21,35	19,78	22,20	13,80	12,62	3,5
CATALONIA	9,88	22,87	21,69	23,32	12,81	9,44	3,3

Source: Own elaboration from the Population Census

Table 3.2. Catalonia and Spain: population by types of household, 1981

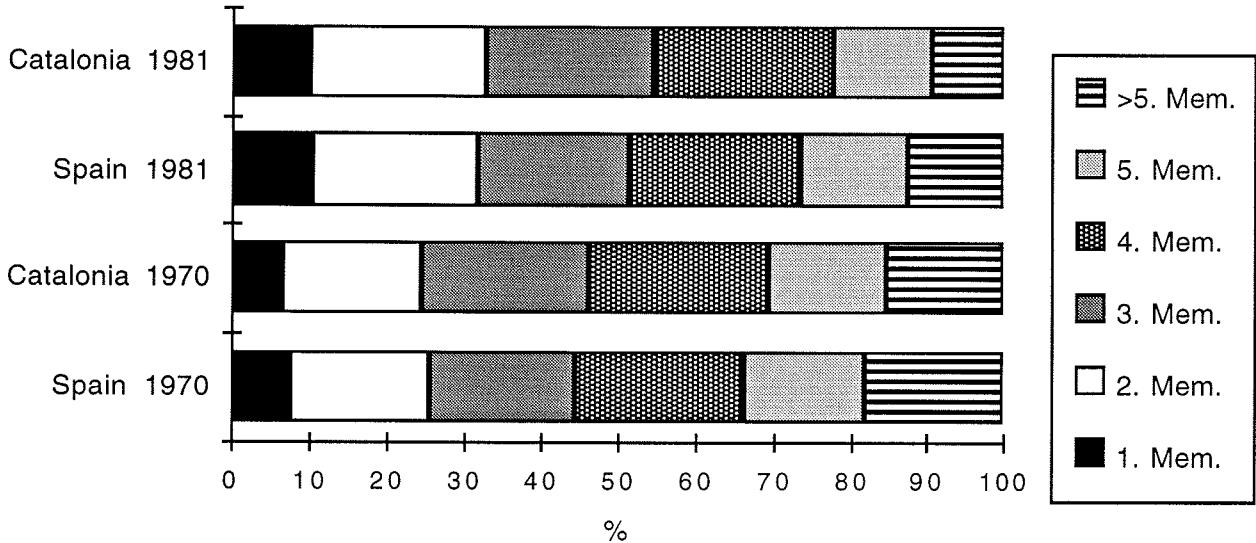
	Total Population	One-pers. Househ.	Non-family Household	One-nucleus Household				
				Total	A	B	C	D
CATALONIA	5918926	170789	129357	4238070	600574	3408040	38494	190962
SPAIN	37300618	1075755	790032	27235094	3311766	22288646	286275	1348407
	%							
CATALONIA	100	2.89	2.19	71.60	10.15	57.58	0.65	3.23
SPAIN	100	2.88	2.12	73.02	8.88	59.75	0.77	3.61
				Extended (ine-ucleus with others)		Multiple		
	Total	E	F	G	H			
CATALONIA								
SPAIN	1034885	151486	788981	23564	70854	345825		
	6004909	739257	4650279	134873	480500	2194828		
CATALONIA								
SPAIN	17.48	2.56	13.33	0.40	1.20	5.84		
	16.10	1.98	12.47	0.36	1.29	5.88		

*Note:

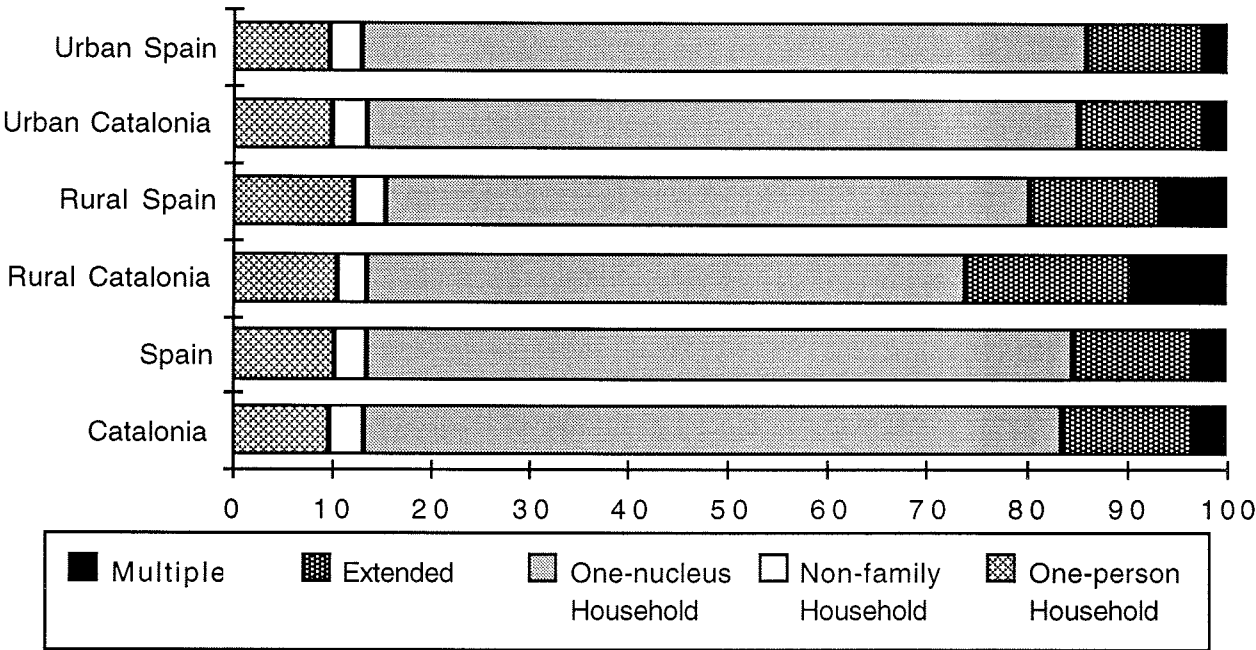
- | | |
|---|--|
| A) Couples without single children without others | E) Couples without single children with others |
| B) Couples with single children without others | F) Couples with single children with others |
| C) Single father with children without others | G) Single father with children with others |
| D) Single mother with children without others | H) Single mother with children with others |

Source: Own elaboration from the Population Census

Graphic 3.1. Catalonia and Spain: Family distribution by size. 1970, 1981.



Graphic 3.2. Catalonia and Spain: Household distribution by areas. 1981



Source: Table 3.1 and 3.2

4. SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE

The provision of social services has been developed quite late with regard to other European countries. In fact one can describe the welfare state in our country as being incipient, until the first socialist government in 1982. In this section, we will comment on the main aspects of the social infrastructure, which would specifically affect women's lives.

4.1. Family Planning Centres. Abortions.

Family Planning Centres are quite recent institutions in Spain as the production, distribution and advertisement of contraception was forbidden until 1978. As a result of such "pronatalist" policies during Franco's dictatorship resources for the supply of any health centre were lower than the demand. Later on, the new act (1983) legalised sterilisation methods and the 1985 act legalised abortion in three concrete cases (eugenic, therapeutic and ethical). The lack of services - after these acts were passed - prompted many Local and regional feminist associations setting up family planning centres all over the country. Family Planning Centres, a private initiative at the beginning of the 70's, promoted later by town councils. Therefore their integration within the primary health care of social security - as it has been suggested by the O.M.S. - is very recent.

The capacity of family planning service in 1985 did not meet demand. According to Fertility Survey on fertility only 36.8% of women between 18 and 49 years of age used this service; of this 5.7 went to Public Centres, 10.1 to the Social Security and 19.3 to the Private Centres. In Catalonia as well, from the overall percentage of 48.6% women who required this service, only 6.6 went to the Public Centres, 8.5 to the Social Security and 30.9 to the Private Centres. Most Family Planning Centres are private, which means a clear constraint for women with low incomes. Also from the point of view of the users, the attention received was not very good: 69.4% in Spain and 69.2% in Catalonia considered they were not well cared for.

Without any doubt there must be greater development of the Family Planning network, as well as an improvement in the attention received, the coverage and costs. All these changes will make the services more accessible to greater numbers of the female

population. Above all we should focus our attention on future potential users in, by providing sex education and precise information on preventing sexually transmitted diseases, and unwanted pregnancy by modern contraception. Moreover, it is worth noting too that there is little tradition of women attending these centres. This may be possibly the lack of information of its advantages. There should be educational campaign to change these attitudes.

Availability of contraception is not a problem at all in Catalonia: about 47% of the fertile females have used them; otherwise abortion is rather a matter of polemic: so far, there are no reliable statistics about it, due to the fact that most abortions are practiced illegally or abroad. A general research, roughly accepted by the developed countries, is that voluntary abortion ranges between 10 and 18% of the total yearly live births. Hence the number of voluntary abortions can be estimated between 42,110 and 75,800 at the national level and between 5,890 and 10,590 at the regional level of Catalonia. Very different figures are available from the Health Department relating to legal abortions foreseen by the Law (see Table 3.1) Abortion is only permitted in the following cases: firstly when the mothers' life or health is at risk (therapeutic abortion), secondly when the pregnancy is caused by rape (ethical abortion) and thirdly when it is expected that the foetus will be born physically or mentally handicapped (eugenic abortion).

According to the current data available about legal abortion in Catalonia in 1990, the general profile of women requesting service lawfully is as follows: (a) most are women between 20 and 29 years old, (b) they are mostly single women, followed by the married ones, (c) most have average educational level and (d) they are often unemployed. However, we would need to know more about women requiring illegal abortion, such data ensuring a real evaluation of the problem.

As well as the narrow confines of the Abortion Law, there are constraints imposed by doctors and lawyers, according to their interpretation of the Law. They can be supported by the "conscience objection" right. In fact, the Abortion Law has not satisfied any social or political wing, left or right. While the Left considers that the Law is too restrictive, the Right together with the Catholic Church, does not accept it at all. Anyway, most abortions are illegal or based on these three assumptions. This works against women, who have to seek "backstreet" clandestine abortions under unhygienic conditions. In other cases, if women can afford it, they can go abroad. As a result, there are Social Security Hospitals allowed to carry out abortions, but where it is very difficult to do so owing to the shortage of professionals trained in abortion matters.

Without any doubt the Abortion Law is based on very restricted assumptions, as women are unable to make a choice about their own body or their physical and mental

health, in complete freedom. In any case they are only able to ask for an abortion on grounds which are difficult to prove. One such instance cites the risk to the "mental health of the mother". Such an ambiguity can lead to the non-observance of the Law by some public health institutions. Therefore the recent Abortion Law has not solved the problem of clandestine abortions.

4.2. Health services for disabled and elderly people.

We will devote this section to all these sort of services that independently of their capacity and access - can contribute to reduce directly or indirectly the "additional burden of work" for those women who have to take care of disabled or elderly people. These women carry out a work load seldom recognised and a basic task for the whole society. This section will basically focus on three population sectors: the diseased, the disabled and the elderly.

First of all it must be pointed out that most of the health services are private, even in such important aspects as the number of beds or hospital centres. Therefore, in spite of the Social Security guarantee for basic services, these do not match recent demand. We can observe, looking at the data in Table 3.3. that there were 4.8 beds per 1000 inhabitants in Catalonia in 1988, unevenly distributed between private and public supply (1.7 versus 3.1 respectively). At the same time 78.4% of the hospital centres and 63.6% of the available beds in Catalonia are private. The geographical distribution of the basic services is also uneven. Once again, these services are basically concentrated in the large cities, to the detriment of the surrounding areas.

The same happens with rehabilitation centres, most of them being located in the most important population centres and 78.5% being related to private associations in 1990. The ownership differences are even more acute in these services. There were 123 day centres and 54 residences for the disabled for the whole of Catalonia in 1990, from which more than three out of four were private. Under such conditions few families can afford to enjoy them. The handicaps can be either due to the reduced supply - mainly in residences for the disabled or to the unreasonable price. In all cases the responsibility for their daily care falls on some female member of the family.

Concerning the health services available to the elderly population, there were 706 centres in Catalonia in 1990, from which 57% were day centres and 43% residential. There is a limited supply of public rather than private daycare centres and a greater number of private rather than public residences. Generally speaking there are less than 50 people per residence, which is the maximum recommended by specialists. Nevertheless a lot of the

private institutions have a capacity of less than 10 people. The possibilities of having access are even more reduced, if we take into account that these institutions would not accept an elderly person with a serious physical mental illness. Hospitals do not accept them either, because of the permanent occupation of beds.

The Social Welfare Department (Catalan Autonomous body which governs public and private institutions offering social services to the population) has undertaken very important research to investigate thoroughly the problems of the elderly population. From this we can grasp the worries and shortages that they face. They stress that the main shortages are the following: residential units (92.5%), hospitals (90%), recreational and social houses for elderly (55%) and day centres (52.5%). From this data we can conclude that there is an important deficit of basic services. This is a cause of concern for the elderly, given the recent ageing of the population and its future growth in the society. Hence there must be actions to enhance the supply of nonprivate services and increase their coverage. A most important point here is the re-evaluation of the role played by the elderly population within society, abandoning their classic reputation as being an additional burden.

4.3. Nurseries

It has been officially recognized that pre-school education is a very important stage in a child's life. Nevertheless, there are very few public centres for children under two years old in Spain. Moreover there is no reliable data on the total number of centres and the existing ones concentrate on the social service of child care rather than on education.

Most of the daycare centres are private in Catalonia. So far there are only 40 public daycare centres in Catalonia and, unfortunately, 70% are concentrated in the province of Barcelona. Accordingly, the Education Department has recently undertaken a Re-examination Plan and homogenisation of the private centres. This plan will define the qualification of the skilled staff according the children's age, as well as the proper educational scheme to be adopted by the institutions. The regulations have been applied very recently, and private institutions have two years to implement it. Because of this, precise data about the number of private daycare centres is not actually available. This matter presents a real constraint for the social development of women, since there are few options to resort to in the public sphere. Nowadays there are few enterprises which provide daycare centres for their staff during work time. In any case, only the largest enterprises can afford this initiative. The productive structure of Catalonia is based on small and medium enterprises which do not have enough capital to finance it.

In such a climate, a major qualitative control of supply and demand by the Ministry of Education is urgently needed, in order to plan the distribution of education and its enlargement in the public sphere. The Government must promote the expansion of the daycare centre network and improve the geographical distribution in the municipalities. These two actions would facilitate access of couples to the infrastructure at the workplace and home, thus facilitating equal responsibility for children.

4.4. Pre-school and Primary Education

According to the educational reform in 1990 the educational period starts when the child is born. However, this does not mean that it is free of charge. It is divided between pre-school and primary education (EGB). Pre-school is optional and includes children up to 6 years old. It is divided into two stages: first cycle of the infant school ("Llar d'Infants"), from 0 to 3 years old and second cycle of the infants school ("Pàrvuls") from 3 to 5 years old. Primary education is compulsory (EGB) and covers children from 6 to 14 years approximately.

Primary centres can belong to the State or Autonomous Administration or to private institutions such as churches or other institutions, territorial administrations or private enterprises. The supply of the pre-school centres is mainly private as is the case with supplementary assistance services. During the academic year 1985-86 about 90% of the total physical infrastructure available was private in Catalonia and 56% at the national level. There is a higher number of teaching staff working in public pre-schools (53% in Catalonia and 65% in Spain). This is in line with the smaller number of students per teacher (26 in the public versus 28 in the private schools in Catalonia, and 27 in public versus 31 in private schools in Spain) (see Table 3.4). In fact, a year ago there was a tendency to enroll children in private schools, basically because of the social status. At the same time and by the same logic, these schools were rather overcrowded and the educational quality was not so good. The situation changed during the democratic period, when major investments were devoted to public education. Nowadays the resources and conditions of the schools are rather favourable to the public sector: cheaper and less overcrowded. Anyway, the total number of pupils registered in pre-school education is a clear sign of the low take-up: there were only 12.7% of children registered at this level in Catalonia and 9.4% in Spain. Evidently not much attention has been paid either to children's pre-school education nor to options for women to solve the deficit.

Nevertheless there has recently been a great advance on these issues. The Law for the Education System (LOGSE, 1990) recognises the huge importance of children's

education in the first two years of life. On the other hand, there are fewer differences in the primary school among private and public units, basically due to the fact that this education is compulsory and free of charge. In Catalonia alone, 58.5% of the units belong to the state administration, although this number is below the national average of 69.7% (see Table 4.5.). Consequently there was greater number of children, more teaching staff and a smaller number of pupils per teacher in public schools during the academic year 1985-86.

It is worth noting too that children's education falls mainly on women (see data from Table 4.4. and 4.5. about the female teaching staff), a fact that makes us consider the role played by men in the future development of children's education. The predominance of women in the earliest stages of children's lives continues the traditional role of women looking after the youngest and oldest members of the family.

Table 4.1. Legal abortion in Catalonia, 1990.

Abortion by age group			Abortion by marital status		
	Total	%		Total	%
-15	3	0.00			
15-19	829	10.60	Single	3929	50.10
20-24	2039	26.00	Married	3215	41.00
25-29	1702	21.70	Widow	54	0.70
30-34	1515	19.30	Divorced	138	1.80
35-39	1143	14.60	Separated	493	6.30
40-44	548	7.00	N.S.	9	0.10
45 e +	59	0.80	Total	7838	100.00
Total	7838	100.00			

Abortion by education level			Abortion by professional status of women		
	Total	%		Total	%
Illiterate	44	0.56	Employers	158	2.00
No studies	129	1.65	Professional	466	5.90
First degree	1227	15.65	Employees	4202	53.60
2.Degree 1.cycle	2776	35.42	Pensioner	23	0.30
2.Degree 2.cycle	2249	28.69	Students	806	10.30
Technical	794	10.13	Unemployed	596	7.60
University	599	7.64	Housewives	1500	19.10
Others	17	0.22	Others	86	1.10
N.S.	3	0.04	N.S	1	0.00
Total	7838	100.00	Total	7838	100.00

Source: Information supplied by Departament de Sanitat de la Generalitat de Catalunya

Table 4.2. Catalonia and Spain: Movement of hospitals, 1985

	CATALONIA	SPAIN
No. of Hospitalary's Centers	176	893
No. of beds	29050	181985
Beds per 1000 inha.	4.80	4.70

Source: Anuari Estadístic de Catalunya 1988, Consorci D'Informació i Documentació de Catalunya, 1989.

Table 4.3. Catalonia: Movement of hospitals, 1988

	TOTAL	PUBLIC	PRIVATE
No. of Hospitalary's Centers	167	36	131
No. of beds	29094	10601	18493
Beds per 1000 inha.	4.80	1.70	3.10

Source: Anuari Estadístic de Catalunya 1989, Consorci D'Informació i Documentació de Catalunya, 1990.

Table 4.4. Catalonia and Spain: Pre-school Education. 1985/86

	C A T A L O N I A			S P A I N		
	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
Pre-school Centers	361	9.97%	90.03%	3102	44.55%	55.55%
Pre-school Teaching staff	6805	3622	3183	39573	25648	13925
Percentage of male teaching staff	2.76%	3.87%	1.51%	7.20%	7.93%	5.86%
Percentage of female teaching staff	97.24%	96.13%	98.49%	92.80%	92.07%	94.14%
Average pupils per staff	27	26	28	28	27	31
	Total	Jardín de Infancia*	Parvulario**	Total	Jardín de Infancia	Parvulario
Pupil's registration	181924	23130	158794	1127348	106216	1021132
Percentage of pupil's registration in each center	100.00%	12.71%	87.29%	100.00%	9.42%	90.58%
Boys percentage	50.83%	50.71%	50.85%	50.69%	51.03%	50.66%
Girls percentage	49.17%	49.29%	49.15%	49.31%	48.97%	49.34%
Pupil's registration in Public Centers	94162	1590	92572	702057	17648	684409
Percentage of pupil's registration in each center	100.00%	1.69%	98.31%	100.00%	2.51%	97.49%
Boys percentage	52.45%	53.08%	52.44%	52.70%	53.14%	52.69%
Girls percentage	47.55%	46.92%	47.56%	47.30%	46.86%	47.31%
Pupil's registration in Private Centers	87762	21540	66222	425291	88568	336723
Percentage of pupil's registration in each center	100.00%	24.54%	75.46%	100.00%	20.83%	79.17%
Boys percentage	49.09%	50.53%	48.62%	47.38%	50.61%	46.53%
Girls percentage	50.91%	49.47%	51.38%	52.62%	49.39%	53.47%

* Pre-school education for children of 2 and 3 years old.

** Pre-school education for children of 4 and 5 years old.

Sources: Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles no Universitarios. 1985/1986. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. Madrid. 1988.

Table 4.5. Catalonia and Spain: General Basic Education *. 1985/86

	CATALONIA			SPAIN		
	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
School Centres	27855	58.54%	41.46%	186389	69.67%	30.33%
School Teaching staff	27927	16306	11621	193445	131950	61495
Percentage of male teaching staff	30.01%	30.57%	29.24%	37.90%	40.04%	33.31%
Percentage of female teaching staff	69.99%	69.43%	70.76%	62.10%	59.96%	66.69%
Pupil's registration	840844	453691	387153	5594285	3621238	1973047
Percentage of pupil's registration in each center	100.00%	53.96%	46.04%	100.00%	64.73%	35.27%
Boys percentage	51.31%	53.14%	49.17%	51.61%	53.58%	47.98%
Girls percentage	48.69%	46.86%	50.83%	48.39%	46.42%	52.02%
Average pupils per staff	30	28	33	29	27	32

* For children from 6 to 13 years old.

Sources: Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles no Universitarios. 1985/1986.
Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. Madrid. 1988.

5. EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Before starting with the analysis we considered it necessary to present briefly both the Spanish and Catalan educational systems in order to clarify the following explanations. The **educational system** is roughly as follows:

1. **Primary School:** This is divided into **first cycle of infant school** (here called "Llar d'Infants") from 0 to 3 years old and the **second cycle of infant school** (here called "Pàrvuls") from 3 to 6 years old.

2. **First Degree:** In Spain it is called the Basic General Education (here known as EGB). It is both a compulsory study and completely tax free (from 6 to 13 years old). It consists of two cycles: the first has five academic courses and the second one has three academic courses.

3. **Second Degree:** This level is optional and the students are between fourteen and seventeen. They have also to choose between two options.

3.1. If they pass the EGB exams and thereby obtaining the Scholarship Graduation, they are allowed access to the **High School** (here called "Batxillerat Unificat Polivalent" BUP), which lasts three years. The aim is to train students to go later to University or to the second cycle of the Training Institute (FP).

3.2. If they do not pass the EGB final exam they obtain just the Scholarship Certificate. They can only have access to the **Training Institute** (here called "Institut de Formació Professional" FP), which is divided in two cycles: five years and then two years. The aim is to give professional training according to labour market requirements and also to give students a broader general culture. Students from High School can also have access to the Training Institute's second cycle.

3.3. **University Training courses** (here known as COU): It consists of one year's study. It can be followed by the students from High School (BUP) or the Training Institute second cycle (FP).

4. **Third Degree:** Accessible to students coming from the University Training Course (COU) and students over 25 years old. Students coming from the TI second cycle certificate can only have access to **Universities** related to their training studies, which are basically Schools or **Technical Universities**. This level is also divided to three cycles as follows:

4.1. **First cycle:** University Faculties, Technical Schools and School Universities. These are devoted to the study of basic disciplines and consist of three years' study.

4.2. **Second Cycle** University Faculties and Technical Schools. At this level the main aim is to gain concrete specialisation as a future researcher or teacher.

4.3. **Third Cycle:** These are the courses preceding a Ph.D.

Likewise we should highlight the recent changes of the Education Reform (LOGSE,1990). The admission age to the first cycle of public infants schools (Llars d'Infants") has been moved a year forward; children of three years old are now accepted. Such a change can be considered a great success for working mothers. Moreover, compulsory education has been extended to include sixteen year olds (legal working age). This is a really positive target, in the sense that it will fill the gap between the end of compulsory education and the beginning of the legal working age.

5.1. Women's situation within the educational pyramid

At this point we can already make some comments about women's participation in the educational pyramid. As far as educational rates are concerned, their situation is quite similar to that of men, but there are still differences among specialisations and group age behaviour.

First of all if we compare the past and the present situation we reach a really Positive conclusion: women's participation frequency has increased enormously within all educational levels during the last few decades. This can be proved by looking at the age structure of women participating in the education system and the differences by sex (Tables 5.t. and 5.2 for Catalonia and Spain). We can also appreciate the effect of the discriminatory traditional model of education, which was in operation for decades. This model is responsible for women's constraints in education. These constraints account for the differences between education rates by sex in the older age bracket of the pyramid which have always been favourable for men. The new General Educational Law established a legislation reform in 1970, which was very important since it promoted mixed education

and homogeneity for girls and boys up to their thirteenth year. Current legislation dates back to 1990 (LOGSE).

The recent situation is clear if one looks at Table 5.1 and 5.2. showing the population data by educational level in Catalonia and Spain from 1986. Starting from the base, namely the lowest pyramid level represented by **illiterate people**, we find that women make up 4.42% of the overall population as opposed to 2.02% of illiterate males in Catalonia in 1986. Differences are much greater by age bracket, simply because of the generation effect of those people unable to attend any school at all. We have mentioned the generation effect, but the differences by sex are also a clear sign of the discriminatory traditional educational model set out above. With regard to the population **without education**, it is worth noting too that there was a slightly higher number of women (34.63%) than men (30.60%) in Catalonia in 1986 as was the case in Spain 1986.

The analysis concerning the first degree does not warrant investigation. Nowadays we can clearly state that access to education is equal for girls and boys. However, the more striking differences take place once they have finished their first degree. In the **second degree**, two characteristics can be pointed out. The first one would prove the hypothesis set out above, which was that women's participation has increased enormously at all educational levels. For instance, if we look at the age bracket of 35-44 and 20-24, the proportion of women's participation has risen from 21.76% to 68.99% respectively. For the same age bracket male participation has increased from 27.15% to 69.65% respectively. This means that women born between 1942 and 1966 had entered into secondary education 4.73% more than men. The second one would prove the hypothesis that there are great differences by sex in relation to the specialisation chosen. For instance, women appear overestimated at the **Training Institute** just within the specialisations socially considered as "female field". If we look at the latest information about the percentage of women who obtained the first cycle of the Training Institute Certificate by specialisations in Spain during the academic year 1984-85 we find the following distribution ("La presencia de las mujeres en el sistema educativo", 1986): baby care 98% women, hairdressers 92%, health 90%, and administration 73%. In spite of that, there is a major tendency to gain greater diversification during the later years. According to an "Instituto de la Mujer" survey from 1991 ("La mujer en cifras", 1991) the percentage of women choosing the classic "female specialisations" within the Training Institutes has decreased.

Finally the number of women in the age bracket 35-44 reaching the **third degree** or university level, was about 13.24% in Catalonia compared to 12.34% in Spain in 1986. At this stage we can also prove how women's integration within the University has increased. Thus there were 7.38% of women in the age bracket 35-44 compared to the

13.34% in the younger age bracket 25-34 years old in Catalonia in 1986, which means an increase of 5.86%. If the same comparisons done with men, we observe an increase of 1.19%. Therefore we can see the huge participation of women in university studies. In another way, if we take into account the age bracket 25-34 years old, the percentage of population within the university is greater for men than for women (by 1.22%). The reason behind this is that men followed longer university studies, than women who chose shorter ones (third degree in three years). According to the Spanish data from the academic year 1986-87, about 55% of students who finished the University were women (percentage of women above the overall students), 64.68% at the University School and only 13.48% at the Superior Technical School. Inside the Technical Schools women are less represented in the following specialisations: 12.74% in architecture and technical engineering and 48.33% in business studies. Therefore they appear under-represented in the specializations which most favoured the access to the labour force, and what is more importantly to higher wages and socioprofessional prestige. This is one of the aspects which explains the greater unemployment rate among university women. The reason why women make such a choice by specialisations lies behind the socialisation process in their education, although this is not a matter for elaboration in this report.

In brief, women's participation in the educational pyramid has improved almost reaching parity with men. Recently they have been outnumbering the men in High School and University Training Courses. Despite that, there is still substantial sex segregation at the specialisation stage.

5.2. Vocational training

One of the ways to achieve women's integration in the labour market is through the known **training policies**. Such policies will try to fulfil a **professional profile** for less favoured women or to provide them with concrete training courses according to market needs. These programmes have become quite popular during the last few years in Catalonia and, so far, the evaluation is positive, although there is still a long way to go .

The main official body concerning vocational training is the national plan called FIP (Training and Professional Insertion Plan, here known as "Plan Nacional de Formació i Inserció Professional") established in 1985. The main goal is to adapt vocational training to the needs of workers and businesses. Before the Economic and Social Deal (AES, 1984) was signed, vocational and occupational training was unsatisfactory from the point of view of the Spanish Employment Ministry, (a) because too few were involved, (b) it was not geared to new technologies and (c) it did not fulfil new occupational requirements.

These deficiencies led to the signature of the AES (1984) and the implementation of the Training and Professional Insertion Plan (Plan FIP) in 1985. The plan is basically aimed at groups with special difficulties looking for work. It is based on the following programmes.

1. young unemployment people
2. alternative recuperation studies for students and people carrying out military service,
3. occupational training courses in the rural environment,
4. occupational training courses for industrial restructuring and occupational recycling.
5. occupational training plan to promote the professional insertion and re-insertion of women and
6. special programmes for marginal groups or with special integration difficulties in the labour market.

These programmes can apply to our region. Occupational Training Courses are managed by different institutions, sometimes in cooperation with private enterprises. Normally, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, through the **Institute of National Employment (INEM)**, develops the programmes related to FIP principles. In addition, some of the programmes follow the recommendations of the Woman's Institute (Catalan Woman's Institute was set up in Barcelona in 1990. It is an official organisation belonging to the Autonomous Government. This institute together with the Local Employment Offices are the main organisations which encourage women to take the training courses). The INEM of Barcelona should be stressed as it has undertaken the greatest number of training courses.

Also worthy of note is the work done by the "Instituto de la Mujer" through the Equal Opportunities Plan (1988-89) promoting goal number 5 (promotion of professional insertion and re-insertion of women in the labour market) and dealing with cooperation agreements among various Ministries. For example, both institutions: INEM and "Instituto de la Mujer" maintain also a deal through the experimental programme of occupational training for single family mothers (1989-1990). The deal was established: the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Ministry of Social Affairs in April 1989 and it is under FIP control. Since the Plan there has been large increase of women's participation in training courses. The number of women trained in 1984 -Just at the beginning of the Plan - made up only 29.4% of the total, it reached 51% in 1988.

As for geographical distribution of training programmes, Catalonia together with Andalusia and Madrid, have polarised more than half of all-women courses. Furthermore this tendency of polarisation has declined (50.2% in 1986 to 47.4% in 1988). The territorial concentration is related to the demographic importance of the region and its active population. 40,000 people were involved in training courses (15% of the total) in Catalonia 1988. This means a participation rate of 16.9% per 1,000 active persons. It should also be added that people involved in the workshops schools ("Escoles Taller") and professional institutions ("Cases d'Ofici") are part of the programmes designed to combat youth unemployment (13,101 people from January to May in Catalonia 1989).

Particularly with respect to specific groups of women, design of the training and occupational programmes starts with analysis of the causes that push women to choose housework instead of entering the labour market. The FIP action is at two levels: occupational level and at training level where efforts and resources are concentrated. Training is undertaken through technical instruction and the availability of instruments and methodologies necessary to achieve a certain level of self-reliance and self-respect. Currently, the main programme is aimed at single parent mothers.

From the concrete programmes carried out and those still running we can mention for instance:

- Programmes aimed to **women as single parents in 1990**, which has been applied through 57 courses throughout the Catalan territory. It involved about 235 women.
- Permanent educational plans aimed at **adult women** (PEPA). The goal is to reinforce vocational training within the economic areas where women are less integrated.
- Experimental programmes assigned by **the long-term unemployment** of women to lead them to the labour market. This programme springs from the agreement between the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Ministry of Social Affaires in 1990.

Moreover we should underline the work done by the Catalan Woman's Institute. It is responsible for the design of programmes according to the up-to-date demands generated in the labour market for workers and students. There were 118 courses Just during 1989. The financial funding could come from the **Local Administration, Autonomous Government** or the **European Social Fund**. Because of the Catalan rank (no priority region, category 7 type 5b) it received subsidies only for the 45% of the total cost. The remaining 55% come from other administrations set out above. So far, their policy has been based on concrete points

such as: short training courses (200-400 hours) organised with a reduced number of assistance (average of 15), vocational training focused on the new technologies, recycling courses and re-insertion (*retravailler*). The latter is quite important in the sense that it promotes the insertion of long-term unemployed women in the labour market by psychological preparation. It is thought that women must follow a motivation course (about 150 hours) preliminary to vocational training courses. Other longer courses are the innovative (2 years) and the transnational ones, which are basically aimed to qualify women further.

Likewise we would like to make a comment about the overall evaluation of training courses in Catalonia. On the one hand, the available data on current courses designed for women alone shows an amount of 8,929 people in 1990. This data does not include any other mixed programme where women have been involved which makes it a really difficult task to study. On the other hand, we would like to stress the unequal territorial distribution of the courses. The elements in favour of organising them take into an account: the dynamics of population centres, the disposition of economic and human resources and the relative importance of its population. As a result most of the programmes are undertaken in Barcelona and its hinterland. There is also an unequal distribution throughout the Spanish territory, where the Autonomous Community of Madrid, the Autonomous Community of Andalusia together with the already mentioned Barcelona concentrated the majority of the programmes. However, the main criticism should be of its follow-up. There is real financial control, but there is no report about coverage and women's success in the labour market re-insertion.

Table 5.1. Percentage of population according to their education level. Catalonia. 1986

Women											
Age	Illiterate	No studies	First degree	2.Degree 1.cycle	2.Degree 2.cycle	Technical	University	Ph. D.	Unknown	Total	Total
10-14											
15-19	1.08	81.03	7.15	9.41	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.33	100.00	245252
20-24	0.50	4.76	19.56	43.83	30.34	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.01	100.00	236364
25-34	0.57	5.16	18.28	25.72	43.27	4.10	1.82	0.00	1.07	100.00	230990
35-44	0.80	12.64	33.74	20.78	17.42	6.64	6.48	0.12	1.39	100.00	430164
45-54	2.17	27.87	39.00	13.78	7.98	4.09	3.21	0.08	1.82	100.00	390638
55-64	5.86	41.20	33.82	8.14	5.32	2.50	1.39	0.03	1.75	100.00	350625
65 e +	7.06	46.94	32.06	5.43	4.02	1.97	0.81	0.03	1.68	100.00	348689
Total	12.64	52.65	25.04	3.26	2.56	1.63	0.55	0.01	1.67	100.00	443139
	4.42	34.63	27.83	14.62	12.03	2.87	2.05	0.04	1.52	100.00	2675861
Men											
Age	Illiterate	No studies	First degree	2.Degree 1.cycle	2.Degree 2.cycle	Technical	University	Ph. D.	Unknown	Total	Total
10-14											
15-19	1.13	81.26	7.60	8.79	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.22	100.00	260464
20-24	0.58	5.45	22.02	42.49	28.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.17	100.00	248031
25-34	0.62	5.45	19.76	27.67	41.98	1.85	1.43	0.00	1.24	100.00	238883
35-44	0.71	10.02	30.52	21.20	23.66	4.38	7.70	0.19	1.64	100.00	430267
45-54	1.15	21.85	37.14	13.72	13.43	4.89	5.96	0.23	1.63	100.00	390707
55-64	2.75	37.14	33.38	8.92	8.98	3.24	3.66	0.23	1.71	100.00	346222
65 e +	3.70	42.68	32.71	6.42	7.19	2.44	2.99	0.17	1.68	100.00	321008
Total	5.52	48.15	28.58	4.74	6.11	2.12	2.89	0.17	1.71	100.00	295886
	2.02	30.60	27.78	15.99	15.68	2.67	3.58	0.14	1.53	100.00	2531468
Women+Men											
Age	Illiterate	No studies	First degree	2.Degree 1.cycle	2.Degree 2.cycle	Technical	University	Ph. D.	Unknown	Total	Total
10-14											
15-19	1.11	81.15	7.38	9.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.27	100.00	505716
20-24	0.54	5.11	20.82	43.14	29.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.09	100.00	484395
25-34	0.59	5.31	19.03	26.71	42.62	2.96	1.62	0.00	1.16	100.00	469873
35-44	0.75	11.33	32.13	20.99	20.54	5.51	7.09	0.15	1.51	100.00	860431
45-54	1.66	24.86	38.07	13.75	10.71	4.49	4.59	0.16	1.72	100.00	781345
55-64	4.32	39.18	33.60	8.53	7.13	2.87	2.52	0.13	1.73	100.00	696847
65 e +	5.45	44.90	32.37	5.90	5.54	2.20	1.85	0.10	1.68	100.00	669697
Total	9.79	50.85	26.46	3.85	3.98	1.83	1.48	0.08	1.69	100.00	739025
	3.25	32.67	27.81	15.28	13.80	2.78	2.79	0.09	1.52	100.00	5207329

Surces: Own elaboration from de Padron Municipal de Habitantes

Table 5.2. Percentage of Population according to their education level. Spain, 1986.

Women											
Age	Illiterate	No studies	First degree	2.Degree 1.cycle	2.Degree 2.cycle	Technical	University	Ph. D.	Unknow n	Total	Total
10-14	0.88	84.14	3.68	8.75	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.55	100.00	1602047
15-19	0.59	13.03	16.56	46.80	21.31	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.70	100.00	1604505
20-24	0.72	11.99	17.97	27.36	35.23	3.91	1.63	0.00	1.18	100.00	1573898
25-34	1.07	19.50	31.86	17.91	16.12	6.83	5.77	0.14	0.81	100.00	2712058
35-44	2.42	35.28	36.37	11.19	6.93	4.44	2.48	0.10	0.79	100.00	2343747
45-54	6.49	48.19	31.04	5.93	4.04	2.52	1.02	0.04	0.73	100.00	2203728
55-64	8.38	53.11	28.31	3.94	3.07	1.85	0.62	0.03	0.69	100.00	2164766
65 e +	16.83	54.84	21.63	2.26	1.73	1.57	0.41	0.02	0.72	100.00	2788437
Total	5.38	40.27	24.86	13.82	10.00	2.88	1.69	0.05	1.05	100.00	16993186
Men											
Age	Illiterate	No studies	First degree	2.Degree 1.cycle	2.Degree 2.cycle	Technical	University	Ph. D.	Unknow n	Total	Total
10-14	0.92	84.73	3.82	8.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.53	100.00	1687075
15-19	0.64	14.54	18.71	44.50	19.84	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.77	100.00	1674772
20-24	0.69	12.75	19.91	28.19	34.12	1.78	1.29	0.00	1.26	100.00	1631882
25-34	0.87	17.31	29.98	17.89	20.96	4.77	7.06	0.25	0.93	100.00	2752543
35-44	1.29	29.72	34.46	11.22	11.98	4.81	5.36	0.32	0.84	100.00	2344643
45-54	2.93	45.22	30.58	6.54	7.40	2.88	3.39	0.30	0.76	100.00	2135115
55-64	4.22	51.61	28.37	4.52	5.42	2.05	2.84	0.26	0.71	100.00	1998367
65 e +	7.22	56.42	23.66	3.10	4.14	1.88	2.66	0.22	0.70	100.00	1900972
Total	2.33	37.98	24.84	14.79	12.97	2.55	3.23	0.19	1.13	100.00	16125369
Women+Men											
Age	Illiterate	No studies	First degree	2.Degree 1.cycle	2.Degree 2.cycle	Technical	University	Ph. D.	Unknow n	Total	Total
10-14	0.90	84.44	3.75	8.37	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.54	100.00	3289122
15-19	0.62	13.80	17.66	45.63	20.56	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.74	100.00	3279277
20-24	0.70	12.38	18.95	27.79	34.67	2.83	1.46	0.00	1.23	100.00	3205780
25-34	0.97	18.40	30.91	17.90	18.56	5.79	6.42	0.19	0.87	100.00	5464601
35-44	1.86	32.50	35.42	11.20	9.45	4.63	3.92	0.21	0.81	100.00	4688390
45-54	4.74	46.73	30.82	6.23	5.69	2.70	2.19	0.17	0.74	100.00	4338843
55-64	6.38	52.39	28.34	4.21	4.20	1.95	1.69	0.14	0.70	100.00	4163133
65 e +	12.93	55.48	22.45	2.60	2.70	1.69	1.32	0.10	0.71	100.00	4689409
Total	3.90	39.15	24.85	14.29	11.45	2.72	2.44	0.12	1.09	100.00	33118555

Surces: Own elaboration from de Padron Municipal de Habitantes

6. EMPLOYMENT

6.1. Female activity level in Catalonia and Spain.

Female activity level has been historically higher in Catalonia and other regions of the north than in the rest of Spain. Two main facts favour women's participation in economic activities in Catalonia: firstly the prevalence of family farming and secondly the location of textile industries in the region. The gap between female activity level in Catalonia and in Spain has been diminishing during the last two decades basically due to stagnation of the Catalan growth trend of the 70s. However, differences are still significant (see Table 6.1.).

Increasing women's participation in the labour market slowed down in the late 60s in Catalonia. A partial explanation for that is huge Job losses within the textile industries, where many women used to work. Job loss was not replaced by employment generated in the growing service sector (such as Public Administration, Health, Education and assistance services), where women take an important share. Therefore the activity rate was kept constant between 1975 and 1981. Besides, the decrease of male activity came to be generalised in Spain during these years. Two basic facts lie behind this decrease: firstly, prolongation of studies, leading to better qualifications in order to face stiffer competition in the labour market and secondly, lower retirement age, promoted by the legislation and the reindustrialisation plans. Many businesses sought to restructure their staff by offering early retirement.

Female activity in the age of 16-64 years was 27% in 1970 compared to 38.3% in 1986. The increase of female activity rate is basically due to the incorporation of married women in the labour market, even though married women make up Just 30% of the female active population. This on the one hand shows the effects of the economic crisis on family income (previously guaranteed by the husbands) which forced many women to look for new income sources to "help the family" situation. On the other hand it is an indication of women's changing attitudes and their will to enjoy the same status as men both in the family and in society; this leads first, to seek self-reliance by taking paid work and second, to ask for the same rights at work as a means to guarantee their economic independence.

It is worth noting too that the female active population has important structural differences in Catalonia compared to Spain. For instance, there is a major representation of married women among the working women in general and women from all educational levels in Catalonia. The activity rate of married women in the central maternity ages shows that more than 5 out of 10 married women were linked to the labour market in 1986 in Catalonia, whilst only 3 or 4 out of 10 married in the age bracket of 20-30 years were working in Spain as a whole. In this context we could advance the hypothesis that the development of a network of women's employment determined the emergence of favourable attitudes to mothers as principal family workers. In other regions, especially in the south of Spain where the employment is very difficult even for the male population, women's roles are linked to their reproductive sphere rather than to the productive. The major demand for female labour force is explained by the less polarised structure of female activity population in the educational level: In Catalonia women with a medium education level have an activity rate closer to that of university women which is not the case in Spain.

Increase of the female activity rate among married women is also a good indicator of recent ideological changes between women in Catalonia as well as in the rest of the country. It is worth noting that employment data is based on women's self-registration, who have first to realise their own condition as workers inside and/or outside the home. The data on unemployment rates show that it is more difficult for women to find a job than for men in Catalonia as well as in Spain. The overall female unemployment rate is higher than the male one. In part this is due to the age effect. Female activity rate is higher among the young ages, where unemployment is greater and therefore the overall female active population in these age brackets has more weight than the male one. The obvious female discrimination through labour market segmentation must also be mentioned. Such discrimination is blatant even when women and men have an equivalent educational level. For instance, activity rate among people with the same qualifications is quite similar for both women and men (nearly 85%), but unemployment rate is much higher among the female population than among the male one (14.5% versus 7.6%) in 1986 in Catalonia. Lastly women make up a great part of the discouraged workers (unemployed people who have stopped looking for a Job, because they have lost hope of succeeding).

6.2. Occupational Characteristics.

First of all we will discuss the structure of female active population among economic sectors. The relative importance of women employed in agriculture is rather lower in Catalonia than in Spain. Just 1.88% of employed women were working in agriculture in

Catalonia in 1986. Otherwise female activity in industry (as an outcome of the processes set out above) is much reduced: 49.52% of the female employed population belonged to the secondary sector in 1970, but only 31.94% in 1986. Anyway this sector is still important within Spain as a whole. The tertiary sector was already predominant in the 70s and it has grown continually since then (46.47% of total employed women in 1970 and 66% in 1986). This proportion is almost 70% of employed women in all Spain. Services is the branch where women are more important within the tertiary sector: almost 50% of the total employed population in this branch were women in Catalonia as well as in Spain. If we take the industrial sector, it is more feminized in Catalonia than in Spain because of more textiles, clothing or food industries.

The occupational structure shows that in Catalonia, as well as in Spain, women are more represented in specific jobs such as: domestic service, health assistant, clerk, telephonist and typist. Other professions such as sales staff or professional and technical staff are proportionately higher in Catalonia than in Spain. The feminization index of managers, professionals and technical personnel is higher in Catalonia than in Spain. Thus we advance the hypothesis that when the general climate is positive for male employment it is also positive for women. However, during an economic crisis, even in the most feminized professions -for instance sales staff, men will generally take women's places. Hence women's position within the occupational pyramid is better in Catalonia than in Spain.

According to data about the socio-economic status of the female employed population, employees are more numerous in industry, while the proportion of employees is a little higher in Catalonia than in Spain. On the contrary, the employers category - which includes the self-employed - is statistically more representative in the whole of Spain. There is also a greater share of employers in Spanish agriculture than in the Catalan (40% versus 20%). Conversely, employees are the majority in Catalonia. Anyway it is likely that a female worker within agriculture would be an assisting relative, since there are 6 out of 10 people within this category in Catalonia. Occupational structure in the tertiary sector is quite similar for both (75% employees about 10% assisting relatives and the rest are employers). Employers category comprise also self-employers (see table 6.7.).

6.3. Atypical employment.

All varieties of "atypical" work have expanded in the 80s in Catalonia as well as in Spain, due to two basic facts: first, the effect of economic restructuring which came about at

the end of the 60s and secondly legislation implemented in 1984, which penalised the hiring liberalisation in the Spanish state.

Later on there was the economic crisis of 1973 spreading internationally which added to Catalonia's own crisis. This crisis hit industry as well as labour, influencing basic female economic areas, such as textiles and wool. The restructuring plan of textiles and wool implemented in the mid 70s brought about the closure of many enterprises, reduction of staff and the semiclandestine dismantling of many production plants. In actual fact some plants were not completely shut down, but contributed to the emergence of smaller production units and the massive growth of the professional category of self-employed. The new units had very narrow margins and they were completely linked to large enterprises, dominant within these sectors. The large enterprises were only interested in the Restructuring Plan during 1981-86. This plan undertook an important restructurisation of existing staff. The result of all this process was the emergence of three categories of workers: firstly, those who could remain in the workplace, apparently the privileged ones, but who at the same time were exposed to new staff regulations; secondly, the self-employed who had an important but obsolete plant and adapted to the sub-contracting offered by large businesses; and thirdly, a wide range of temporary workers earning low wages and very often working in the "black market" economy. Within such a climate, women were in the worst situation. (Recio et al.,1988).

The legislative reform of 1984, concerning contractual issues, introduced amendments to the Workers Statute of 1981. We can point out the following: the creation of new activity contracts, the spread of temporary and occupational promotion contracts (training and work experience) in order to overcome the fringes of temporary staff established by the preliminary legislation of 1982. As a result, the option for temporary contracts has been used by private businesses as well as public administration. Thereby stable contracts have become the exception rather than the rule.

In most countries, temporary contracts are legally adopted in some Justified cases, as the accumulation of some unforeseen tasks, workers replacement with the workplace booked, etc. The Spanish legislation is more imprecise: it permits occupational promotion contracts or hiring of workers for 6 months minimum to 3 years maximum, even if they performed the daily, therefore stable, tasks of the enterprise. Such practices damaged the principles of training and work experience contracts and have been used as a normal way to link temporary contracts covering activities that theoretically can and should be done by permanent workers. It must be taken into account that very few of the temporary contracts become permanent. According to the Trade Unions this makes up about 20% whilst according to the government it is about 50%. The majority of the Trade Unions, "Comissions

Obreres" and "Unió General de Treballadors", have not reached any agreement with the government about the deal for competitiveness, looking at the future European integration.

A little earlier, when the European Single Act took effect, Spain appeared to be one of the countries where temporary workers were more significant with relation to all employees (23% according to the EPA, 1990 2nd quarter). The category of discontinuity stable workers who are unemployed most of the time must also be added to this data. The major economic sectors demanding temporary workers are those where women are more represented as a part of the labour force: public administration, lodging and large stores.

To end this section the categories of atypical employment are defined as follows (Meulders and Plasman, 1989):

Part-time: Part-time jobs occur frequently among women working in public administration, manufacturing and, above all, among domestic workers. In the first case, the hiring is legal, but the others could be typical examples of non-registered informal work. There has been an increase of domestic work in the last few years. This demand is partly generated by the same households where both members of the couple are engaged in a professional activity. In that sense, we can state that growth of female employment has influenced the increase of female workplaces. This is linked to the fact that everyday there is a greater part of the reproduction sphere that must be socialised, namely sold into the market. Women are accustomed to working as a domestic worker just because they are obliged to and they find themselves developing their tasks in complete isolation. Their condition at the workplace could be precarious and without legal contracts, a fact that makes their position very difficult when they want to negotiate wages. Most of them have no social security card which used to belong to their husbands. They are not allowed to enjoy any retirement pension without the card in spite of having worked like their husbands. At best, they become self-employed.

Temporary contracts: The greatest problems are to be found in accommodation and large stores. In these sectors, chaining together temporary contracts as a way to cover stable workplaces is usual practice. The fact of being a temporary worker will effect the payment received, the rights of the social security and the holidays periods. It is also better if the workers do not take training for granted. On the contrary, the work done by The Women's Institute ("El Instituto de la Mujer") stands out in the sense that it undertook positive actions in the labour market field whose results are already showing first successes in Catalonia. According to the National Institute of Employment (INEM) from 733.310 people, registered as employed, about 50.03% were women and 49.97% were men within the province of Barcelona in 1990. Even so,

female unemployment has been higher than the male one for a long time and although the discouraged workers are predominant within the female population, this year for the first time hiring of women is slightly more favourable than men.

Seasonal work: Again the greatest problems are taking place in textiles, trade, post-offices, public administration and all sorts of services. Agriculture has been the most demanding sector of this sort of category of workers due to its natural characteristics. Recently, the demand has basically been supplied by immigrant men, from Africa (South-Saharanian people and Moroccan). The category of discontinuous stable contracts in temporary activities is used by the administration (workers in the Postal Service is the case of strikes) and the temporary service enterprises, which work illegally in Spain and often recruit women.

Self-employment and subcontracting: There are elements causing the growth of the self-employment and the cooperatives of production and services (above all the personal ones); the textile crisis and the spread of homeworking, as well as all the family and community strategies used to combat the Labour crisis at the end of the 70s.

Unpaid family work: Unpaid family work is quite frequent in all productive sectors given the enterprise structure and the small size of farms in Catalonia. Usually these people are the wives of owners and they play a key part in running the business. In that sense it is worth noting too, the work by the Woman's Institute ("El Instituto de la Mujer) according to the Plan for Equal Opportunities, which must be appraised as really positive. This Plan proposes that all people who work without being paid within family enterprises should be discharged from the system of social security in order to enjoy the advantages offered to them. This could be a way to gain the social recognition of productive tasks done by women working as "husband helpers".

Multiple Jobs: This category is frequent among workers who are in the extremes of the occupational pyramid. Workers in precarious conditions have to maintain any opportunity of working that arises. Among the liberal professionals, this practice is frequent in the first stages of the training period among youth. This is a clear sign of the culture which over-values work (yuppies) or wanted to keep the biggest piece of the cake for themselves.

To sum up, from our point of view, European Integration - in the sense of harmonisation of the social and labour market policies - must go in the following directions: (a) stabilising work and that stable contracts are not the real way of "atypical

work" and (b) distributing exactly the work needed for the production of goods and services, required for human needs. In that sense there is no point in many enterprises (more than one out of two in Spain) overcoming the legal Journey of work, whilst there is such a quantity of people who need to find a Job and must resign themselves to very short periods of work (from 6 month to 3 years). After this time they have the right to claim unemployment benefit for a period even shorter than the time worked. If these two principles were respected, women's integration in the labour market - without ignoring the policies of positive actions could be reached in more favourable conditions.

**Table 6.1. Catalonia and Spain: Employment indicators by sex, 1990
(Population 16 and + years old).**

SPAIN	Labour Force (%)	Activity Rate	Unemployment Rate		
			16 and +	16-19	20-24
MF	100.00	49.31	16.26	36.46	29.97
M	64.84	66.65	11.98	30.62	23.78
F	35.16	33.33	24.16	42.78	37.72
CATALONIA					
MF	100.00	52.91	12.56	29.96	22.28
M	62.98	69.69	7.79	18.89	16.45
F	37.02	37.54	20.68	41.45	29.20

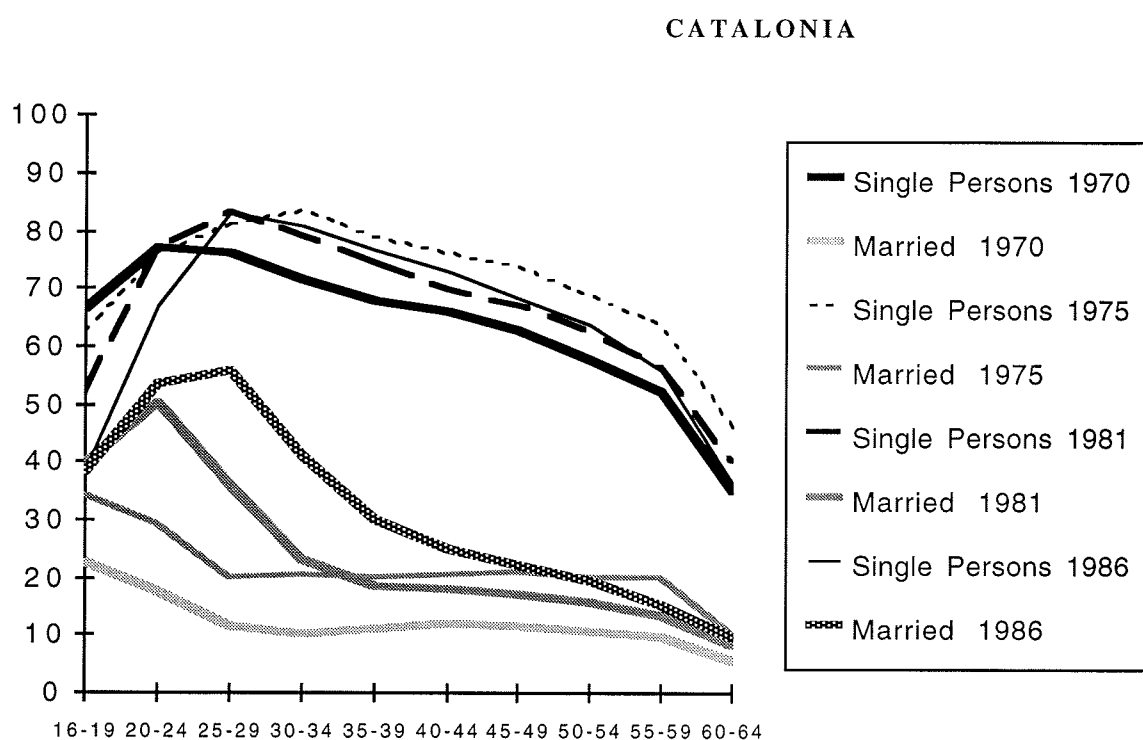
Source: INE. Encuesta de la Población Activa. 2º trimestre. 1990.

Table 6.2. Catalonia and Spain: Female activity rates by age and marital status, 1986. Percentages

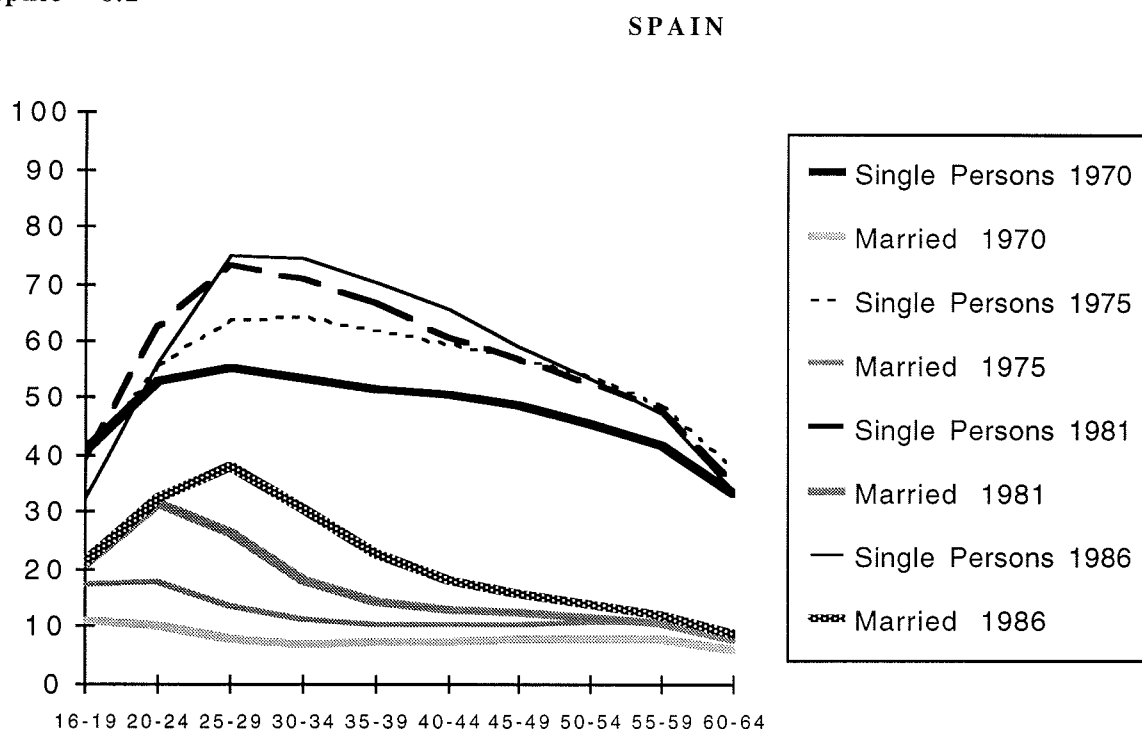
CATALONIA					
	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced-Sep	Total
Age					
16-19	38.27	38.13	34.78	60.23	38.29
20-24	66.76	53.50	52.73	79.03	62.85
25-29	82.96	55.77	60.25	82.47	63.40
30-34	80.60	41.04	52.22	81.59	47.37
35-39	76.46	30.08	44.87	77.58	35.91
40-44	73.03	24.78	42.56	72.15	30.23
45-49	68.12	21.90	38.35	65.05	26.85
50-54	63.69	19.26	31.20	55.60	24.28
55-59	55.79	15.38	22.78	42.41	20.38
60-64	36.31	9.39	12.58	25.93	12.99
65 +	5.11	1.21	0.87	2.98	1.51
16-64	58.14	29.72	24.15	69.04	37.88
16 e +	53.31	26.49	7.16	63.21	31.11
SPAIN					
Age					
16-19	32.47	21.56	21.06	52.00	32.06
20-24	56.51	32.32	33.32	68.84	49.77
25-29	74.85	38.18	42.14	75.37	49.90
30-34	74.35	30.73	40.35	76.40	38.35
35-39	70.05	22.54	37.38	72.05	29.00
40-44	65.52	18.08	34.93	66.16	23.88
45-49	58.90	15.60	30.58	58.62	20.77
50-54	53.41	14.03	24.82	50.44	19.00
55-59	47.50	11.87	18.58	41.20	16.85
60-64	34.15	8.72	11.37	27.12	12.42
65 +	4.69	1.28	0.76	3.49	1.51
16-64	51.09	21.37	20.17	63.71	30.77
16 e +	46.69	19.00	6.24	58.59	28.12

Source: Own elaboration from the Padron (INE)

Graphic 6.1. Catalonia and Spain: Female activity rates by marital status and age, 1970 and 1986



Graphic 6.2



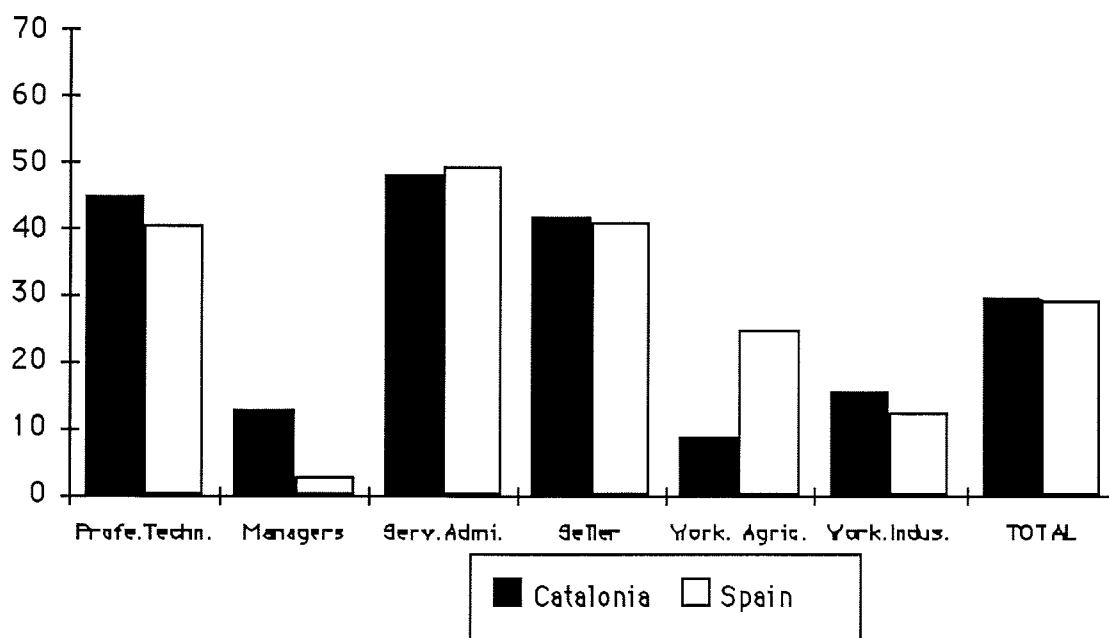
Source: Table 5.2

Table 6.3. Female activity rate by age and by education

Age	Illiterate	No studies	First degree	2.Degree 1.cycle	2.Degree 2.cycle	Technical	University	Ph. D.	Unknown	Total
20-24	1.31	3.29	9.80	9.98	10.29	11.73	12.21	-	3.00	9.22
25-34	1.33	3.53	7.39	10.86	11.95	13.63	15.38	11.73	7.28	8.83
35-44	1.82	2.99	5.02	7.87	10.02	11.86	16.57	11.52	7.98	5.54
45-54	1.66	2.92	4.33	6.36	8.21	10.15	13.34	9.52	6.22	4.05
55-64	0.93	2.05	3.05	4.65	6.40	9.08	10.49	8.86	4.57	2.71
65 and +	0.04	0.15	0.29	0.74	1.00	1.12	1.91	2.50	3.30	0.24
Total	0.70	2.01	4.73	8.86	10.13	11.13	14.41	10.69	5.43	4.73

Source: Own elaboration from the Padró Municipal d'Habitants (CIDC).

Graphic 6.3. Catalonia and Spain: percentage of female employed over total population employed by socio-professional level. 1986



Graphic 6.4. Catalonia and Spain: Percentage of female employed according to their professional status. 1986



Source: Table 5.6

Table 6.4. Catalonia and Spain: Unemployment rates by sex and by age groups, 1986

Age groups	CATALONIA			SPAIN		
	F	M	MF	F	M	MF
1986						
16-19	65.55	56.54	60.68	65.07	57.95	60.94
20-24	43.65	34.99	39.01	47.88	39.44	42.89
25-29	24.18	17.39	20.14	28.79	21.35	23.92
30-34	18.68	12.05	14.24	18.16	13.77	15.02
35-39	15.09	10.30	11.61	13.55	10.95	11.56
40-44	12.66	10.23	10.82	11.61	10.38	10.63
45-49	11.75	11.28	11.38	10.71	11.23	11.14
50-54	10.68	12.19	11.85	10.05	12.35	11.93
55-59	11.38	15.76	14.80	9.78	14.70	13.77
60-64	8.93	12.82	11.92	7.37	12.53	11.42
65 +	9.69	7.88	8.59	8.46	7.82	8.04
TOTAL	26.74	17.49	20.47	28.65	19.25	21.89
1988						
16-19	55.09	42.05	48.56	52.99	41.28	46.83
20-24	44.44	26.78	35.71	45.99	32.56	38.50
25-54	23.28	9.54	14.31	21.91	11.60	14.89
55 +	9.66	8.82	9.04	6.19	9.29	8.45
TOTAL	30.08	13.72	19.85	27.98	15.62	19.85
1990						
16-19	41.45	18.89	29.96	42.78	30.62	36.46
20-24	29.20	16.45	22.28	37.72	23.78	29.97
25-54	17.24	5.89	10.01	20.79	9.45	13.29
55 +	10.38	5.75	6.91	6.71	8.10	7.73
TOTAL	20.68	7.79	12.56	24.16	11.98	16.26

Source: INE, Padrón Municipal de Habitantes, 1986; INE, Encuesta de Población activa 1988 and 1990

**Table 6.5. Catalonia and Spain: employment by sex and by sector, 1986.
(16+) Percentages**

	Agric.	Ind.	Const.	Com Host.	Trans Comu.	Serv.	Unknown	Total
CATALONIA								
MF	4.91	35.73	5.25	16.33	5.95	22.73	9.09	100.00
M	6.26	38.80	7.26	14.67	7.23	16.81	8.96	100.00
F	1.70	28.44	0.49	20.26	2.92	36.78	9.41	100.00
SPAIN								
MF	16.13	24.40	7.48	20.86	5.75	25.38	0.00	100.00
M	17.14	27.78	10.33	18.92	7.34	18.49	0.00	100.00
F	13.68	16.24	0.57	25.56	1.88	42.07	0.00	100.00
CATALONIA								
MF	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
M	89.73	76.39	97.22	63.20	85.47	52.02	69.32	70.34
F	10.27	23.61	2.78	36.80	14.53	47.98	30.68	29.66
SPAIN								
MF	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
M	75.21	80.56	97.76	64.18	90.44	51.55	100.00	70.77
F	24.79	19.44	2.24	35.82	9.56	48.45	0.00	29.23

Source: Own elaboration from the Padró Municipal d'Habitants (CIDC) and from the Encuesta de la Población Activa 2º trimestre

Table 6.6. Catalonia and Spain: employment by sex and by socio-professional level, 1986

	Prof. Techn	Manag.	Serv. Admi.	Seller	Work Agric.	Work Ind	Force Army	Unknown	Total
CATALONIA									
MF	12.10	3.64	22.04	11.23	4.83	39.84	0.24	6.08	100.00
M	9.48	4.50	16.27	9.33	6.26	47.78	0.34	6.04	100.00
F	18.32	1.59	35.74	15.73	1.44	21.01	0.00	6.17	100.00
SPAIN									
MF	8.86	1.76	25.91	11.01	16.01	35.47	0.98	0.01	100.00
M	7.46	2.42	18.55	9.18	17.00	44.02	1.38	0.00	100.00
F	12.25	0.16	43.74	15.44	13.61	14.78	0.00	0.02	100.00
CATALONIA									
MF	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
M	55.10	87.03	51.91	58.46	91.19	84.36	-	69.90	70.34
F	44.90	12.97	48.09	41.54	8.81	15.64	-	30.10	29.66
SPAIN									
MF	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
M	59.579	97.31	50.661	59.016	75.156	87.818	-	33.3333	70.772
F	40.42	2.69	49.34	40.98	24.84	12.18	-	66.67	29.23

Source: Own elaboration from the Padró Municipal d'Habitants (CIDC) and from the Encuesta Población Activa (2º trimestre)

**Table 6.7. Catalonia and Spain: employment by sex, by sector and by occupation, 1991.
(Population 16 and + years old)**

CATALONIA										
	AGRICULTURE		INDUSTRY		CONSTRUCTION		SERVICES		TOTAL	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Employers	61.59	21.01	8.75	4.68	23.12	6.72	23.04	15.64	19.32	12.92
Family Workers	10.26	55.80	0.74	3.41	3.36	6.72	2.84	6.29	2.44	6.48
Employees	27.68	23.19	90.42	91.70	73.17	86.55	73.92	77.08	78.04	79.83
Others	0.47	0.00	0.09	0.21	0.35	0.00	0.20	0.99	0.19	0.77
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

SPAIN										
	AGRICULTURE		INDUSTRY		CONSTRUCTION		SERVICES		TOTAL	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Employers	45.24	33.02	9.78	6.91	17.74	5.11	22.04	12.96	20.93	13.77
Family Workers	8.58	32.32	0.95	3.37	1.34	5.84	2.45	6.53	2.62	8.44
Employees	45.83	34.56	89.06	89.43	80.72	89.05	75.23	80.12	76.19	77.45
Others	0.34	0.09	0.21	0.30	0.20	0.00	0.29	0.39	0.26	0.34
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Own elaboration from the Encuesta de Población Activa, 2º trimestre (INE) 1991.

7. WOMEN'S ORGANITATIONS

Organised women's groups at local, neighbourhood and town level emerged at the end of the 70s. These movements have been losing members during the last few years. There are still a number of women's groups which maintain a strong leadership such as women from some large districts of Barcelona (Sants district and some districts from the metropolitan area and specially the industrial belt, as Sabadell, Cerdanyola, Hospitalet, Santa Coloma, and so on), and the very dynamic women's groups of the extreme left (Marxist or Troskyist: "Eix Violeta", "Mari Bruixes"). All these are grouped by the Feminist Coordinator ("Coordinadora Feminista") set up in Barcelona city centre ("K La Dona"), which coordinates general campaigns, such as 8th March or concrete events concerning more recent matters. Nowadays the main issues of the campaigns are the reform of the Abortion Law and the fight against sexual harassment. In spite of the fact that abortion is an old vindication, it is a problem area. On the other hand, one should mention the recent groups established ("Grup de Dones Contra el V Centenari") by different women's organisations supporting Latin American countries (Nicaragua, Chile) against the fifth Centenary of American discovery.

The groups mentioned above co-exist with other women's groups committed to "professional issues, such as health, education and legislation. At the University level there are different groups organising seminars and promoting the integration of gender studies within the educational and research spheres.

Concerning women's participation in the Trade Unions, it has been institutionalised by the establishment of the Women's Secretariat, which counts on the most women's concern sectors. However, it is still very difficult to influence general trade unions policies. Another aspect to be mentioned concern the political parties, which have agreed on 25% of women's representation in the directive body (the socialist party, PSOE, and one of the communist PCE) independently of their representation.

Important groups have also been organised at the enterprise level, where women have informed workers about the situation of labour discrimination. The fights of female workers against Jaegger, post sector or Jorba Preciados enterprises due to wage discriminations are good examples. In all these three cases women were paid much less money for the same work. The attendance perks (Jaegger) or the clothes perks were

unfairly used as a means to Justify wage differentials between the sexes. These objections have been supported by the Trade Unions and they have succeeded.

8. NATIONAL AND LOCAL POLICY FOR EQUALITY

The end of the franquist period started with the dictator's death on November 20th 1975. In April (1976), a law abolished former regulations, according to which married women had to get their husband's agreement before accepting a Job. The new law stated that any woman, no matter what her civil status might be, could undertake work of any kind and exercise the corresponding rights under the same conditions as men. A little later, the 1978 democratic Constitution established equality of rights and duties between men and women as well as the equality of children born either inside or outside of marriage. The same year, the State government initiated laws, the objective of which was to eliminate discrimination among individuals and to guarantee individual liberties such as:

-July 1978: Depenalisation of contraception and creation of Family Planning Centres by the Health and Consumption Ministry.

-July 1981: Law regulating divorce and legal separations.

-October 1981: Basic laws which stipulate that employment will have to be based on the principle of equal opportunities without sex discrimination.

-October 1983: Creation of the state Women's Institute set up in Madrid.

-July 1985: Depenalisation of abortion, during the first 16 weeks of gestation and in one of three cases: eugenic, ethical or therapeutic.

-September 1987: Agreement of the Council of Ministers on the first Plan for equal opportunities for women.

In some aspects, the Spanish law is more advanced than the European Community norms; for instance in the case of maternity leave, the European Community is presently discussing whether it should be 14 weeks. In Spain the March 1989 law in contrast foresees 16 weeks and also includes the possibility of paternal leave for the last 4 weeks if both are working and the mother would not run any risk to her health. Equally, it allows them to ask for a reduction in daily working hours with proportional wage reduction until the child reaches six years of age. It also establishes the opportunity to have leave for a period up to three years. This case will guarantee them a place at work only during the

first year. A new law on abortion, a historical claim indeed, is one of the subjects to be dealt in the near future.

Women's Plan for Equal Opportunities for 1988-1990 establishes the basis for equality policy, which will be coordinated by the different Ministries of the Central Spanish Government. The plan foresees six areas of action:

1. Juridical equality,
2. Education and culture,
3. Employment and work relations,
4. Health,
5. International cooperation and
6. Associations.

Concrete goals and the means to achieve each of them will be worked out. The professional education, the employment and social security respond to the contents of the Action Plan 1986-1990, the purpose of which was equal opportunities for women in the European Community. The package of concrete action goals of the Equality Plan of the Central Government is focus on the spheres of employment-labour relations and Juridical equality. These goals make up more than 60% of the actions. From the point of view of the programme's philosophy positive aspects might be pointed out taking into an account indirect discrimination or the purpose of involving men in some sort of equality measures. But contrary to this, and above all concerning employment, there is no clear social policy for all women. They focus on the needs of the most disfavoured women of those in difficult situations (unskilled women, long-term unemployed, agricultural workers, etc.). In this sense the existing actions of the Social Services Department - liaison required to link women to the labour market - are not enough. A good example is the limited importance given to the daycare centres. There is Just one action in this respect, which intends setting up daycare centres for the female workers within the Public Administration. At the end of last year, after that Plan had reached its expiration date, evaluation done by the Woman's Institute was highly positive: 114 measures out of the initial 122 had been carried out, legal equality between men and women had become a fact even if t is far from being real, everyday equality.

Employment is part of the mosaic that most clearly reflects what is still to be done to obtain real equality, not just in the legal sense. The governments of various Spanish autonomous communities, after the creation of the Women's Institute - under the Socialist Government approved the creation of departments that would take care of women's equality and liberty. There are seven Autonomous Communities, of the total number of 17 Autonomous Communities in Spanish State, with institutions specially oriented towards

women. In the case of Catalonia, the "Convergencia i Unio " conservative and nationalist Government approved on January 29, 1987 the creation of an Interdepartmental Commission for the Promotion of Women. This Commission has worked out a Plan of Action aimed at all Equal Opportunities for Women (1989-1992). Although the Plan follows the European Community Directives, it is on the whole more protectionist and conservative than the one elaborated by the Central Government. This is quite clear if we look at the spheres of actions where the plan focuses on:

1. Equal consideration of the legal aspects for women and men (11 actions),
2. Protective measures for women against the limit situations (4 actions),
3. Family and maternity protection (4 actions),
4. Education (5 actions),
5. Social recognition of equalitarian values (9 actions),
6. Promotion of woman's participation in the social sphere (1 action).

As we can see, there is no concrete package of measures in employment and labour relations but a scattered one through sections 2,3 and 5. The inadequate structure of the programme together with the frequent imprecisely defined suggestions give more pragmatism to the Plan. The result is that it looks like a simple proposal of good intention. As for improving women's participation in the labour market the suggestion of reducing daily working hours independently of the sex of the worker guarantees the compatibility between children's daycare and labour activity. Whether this measure would be positive in a climate of equality (as a short-term strategy and during an inequality situation) is questionable. It could make women's discrimination worse by leaving them as a second category of workers due to the fact that the little time devoted to the professional sphere causes lack of competitiveness. The treatment done to the point of the daycare centres as a way of promoting women's participation in the labour market is also incomprehensive.

To sum up, The Equality Plan consisted of a clear intention of avoiding and reporting inequality between the sexes - not only formally but in reality - it is not far from the "women's protection" philosophy, rather than being based on the real claim for women's rights.

9. EUROPEAN COMMUNITY POLICY

In this section we will **make some remarks about the Third Programme** of the Community on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men. It focuses on employment issues especially the less-favoured category of workers, as in the two preceding programmes. Hence there is, in a certain way, a continuity of policy. The main goal is the promotion of women's full participation in the labour market, as well as the re-evaluation of their contribution to economic and social life. Three concrete goals are stated:

- **Development and implementation of the juridical framework.** This is a very important goal since it tries to deal not only with direct discrimination, but also with indirect, subtler mechanisms than the written law. The programme acknowledges that there is indirect discrimination in the definition of equal salary for equal work. Therefore the suggestion is to clarify some concepts - used for the evaluation and professional classification of workers - which are used by the Social Security to undervalue women's contribution. The huge need to enforce implementation of the Law is underlined in cases such as salary discrimination, directly as well as indirectly.

- **Women's integration in the labour market.** This goal will be mainly achieved through the **NOW** initiative, examined below. We note that the part on employment issues has lower aims compared to the legislative part. It has not taken into account the subtle discriminations set out above. This is the most interesting part - from our point of view since it considers that in order for women to reach integration in the production sphere, compromise between family and professional life is a basic problem. Therefore women as well as men would benefit from this measure. Equally, development of the daycare centres throughout the whole territory is suggested. However, the Commission has transferred the whole responsibility to the Member States of the EC. Other measures include the promotion of research on women's condition within the labour market, the diffusion of the re-integration measures already implemented by other countries, the continuation of the IRIS and ILE actions and the diffusion of legislation and practice of women and men sharing family responsibilities.

- **Improvement of women's situation within society**, developed along three lines:

1. A campaign on the importance of equal opportunities for women and men to increase public awareness and diffusion of information,

2. Women's image within mass media and
3. Women's participation in the decision-making process.

We consider the integration of the Third Plan within the general framework policies a positive action. It is basically important since it makes clear there is no one concrete point to combat inequality. The mechanisms through which discrimination is exercised are intertwined with all spheres of social life. Hence the policy cannot be limited to one specific field. The last remark is about the little emphasis given to the need for men to change and to share responsibility for children and daily household tasks.

The NOW initiative is undertaken through the Third Community Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and it is basically based on the promotion of employment and professional training for women (2nd aim). Only the second aim is coordinated by the structural funds. The others are underlined simply as recommendations to the Member States and the same happens with the two concrete goals from the Third Plan set out above. There are two main goals:

1. Contribution to women's re-evaluation as well as qualifications and the change of women's enterprise mentality concerning cooperatives and businesses creation and
2. Re-insertion of women involved in informal work or simply unemployed.

At the same time, there are other concrete goals:

- **Financial support to undertake small enterprises or women's cooperatives.** This will be done through training courses and the advice service to facilitate the access to existing structures related to the handicraft or PYME activities. Economic support can come from the Community network for the Local Employment Initiatives (LEI). This point is a bit disappointing to us, now that the initiative is primarily aimed at the less-developed regions (therefore Catalonia would be left out) and will only reinforce the development of enterprises and cooperatives at local level (social services).

According to a study undertaken by Women's Institute (1988-89) the tendency of increasing numbers of female employers and self-employed has not stopped. Nevertheless there are problems related to the lack of managerial training. Private enterprise is based on five basic activities: business, hotels, farm cultivation, dressmaking and aesthetics, education, hairdressing, sanitary and food. They must aim for other more competitive, economic sectors. Most of the women's enterprises are not employment creators and quite a lot of them are self-employed.

- **Guide measures, professional training, employment support and advice service to professional re-insertion.** This is aimed at less-favoured groups: unskilled young people, long-term unemployed women and women in precarious work. On this point Catalonia is a preference region. Professional training programmes follow a philosophy purely and simply to assist policies, but the priority is still given to less favoured groups not Just women as a whole. In this sense, the policy looks like the mythical idea where better training would lead to a better situation, when this is a basic condition but it is far from being unique; it is evident whether we compare the differential unemployment rates among the university students of both sexes. The worse position of women is found not only in their professional career, but in the discriminatory structure of the labour market itself. On the other hand if we wish to reach greater levels of women's participation in the labour market equalling that of men, concrete policy measures should be taken according to characteristics of specific groups of women. Women's position within the particular labour market is very important for the future integration of the less favoured women, since women already integrated in the labour market would determine women's own perspectives. When a rich network of women participate in the labour market, it plays a legitimate role for the future female workers.

- **Complementary measures focussed on childcare and technical assistance.** There are other specific measures highlighted in this section:

1. Development of infrastructure of childcare centres. It is necessary to increase the number of daycare centres (basically throughout industrial centres), support daycare for women joining training courses, and greater supply of training courses for the education of daycare staff.
2. Measures of technical assistance, supporting the creation of transnational networks, experience exchanges, etc.

Once again we feel a bit disappointed about the first complementary measure, in the sense that it is restricted to the less developed regions and especially to programmes which combine infrastructure with professional training. Therefore Catalonia would again be left out. But what is more important: support for daycare development is understood to be a tool to secure attendance by the less favoured women to training courses. However, our region needs daycare centres not only for the less favoured women, but for all women, so that the ones already working can keep on with their activities or at least they will not face handicaps, working in unequal conditions. Another point open to discussion is whether daycare centres should be located at the place of residence or at the workplace. We would tend to suggest the place of residence, so that both parents could make use of the services.

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