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Abstract

The most significant changes in the Spanish “Higher Education” (HE)-sector within the last 20 years are the granting of autonomy to the universities, the transfer from state competencies to the autonomous regions, the enormous intakes of students and the founding of many public and private universities. The impacts these changes had and still have on women are numerous. The foundation of universities in all regions facilitated their access to HE-institutions. Nowadays more than half of the students are female. Nevertheless, their distribution according to field is still uneven, for example only a few study technical subjects. Due to the increase of the number of students, more lecturers have been required. Because of this demand many women were able to fill this need and became university teachers. Even though the current women’s share of university staff is only slightly less than those of all female employees, only a minority occupy posts in the highest level of the hierarchy, that of university professors. The reasons for this under-representation have not been sufficiently investigated. They are certainly connected with the severe problem of endogamy in the hiring of university staff. In this respect it is remarkable that women tend to have better chances to occupy the highest position in the bigger and the newer universities. However, due to the often higher working load at the latter and their often worse reputation, we cannot assume that these institutions are automatically “women friendlier”. A profound analysis of the reasons for the under-representation could serve as a basis for the introduction of equal opportunity measures. However, from my point of view the granting of university autonomy and decentralization make this unlikely. In addition, an even further decentralization is planned and also the observable shift towards the market could be disadvantageous in this respect.

1. Historical background

The incorporation of women into universities in Spain did not begin, as in other European states, before the second half of the 19th century. And again, as in other European states, their admittance was a very slow process.

Since 1857 Spanish women could enter primary education. A decree of 1868, which aimed at the restructuring of secondary education and the university faculties, and did not distinguish between sexes, enabled a few women by using this loophole to complete, gradually, these education levels. In 1871 the first one passed the final exam of secondary education after taking private tuition. More women followed, although female pupils remained excluded from public schools. In 1873 the first female student enrolled at the Faculty of Medicine in Barcelona. Five years later women were granted the right to obtain the title of “Bachiller” by completing secondary education. Despite the progress for women in secondary education and access to university, they remained barred from practising in most professions. Only a few years later, in 1882, the right to enter universities was again denied to them. At that time already enrolled female students were allowed to finish their studies. Enrolment in secondary education was forbidden a few months later. In order to be re-admitted women had to wait until June 11, 1888. Nevertheless, special rules for their admittance were maintained and possession of a certificate still did not entitle women to practise professions other than teaching. Not before 1910 were female students formally treated as equals. In 1916 the first woman became university professor, the incorporation of a few more women into the teaching body did not happen before the 1930s. The civil war prevented any form of a more stable incorporation (Flecha 1995: 37ff.). Already during the war, in 1937, the monopolization of the education system by the Catholic Church began. After the war the Franco regime defined the purpose of women as reproducing both species and system. Education in general aimed at strengthening the political, ethical and religious concepts represented by the regime, which meant that the target of female education was to further their abilities in housekeeping. Therefore the separation of the sexes on all levels of education seemed to be necessary. The few women that studied (about 4% in 1940) were enrolled in Humanities. The economic development in the fifties and sixties, however, changed the social framework. In 1961 a law regulating the political and professional rights of women improved their situation in the labour market. Female education should henceforth respond more to the demands of the country. Already in 1967 the share of female students at universities reached 25%. In 1970 the Franco-regime passed a law, the “General Act on Education” (LGE), which finally acknowledged the education rights of women and gave them access to universities under the same conditions as their male colleagues. From now on the education system was the same for everyone, without different courses according to sex (Anguita Martínez/Robles Sanjuan 1995: 57f.). But

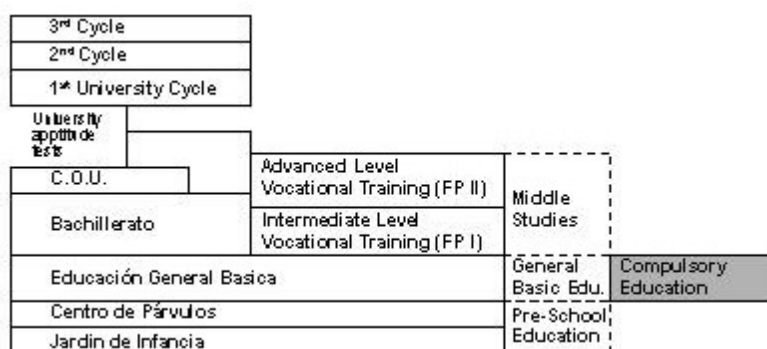
Alberdi/Alberdi (1984:10) raised the objection that this law could not prevent discrimination against women continuing, because it did not contain any explicit measures to establish real equal education opportunities. The new education system did not change the traditional ideals. Education in general and especially HE served often only to reach a higher cultural level, but not to practise the acquired abilities: in 1974 only 56% of the women that had finished more than just compulsory schooling were practising a profession. Also the distribution according to field reflected (and still reflects) the fact that traditional role models prevailed, only 9,6% of the students that graduated in technical disciplines were women (Anguita Martínez/Robles Sanjuan 1995: 58. After the reestablishment of democracy in 1975 it took some years before the new university law was finally passed in 1983. The “Law on University Reform” (LRU) carried out, as we will see in the following chapters, some fundamental changes in the university system. I will raise the question as to whether these changes had any impact on women in the fourth chapter. Three years after the coming into force of the LRU the proportion of women among the studentship reached 50% for the first time (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 161). Unfortunately, the respective percentage for female university professors is still far from that figure.

2. Education System

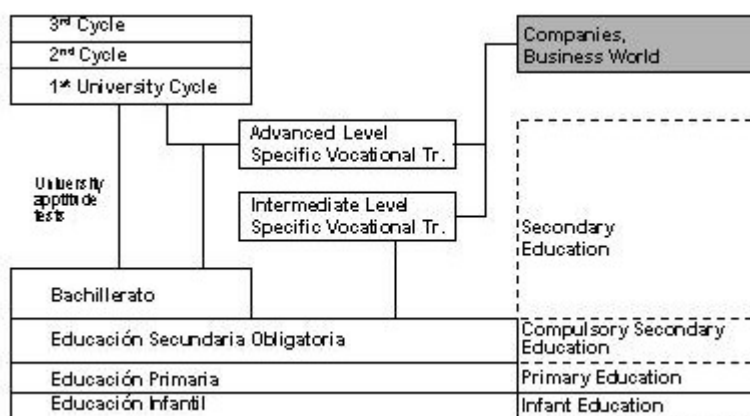
2.1 Primary and Secondary Education

Through the “Law of the General Plan of the Educational System” (LOGSE) of 1990 the whole non-university educational system has been reformed.¹ Before the reform the LGE of 1970 structured the educational system as follows:

Graphic 1: Education system of LGE 1970 (Source: MEC):



Graphic 2: Education system of LOGSE 1990 (Source: MEC):



Primary education starts at the age of 6 and is available in public and private schools. Before the reform of the LGE the so-called “General Basic Education” (EGB)² lasted for eight years, until the age of 14. By finishing EGB within the time envisaged pupils automatically received the certificate “Graduado escolar”, which enabled them to enter lower secondary education (“Intermediate-

¹ The LOGSE will finally be completely in force in the school year 2000-01.

² According to ISCED 97 the 1st and 2nd cycle of EGB belong to primary education, the 3rd cycle to lower secondary education.

level Vocational Training” – FPI or “General Secondary Education” – BUP). Pupils who did not pass the three cycles of EGB in the eight years envisaged received at the age of 16 a certificate of schooling. Through the new LOGSE compulsory schooling has been extended until the age of 16 and is divided into two levels – primary education and secondary compulsory education. Primary education³ lasts from 6 to 12 (MEC 1996: 155f.). Table 1 shows the number of pupils between the terms 1994-95 to 1996-97. This number is declining, which is mainly a result of the coming into force of the LOGSE but also due to demographic reasons. As can be seen about 28,5% of the pupils are in private schooling. Even though fewer girls are in primary education, more girls than boys received the certificate “Graduado escolar” and therefore tend to have better results.

Table 1: Pupils in EGB (LGE) and primary education (LOGSE) (Source: INE 1999: 149):

	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97*
Pupils	4 063 912	3 849 991	3 137 278
<i>in public schools</i>	2 681 829	2 553 332	2 071 095
Boys	1 420 910	1 350 792	1 090 173
Girls	1 260 919	1 202 540	980 922
<i>in private schools</i>	1 382 083	1 296 659	1 066 183
Boys	688 267	648 722	534 612
Girls	693 816	647 937	531 571
Pupils who finished schooling	563 487	511 299	
<i>Title "graduado escolar"</i>	452 812	418 482	
Boys	222 033	206 327	
Girls	230 779	212 156	
<i>Certification of schooling</i>	110 675	92 817	
Boys	69 398	57 623	
Girls	41 277	35 194	

* Figures for pupils who finished school are missing;

The 3rd cycle of EGB corresponds to lower secondary education, however, the following statistics do not contain the figures of it, they are included in the figures of table 1 (above). The so-called middle-studies, BUP and the FPI, correspond to lower secondary education⁴. The BUP, which lasted for three years, could be entered with the title of “Graduado escolar”. By finishing it students automatically received the title of “Bachiller” (LGE) and could enter a “University Preparation Course” (COU), which lasted one year. Another possibility was to enter intermediate-level vocational training, which could also be entered by possessing only the certificate of schooling. It lasted for two years (from 14 to

³ It corresponds now to primary education of ISCED 97.

⁴ According to ISCED 97.

16), after finishing it, pupils could enter “Advanced-level Vocational Training” (FP II)⁵ or the second cycle of BUP (LGE). The new LOGSE extended compulsory schooling for two years. “Compulsory Secondary Education” (ESO) starts at the age of 12 and lasts four years. The new “Bachillerato”⁶ lasts now only for two years, from 16 to 18. In order to enter it one has to possess the new title “Graduado en Educación Secundaria”, by finishing it one obtains the title “Bachiller”. The COU was eliminated by the LOGSE. The new further education is divided into two levels. The first stage⁷ can be entered after finishing the compulsory secondary education. After completion it is now no longer possible to enter the second stage, advanced-level specific vocational training⁸, because possession of the title “Bachiller” is the usual requirement for this. (MEC 1996: 158ff.).

Table 2: Pupils in ESO (LOGSE) and BUP and COU (LGE) (Source: INE 1999: 155):

ESO				BUP and COU**		
	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97*	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97*
Pupils	282 837	457 386	1 181 466	1 400 555	1 259 778	1 080 784
<i>in public schools</i>	240 014	378 230	899 802	1 019 855	901 847	751 384
Boys	122 101	189 842	466 345	459 952	406 842	342 436
Girls	117 913	188 388	433 457	559 903	495 903	408 948
<i>in private schools</i>	42 823	79 156	281 664	380 700	357 931	329 400
Boys	22 235	39 952	141 843	186 419	176 088	165 114
Girls	20 588	39 204	139 821	194 281	181 843	164 286
<i>Pupils that finished schooling</i>	58 786	87 7720		233 106	223 377	
Boys	27 974	41 157		102 819	97 539	
Girls	30 812	46 563		130 287	125 838	

* Figures for pupils that finished school are missing; ** Figures without pupils in distance-learning;

It can be observed, that there are more boys than girls in ESO (LOGSE) in both private and public schools, but more girls than boys finish it. In BUP and COU (LGE) there are more girls than boys.

⁵ The COU corresponds, according to ISCED 97, to upper secondary education, whereas FP II (further education stage 2) corresponds to the first stage of tertiary education.

⁶ The new “Bachillerato” belongs to upper secondary education of ISCED 97.

⁷ According to ISCED 97: upper secondary education.

⁸ According to ISCED 97: first stage of tertiary education.

Table 3: Pupils in “Bachillerato experimental” (LGE) and “Bachillerato” (LOGSE)⁹ (Source: INE 1999: 155):

Bachillerato experimental***				LOGSE		
	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97*	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97*
Pupils	39 870	31 920	27 257	69 599	109 398	153 836
<i>in public schools</i>	26 003	19 268	15 426	64 852	102 554	144 715
Boys	14 127	10 867	8 795	29 414	45 820	64 455
Girls	11 876	8 401	6 631	35 438	56 734	80 260
<i>in private schools</i>	13 867	12 652	11 831	4 747	6 844	9 121
Boys	7 804	7 165	6 952	2 548	3 646	4 758
Girls	6 063	5 487	4 879	2 199	3 198	4 363
<i>Pupils that finished schooling</i>	6 511**	3 372**		11 462	25 298	
Boys	2 961**	1 673**		4 701	10 543	
Girls	3 530**	1 699**		6 761	14 755	

* Figures for pupils that finished school are missing; ** Figures refer to pupils that finished 2nd cycle;

*** Bachillerato after a reform of the LGE;

In the experimental “Bachillerato” (with a different combination of subjects to the regular old “Bachillerato” of LGE) more boys than girls are enrolled, however, more girls finished it. In the new “Bachillerato” of LOGSE, the majority of the pupils are female. As statistics show, boys are more likely to enter further education than girls, although, again more girls finish it.

To summarize, more boys than girls entered EGB (LGE), primary education (LOGSE), ESO (LOGSE), Bachillerato experimental (LGE) and vocational training (LGE and LOGSE). However, more female pupils finished all four levels/types. Furthermore, girls had better results in EGB than their male classmates. In the school types which lead directly to higher education (BUP and COU or the new Bachillerato) girls form a majority of both, enrolled students and students who finished the course.

2.2 Exams to enter university education

In order to be admitted to faculties, polytechnics, university schools or university colleges one must either have finished the University Preparation Course (COU), the experimental “Bachillerato” (LGE) or the new “Bachillerato” (LOGSE) and/or the entrance examinations held by the individual universities. Another means of access is a pass in the examinations held for adults over twenty-five. Furthermore, students must pass the so-called “Pruebas de Selec-

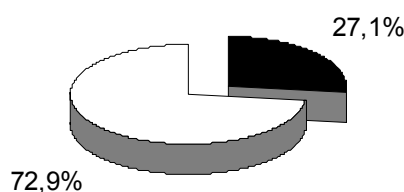
⁹ The volatility of the number of students in the several types of “Bachillerato” is due to the fact that the new LOGSE-“Bachillerato” is coming into force.

tividad” (more formally: PAAUs = “Pruebas de Acceso a la Universidad” – aptitude tests), which are used as a criterion for the evaluation of the maturity and knowledge of the students.¹⁰ However, those students who have completed the COU can enter university schools and university colleges without passing the PAAUs. It is also noteworthy that the PAAUs are hardly a criterion of selection – since the majority of the students pass them (Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 148f.). Furthermore it is possible to enter some studies directly after finishing further education.

2.3 Tertiary education

Tertiary education in Spain means in general all post-secondary studies but above all university education (MEC 1996: 167). There are some other higher education institutions, such as schools for advanced Artistic Education, Tourism, higher grade Military Education ... and also the advanced-level specific vocational training belongs to tertiary education. But the number of students (in 1996-97: 85,344 according to INE) is, compared to those in university education very small. In the 1999-2000 course more than 1,58 million Spaniards (53,2% of them female) were enrolled in universities. Most of them belong to the 18 to 24 age group, which means that more than one quarter of this age group is studying.

Graphic 3: 1999-2000 course, students enrolled in university education as a proportion of the population, age group 18-24 (black: students) (Source: own elaboration through data by the MEC):



The distribution according to fields shows that almost half of these students chose subjects, which belong to Social Sciences and Law, although this proportion has been declining in the last few years. Only a minority is enrolled in Health Sciences and Experimental Sciences. Slightly more than one tenth is

¹⁰ This will change in future, the government announced recently the abolition of the PAAUs. Instead the pupils will have to pass a school leaving exam after the Bachillerato in order to obtain the title “Bachiller” (El País: 09/05/01).

studying Humanities and almost a quarter a technical subject. The proportion of students in these two fields has been increasing.

Table 4: Development of the number of enrolled students by field – 1994-2000 (Source: <http://www.mec.es/consejou/estadis/index.html>: 27/11/00):

	1994- 1995	1995- 1996	1996- 1997	1997- 1998	1998- 1999	1999- 2000
All fields – Total	1,440,259	1,497,867	1,544,162	1,552,372	1,570,568	1,581,415
Percentages						
Humanities	9,45.	9,61.	10,09.	10,56.	11,06.	11,36
Social Sciences and Law	53.2.	52.77.	51.83.	50.62.	49.44.	48,45
Experimental Sciences	8.13	8.42	8.36	8.48	8.57	8.9
Health Sciences	7.7	7.23	7.15	7.27	7.18	7.36
Technical subjects	21.52	21.97	22.57	23.07	23.76	23.92
Annual Increase						
All fields	6.38	4	3.09	0.53	1.17	0.69
Humanities	-2.16	5.77	8.2	5.28	5.9	3.42
Social Sciences and Law	7.32	3.17	1.25	-1.82	-1.2	-1.31
Experimental Sciences	10.42	7.69	2.41	1.89	2.27	4.61
Health Sciences	-0.67	-2.31	1.93	2.23	-0.08	3.22
Technical subjects	9.2	6.14	5.91	2.76	4.2	1.4

Female students form a majority in all fields, except Technical studies. The following table shows, that of all students graduating the proportion of women is even higher.

Table 5: University students, who graduated (course 1996-97), by field and sex (Source: Instituto de la Mujer: <http://www.mtas.es/mcifras/35y36.htm>: 2/2/01):

	Both sexes	Women	Men	% Women
All areas	189 194	111 161	78 033	58,76
Humanities	17 577	11 985	5 592	68,19
Social Sciences and Law	108 547	69 551	38 996	64,07
Experimental and Health Sciences	32 813	21 797	11 016	66,43
Technics	30 260	7 828	22 432	25,87

In the third cycle (doctorate) there are again more female students (50.37% in 1997-98) enrolled than male, nevertheless, more male students obtained the title of doctor in 1997 (58.32%) (<http://www.mtas.es/mujer/mcifras/37.htm>: 2/2/01). This will certainly change in future, because the proportion of women enrolled in doctoral-courses has risen continuously (e.g. it was only 40.7% in the term 1990-91). The effects of the increase of female doctoral-students are postponed for it is rare to finish the third-cycle and present a thesis in less than three years (Mora 2001: 142).

To conclude, most Spanish students in tertiary education are enrolled in university centres, that is, as we will see in the following chapters, mainly due to the Spanish university system, which includes almost all HE and also studies such as Social Work and Nursery Schools. Female students form a majority in all fields, except Technical studies. They also form, unlike in other OECD-states, a majority of the students in the third cycle, however, most of the students who obtained the title of doctor are male.

2.3.1 Pattern of study

The majority of Spanish students in public universities (and assigned centres) are enrolled in university education of two-cycles (61.2% of the total of students in 1998-99), only very few are in second-cycle only studies (1.4% in the same term), about one third (33.7%) chose first-cycle-only studies. Doctorate students were 3.8% of the studentship. Female students form the majority in *all* cycles.¹¹ A report¹², which aimed at the evaluation of the quality of universities, showed that the dropout quota is, especially in the first cycle, very high. In the academic year 1997-98 more than 84,400 students of the 230 investigated courses left university without obtaining any degree (while in the same subjects 177,714 students graduated). An analysis of the reasons for this would be very interesting; I assume that the high-drop-out is certainly connected with the bad studying conditions at many universities, the heavy load of lectures for all students and the insufficient scholarship policy. Those of the students who remained often did not achieve good marks. Despite that they have to pay tuition fees, only few Spanish students finish their studies in the time envisaged (El País: 27/11/00). In this respect it is noteworthy that the government announced that it wants to reduce the heavy load of tuition hours for the students.

¹¹ Percentages calculated through figures by INE 2000: 100ff. The distribution of female students according to cycle was as follows: 1st cycle-only: 32.4% 1st and 2nd cycle-studies: 62.4%, 2nd cycle-only: 1.6%, 3rd cycle: 3.6%.

¹² Consejo de Universidades (Ed.) (2000): Plan Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad de las Universidades. Informe Anual de la Segunda Convocatoria.

2.3.2 Fees vs. grants

The Spanish public university system is financed predominantly through state funds; the majority of the private money comes from tuition fees. The fees are about the same at the public universities but vary between fields and cycles (according to Calvo/Michavila 2000: 80 in the 1997-98 course the costs for a complete course varied between 661 Euros in technical subjects and 374 Euros in Economics, Law, History and Philology). The studies by which a special title (see: 3.1.1.3 Degrees) can be obtained are far more expensive than those of the first, second and third cycles. The minority of Spanish students who opted for a private university¹³ have to pay much higher fees, because fees are the main income-source of these institutions.¹⁴ Despite these quite high tuition fees, the Spanish state spent in 1997 only 0,09% of its GDP on scholarships¹⁵. The state does not give loans to the students (El País: 29/05/00). Moreover, the number of students who receive a grant is decreasing – in 2000-01 258,250 Spanish students receive a grant, fewer than in the previous years, although the number of students has risen during the same period (El País: 09/10/00).

The Instituto de la Mujer (Women's Institute), which is under the aegis of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, grants specific scholarships for female students, which are published in the Official Government Bulletin (BOE). Right now there are specific scholarships for already graduated women in "Women and Development" and for the training of women. The Instituto de la Mujer also grants general scholarships for all research in the field of women's studies.

¹³ 5,5% of all students in 1997-98..

¹⁴ According to Calvo/Michavila 2000: 77 more than 85% of their money comes from fees.

¹⁵ Compared to the average 0.29% by the OECD-countries.

3. Higher Education System

3.1 HE-institutions

3.1.1 University education

University education is available in Facultades (faculties), Escuelas Técnicas Superiores (polytechnics), Escuelas Universitarias (university schools) and in Colegios Universitarios (university colleges).

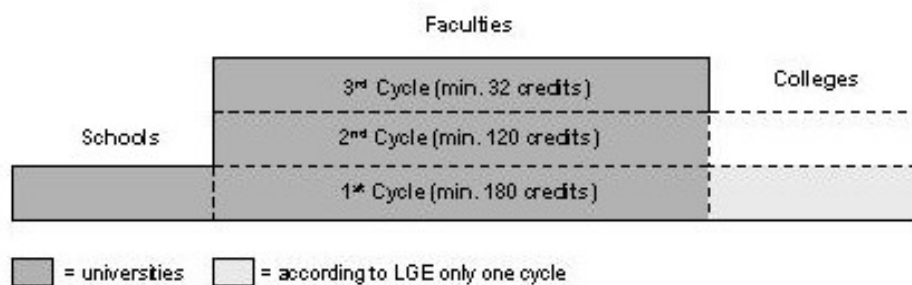
The university colleges were founded through the LGE in 1970. They offer according to the law university education of the first cycle (see: 3.1.1.3 Degrees), but in practice some also offer the second-cycle. The aim of the foundation of this type of institutions was to offer HE also in regions where previously there had not been any university education available. University colleges are private, but some of them are assigned to universities. Through the same law the former “Escuelas profesionales de grado medio” (middle level vocational schools)¹⁶ were incorporated into the universities as university schools. These institutions also offer university education of short cycle (first cycle) that is of three years duration. Also the polytechnics were integrated through the LGE into the university system. Therefore, practically all HE in Spain is available at universities. This development is similar to that introduced in Sweden (in 1977 and 1993) and in the U.K. (in 1992) in which all types of HE-institutions were incorporated into a single system as well (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 91f.). In contrast, in some other European states new non-university institutions were founded like the Fachhochschulen in Germany and Austria.

3.1.1.1 Relationship among faculties, schools and colleges

In the following graphic I have tried to visualize the relationship and difference between faculties, schools and colleges:

¹⁶ The “Escuelas de Comercio”, “Escuelas de Magisterio”, “Escuelas de Ayudantes Técnicos Sanitarios” and “Escuelas de Ingeniería Técnica”.

Graphic 3: Relationship among faculties, schools and colleges (Source: Own elaboration):



After finishing the first cycle in a school or college one can only enter directly into the 2nd cycle of long cycle studies, if they are similar to the ones studied before (e.g. after studying the first cycle of Physical Education entering Physical and Sports Activity Science). Some 2nd cycle disciplines (long-cycle or second-cycle only studies) can be entered after taking complementary courses (e.g. Humanities, Translation and Interpretation, History and Science of Music), regardless of the discipline studied before.

3.1.1.2 Relevance of Numerus Clausus

A majority of the courses available at Spanish universities are subject to a “numerus clausus“, that is a restricted entry (according to MEC 1996: 167 about 70 percent in 1991-92). Examples for courses that are currently in great demand in the Community of Madrid are Journalism and Computer Science, courses with a low demand are Hebrew and Italian Philology (Estudiantes: 10/2000). Therefore many students have to study a subject other than the one they originally planned to or to opt for a private university (Estudiantes 8-9/2000), as long as they can afford this (cf.: 2.3.2 Fees vs. grants). However, the currently huge number of students at Spanish universities (as already mentioned: 1.58 Million in the term 1999-2000) will decrease within the next 15 years, due to the very low fertility rate (cf. for example: Delgado 1999). Therefore, I claim that restricted entries in many subjects could be abolished in the near future.¹⁷

¹⁷ This opinion is obviously shared by the Minister for Education, Mrs. Pilar de Castillo. She declared that the general entrance examinations are no longer useful and should be abolished, as the number of students is declining (ABC 21/04/05).

3.1.1.3 Degrees

The degrees which can be obtained at Spanish universities can be subdivided into:

- *Títulos oficiales* (official titles): Diplomado/Arquitecto técnico/Ingeniero técnico, Licenciado/ Ingeniero/Arquitecto, Doctor
- *Títulos propios de cada Universidad* (special diplomas of every university)

The official titles are valid in the whole Spanish territory; they are recognized directly by public institutions and serve as qualifications for certain professions. Official titles can be subdivided according to requirements (cycles) and fields of studies:

University education of first cycle (short cycle): The first cycle is three years and requires a minimum of 180 credits (one credit: 10 hours of class). The degree obtained on completing this cycle is *Arquitecto técnico* (technical architect), *Ingeniero técnico* (technical engineer) or *Diplomado* (graduate of three years). By taking courses in complementary subjects one can also complete this cycle.

University education of first and second cycle (long cycle): These studies are of four, five or six years with a minimum of 300 credits. After completing both cycles one obtains the degree either of *Arquitecto* (architect), *Ingeniero* (engineer) or *Licenciado* (graduate).

University education of second cycle only: This cycle can be entered after completing the first cycle of another course. The university education of second cycle only lasts two years with a required minimum of 120 credits. After completing it one obtains the same qualifications as after finishing long cycle studies.

None of this cycles requires a final thesis, but in some universities one has to make internships in order to finish some courses.

University education of third cycle: The required qualification to be admitted to this cycle is either to hold the degree of *Arquitecto* (architect), *Ingeniero* (engineer) or *Licenciado* (graduate). After completing this cycle (with a required minimum of 32 credits) and submitting a post-graduate thesis, which has been approved, one obtains the degree of *Doctor*.

The advantage of this – at first sight quite complicated – system, which is divided into studies of first cycle, first and second cycle and second cycle only, is its flexibility. Students have, for example, the opportunity to enter the second-

cycle only after completing one-cycle courses or after finishing the first-cycle of a two-cycle course (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 101).

The universities also offer post-graduate studies. By completing them the students obtain titles, which are awarded by the corresponding universities. They are neither officially recognized nor officially valid. However, holding such a degree is certainly advantageous in the labour market. These *títulos propios* can be – according to their requirements – subdivided into:

- Magister Universitario or Master
- Especialista Universitario or Diploma de postgrado
- Experto Universitario (<http://www.mec.es/inf/comoinfo/acceso99-1.htm>: 25/09/00; Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 254 ff.; DAP 2000: 87 ff.).

3.1.2 Non-university higher education

Universities do not offer some HE-programmes: these are advanced-level specific vocational training, Artistic Education, advanced-level Military Training and other post-secondary studies. Advanced-level specific vocational training is taught at the same institutions that offer the intermediate level. In order to enter it, holding the title “Bachiller” is usually required, however, access is also possible after passing a special exam. The degree awarded by finishing it is “Técnico Superior”. Artistic Education is offered in several autonomous regions, it contains studies like Conservation and Restoration, Music and Dance, Dramatic Art, ... The degrees obtained by finishing it may be equivalent to those awarded by the universities. Advanced-level Military Training is taught at military academies, it can be entered after passing the university entrance exams and competitive entrance examinations of the academies themselves. Other post-secondary studies such as Civil Aviation, Public Relations, Interior architects also belong, from a Spanish point of view, to HE (INE 2000: 57 ff). The significance of these institutions is not very great, because, as already mentioned, the number of students enrolled is rather small.

3.2 Legal Status

3.2.1 The legislative framework

The following laws regulate the Spanish university system:

- The “General Education Act” (LGE) of 1970
- The Spanish Constitution of 1978

- The “Law on University Reform” (LRU) of 1983
- Act 9/1992

Since the beginning of the 19th century Spanish universities could be described as what is known as the Napoleonic model: the universities are public, depend on the central administration, and are financed by the state. Research has less importance than teaching (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 36). This changed drastically with the reestablishment of democracy, the autonomy of universities was considered so important, that it was even written down in the new constitution of 1978. However, the efficient regulation of this autonomy was blocked due to political divergences for years. The victory of the Socialist Party in the elections of 1982 signified a volte-face. This party planned reforms in many fields, among others in education. One of their first legislative acts was therefore passing the Law of University Reform in 1983, which amended the LGE of 1970. The new law changed the university system in various respects, fundamentally (Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 3ff.). First, it regulated the autonomy of the universities by conceding them the right to draw up their statutes, their budgets, the election, appointment and dismissal of their governing bodies, the establishment and modification of their posts, the elaboration and approval of their courses of study or research, the admission, regulation of enrolment and evaluation of the knowledge of students and the granting of titles and diplomas (www.mec.es/inf/comoinfo/acceso99-1.htm: 25/9/00). Second it created two new governing bodies, the universities council and the social council (see: 3.4 Administration and organisation). Furthermore it aimed at improving research and teaching and establishing an authentically departmental structure. Another important change introduced by the act was the transfer of state competencies over universities to some regional communities. Through the coming into force of the Act 9/1992 all public universities were henceforth attached to their autonomous region (Cebreiro/San Segundo 1998: 361). Since 1997 all of the 17 autonomous regions have achieved full responsibility in the field of education (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 103). They have the right to found new universities or recognise private ones and to determine the amount of financial support, which every university in its territory receives as well as to fix the tuition fees (Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 233f.). At the state level there remains the “Ministry for Education and Culture” (MEC) responsible for the supervision of the education system, the establishment of the general norms, for the scholarship-policy, the “University for Distance Learning” (UNED) and the Universidad Internacional Menéndez Pelayo (www.mec.es/inf/comoinfo/acceso99-1.htm: 25/9/00; El País: 09/10/00; Calvo/ Michavila 2000: 103).

To conclude, after the granting of autonomy to the universities and the recently massive transfer of power to the regions, the competencies are now distributed

among three levels: State, autonomous regions and universities. It is obvious that the remaining responsibility of the state is very limited. Undoubtedly, a decentralized university system can more efficiently meet the new demands put on universities. Therefore it must be considered a positive development. However, this decentralization combined with the founding of new universities, which often have a strong regional element (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 75), does not seem to be without its problems. For example the Universidad Rovira i Virgili in the autonomous region of Catalonia established norms, that clearly discriminated against the use of Castellano, the official language of Spain, in favour of the regional language, Catalan (El País 27/1/2001).

3.2.2 Who operates universities?

Spain has both private and public universities. The majority are public (50); six are run by the Catholic Church and twelve by other private organisations. A high number of both private and public institutions have been founded very recently – in the period 1985 to 1995 21 new universities were created throughout the Spanish territory (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 28)! This development is strongly related to the rising number of students, the new demands put on research and teaching and the efforts towards a more decentralized education system (Felones Morrás 1998: 98f.).

3.2.3 Evaluation

There is no accreditation-agency in Spain and until now evaluation of the universities is not compulsory. The only evaluation, which universities undergo, is the voluntary National Plan for Evaluation of University Quality, which was introduced in 1995 and is coordinated by the universities council. The aim of the plan is not only promoting university quality, it also wishes to provide a common procedure for evaluations at all universities. The evaluation is divided into three steps: first, self-evaluation, second, external evaluation and third, submitting a report, which shows strong and weak points and contains proposals for improvement. The universities themselves provide the data and choose which courses to evaluate. The last published report presents the results of the second evaluation round of 1998. 51 public and private universities took part and 230 degrees (together with the offering departments) were evaluated (Consejo de Universidades 2000: 9ff.). Recently experts demanded not only the introduction

of compulsory university evaluation; but also that the results of these evaluations should have consequences (El País: 11/12/00).¹⁸

3.3 Finance

The financing of the universities is a common target of criticism. On the one hand the tuition fees and the number of students are increasing from year to year. On the other hand the number of scholarships for students is decreasing (El País: 9/10/00). However, the expenditure on HE has increased considerably during the last few years, from 0.6% of the GDP in 1985 to its present 1.1%, which situates Spain among the average of the OECD countries (Bricall 2000: 27).

The *public universities*, as already mentioned, are predominantly financed through state funds (about 76% according to El País: 25/9/2000). The remaining money comes mainly from tuition fees. Other sources, such as money from R&D, returns on their assets and incomes from unregulated education, play only a minor role. Compared with the other member states of the European Union the contribution of the private sector to the budget of the public universities is therefore among the highest in the whole Union; only the UK and Ireland have a higher share. These two countries, however, spend more on indirect financial supports (such as scholarships) to their students (Bricall 2000: 27f.). The *private universities* are financed mainly through tuition fees. In 2000 the income of those of the newer private universities, which were a minimum of four years old (and therefore already had a stable budget), was composed as follows: 86.7% from tuition fees, 6.7% from donations, 6% from incomes from research and 0.6% financial incomes (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 76f.).

The expenditure as a proportion of GDP does not correspond with the quality of the university institutions. The indicator by which this can be best measured is the expenditure per student. Spain spent in 1995 \$4.944 on every student (private and public universities), while it was \$8.134 on average in the OECD countries. Among the members of the EU only Greece spent less than Spain.

By comparing the expenditure of the Spanish universities with those of their European counterparts two aspects are notable: First, the lower remuneration of the teaching staff. The average remuneration of the teaching personnel was \$27,025 in 2000, while Italy paid \$44,404, Ireland \$54,336 and Belgium \$56,917. And second, in contrast to the low salaries of teachers, the high share

¹⁸ The government announced recently that a National Agency for Evaluation and Accreditation will be created. However, evaluations will stay voluntary (El País: 09/05/01).

of investments (equipment, buildings) of the total expenses (in 1995: 21% compared to an average 12% in most OECD-countries). However, this was mainly due to the founding of many new universities and the improvement of equipment of the campuses at that time and will therefore certainly decline in future (Bricall 2000: 27ff.).

3.4 Administration and organisation

The administrative collegial body, which operates on a national level, is the *Consejo de Universidades*. The responsibilities of the universities council are university regulation, coordination and planning as well as proposing the candidates for teaching posts and the discussion about them. The Minister of Education and Science (at present a woman: Pilar del Castillo) is the president of this council. Further members are the chancellors of the public universities, those responsible for university education in the autonomous regions and 15 persons with knowledge of HE, who are appointed for four years (LRU, título III).¹⁹ According to Sánchez Ferrer (1996: 260) this body plays, which is not a surprise given its important competences, a decisive role in defining university politics.

Every university has a so-called *Claustro universitario* (senate), which is the highest representative organ of the university. It draws up the statutes, elects the chancellor and approves the general lines of activity of the university. Its composition and functions are determined through its statutes (www.mec.es/inf/comoinfo/acceso99-6.htm: 25/9/00). Furthermore all universities have an executive collegiate body called *Junta de Gobierno*. This governing board is composed of the chancellor, the vice chancellors, university administrator (Gerente) and the secretary general of the corresponding university (Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 300). The *Consejo social* is a peculiar collegiate body of Spanish universities. Its function is to represent the social interests in the management of every university. It consists therefore not only of members of the governing board but also of members of labour and trade unions among others. It is responsible for the approval of the budget, which is proposed by the senate. Furthermore it provides its services, promotes the collaboration of society in financial terms, supervises in general all economic activities of the universities and approves the special titles granted by them (see

¹⁹ Through the envisaged new university law (LU) the composition of this body might be restructured. In the new “Council for University Coordination” the private universities shall also become members and the number of its members who are appointed by the Congreso de los Diputados, the senate and the government will be augmented (El País 09/05/01).

3.1.1.3 Degrees) and the tuition fees (<http://www.mec.es/inf/comoinfo/acceso99-6.htm>: 25/9/00; DAP 2000: 18). The programs offered by every department, in every subject, have to contain the minimum contents fixed by this body. Even though its responsibilities seem – at first sight – to be far-reaching it turned out that its competences and its efficiency in practice are very limited (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 110, Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 261 ff.).

The unipersonal body with the most power is the *Rector* (chancellor). He/she is the maximum academic authority of every university. S/he represents and manages it and carries out the agreements of the three above described collegial bodies: university senate, governing board and social council. The qualification required in order to become chancellor is that of university professor. S/he is nominated for four years by the university senate, with the possibility of re-election.²⁰ S/he elects her/his own team of university management, the governing board (Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 307). This highest post in university management is until now a domain of men – in 2000 only one of the more than sixty Spanish universities had a female chancellor (Calvo/Michavila 2000: 162).²¹

Every *faculty* has a dean, at least one vice-dean and a secretary. The *university schools* and *colleges* have a director, at least one sub director and a secretary. Also the university institutes, whose functions are research or artistic creation, and the departments are presided over by a director and there can also be a deputy-director and a secretary.

Departments are the basic units responsible for the organisation and development of research and training in their respective areas of knowledge. Every university decides for itself which departments to create. A department has to have at least 12 full-time posts; five of them have to be university professors or senior university lecturers. The universities define the scope of knowledge imparted by each department. Departmental functions include research, the organisation of courses for each academic year, organisation and development of doctoral courses and coordinating the preparation and direction of doctoral theses as well as the promotion and undertaking of work of a scientific, technical or artistic nature and courses of specialisation (Páramo de la Plaza/Vicente Pérez 2000:

²⁰ The election-procedure for the chancellor could be changed through the new University Law (LU). It is envisaged that the Chancellor will be elected, after an election-campaign, by the whole university. The votes of students, professors and administrative and administrative personnel shall be weighted (El País: 09/05/01). However, the contents of the LU are still hotly disputed (see: El País: 22/05/01).

²¹ Before that only once did a Spanish university have a female Chancellor – the UNED from 1982-87.

17). The departments in which several professors work together were created through the LRU in order to promote research. They substituted the former chairholder system.

The forthcoming reform of the LRU will probably lead to some restructuring of the university collegiate bodies as their current structure seems to be a target of criticism. This is especially true for the governing board and the social council (e.g.: Michavila/Calvo 2000; Bricall 2000; see also: 3.7.1 Debate).²²

3.5 Staff

3.5.1 Lecturers wanted

One of the main problems of Spanish universities is to deal with the crush of students, whose number rose from 20,000 in 1898 to 71,000 in 1960 to its present more than 1.58 million. Due to the huge increases in intake more and more lecturers have been required. At the beginning of the seventies efforts in order to augment the number of permanent lecturers were made. One of the main purposes of the LGE of 1970 was therefore integrating assistant lecturers (*agregados*), who had only been on four-year contracts until then, into the permanent teaching staff. The law established that they and the laboratory assistants who held a doctorate and some years of experience could sit restricted competitive examinations in order to take up permanent posts.

Furthermore the law enabled the universities to employ assistants on two-year contracts. Also the LRU of 1983 aimed at integrating lecturers on short-term contracts into the permanent teaching bodies. Anyone who held a doctorate on the July 10, 1983 and had been employed in teaching and research for five years or was working on a short-term contract or temporarily in the categories of associate teacher, assistant, assistant lecturer or university professor was admitted to the permanent category of senior university lecturer by passing a “*prueba de idoneidad*” (examination of ability). Through the same law the former category of *agregado* was eliminated and its members became university professors. Thus the majority of lecturers became civil servants (*Páramo de la Plaza/Vicente Pérez* 2000: 18f.). Female teachers have certainly benefited from this policy (*García de Cortázar/García de León* 1997: 23). However, as a study of the fe-

²² This assessment turned out to be right. The government announced that it will strengthen in the new University Law (LU) the management power of the chancellor and the governing board, which would weaken the Senate and social council. The representation of members of labour and trade unions is no longer foreseen (*El País*: 09/05/01).

male teachers of the Universidad de Complutense shows, the proportion of women of the total of female teachers in the most aspired to category, namely university professors, remained almost the same (Almarcha Barbado/González Jorge 1995: 128f.).

3.5.2 Categories

The permanent public university teaching staff are civil servants and belong to one of the following categories:

- Profesores titulares de Escuelas Universitarias (senior university school lecturers)
- Catedráticos de Escuelas Universitarias (university school professors)
- Profesores titulares de Universidad (senior university lecturers)
- Catedráticos de Universidad (university professors)

University professors and senior university lecturers are entitled to carry out teaching and research whereas university school professors and senior university school lecturers have full teaching capacity but are only entitled to undertake research when they hold a doctorate. In theory, tenured staff could work part-time. However, almost all professors and lecturers work full-time, because “regulations [salary!] discourage people from holding part-time positions” (Mora 2001: 138). More than half of the teaching body belongs to these categories and therefore holds a tenured position.

Universities can also offer temporary contracts to associate teachers and visiting professors. In addition the universities can hold competitive examinations to take on assistants for the purpose of completing their scientific training. They can collaborate in teaching tasks.²³

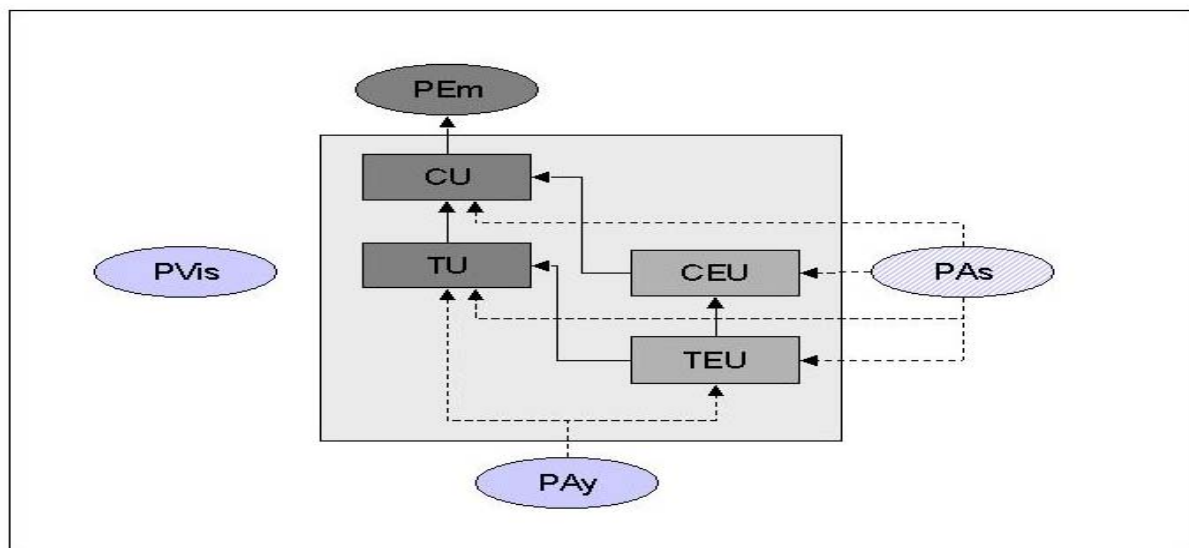
Furthermore there exists the non-tenured category of interim-professor (interim university professor, interim university lecturer, interim university school professor and interim university school lecturer). Vacant positions are provisionally filled with persons who fulfil the requirements for the corresponding four ten-

²³ The categories of tenured personnel will not change. However, the new LU will certainly introduce new categories of contracted personnel. The ministry wants universities in future universities to be able to contract assistant doctors, collaborating assistants and contracted doctors. The contracts of assistant professors shall be four years, instead of currently two. Furthermore the universities shall hire personnel for the purpose to assist teaching, research or technical staff The personnel belonging to hired staff might be a maximum 49% of the teaching body (El País 09/05/01).

ured posts. In the last few years “the total number of these positions is declining as the system becomes more stable” (Mora 2001: 141). In 1999 the absolute figure of interim university professors was only six, but 1221 positions have been filled by interim university lecturers and interim university school lecturers (ibid.).

Interns, graduate students who receive grants, do not belong to university personnel. Most of them are preparing their theses and collaborating in research teams. The position as an intern “is increasingly becoming the first step on the university ladder” (ibid.: 139).

Graphic 4: Categories of the teaching body (Source: Own elaboration):



- CU - Catedráticos de Universidad (university professors);
- TU - Titulares de Universidad (senior university lecturers);
- CEU - Catedráticos Escuelas Universitarias (university school professors);
- TEU – Titulares de Universidad (university school lecturers);
- PAs - Profesores Asociados (associate teachers);
- PAy - Profesores Ayudantes (assistants);
- PEm - Profesores Eméritos (emeriti professors);
- PVis - Profesores Visitantes (visiting professors);

3.5.3 Entry into the teaching body

The examinations held for the admission of candidates into the permanent teaching body are very similar, only the composition of the commission that adjudicates the results differs between the four categories. In principle the commissions are made up of five members of the permanent staff, who are specialised in the field of knowledge to which the post corresponds. Two of its members (one of them the president of the commission) are chosen by the university itself, the other three are appointed by the universities council. The examinations consist of two parts: first, the submission and discussion of the academic and research record of the candidate and his/her teaching project. Second, the exposition and defence of a special subject, chosen by the candidate herself/himself.

To apply for the post of *senior university school lecturer* it is usually necessary to hold the degree of graduate, architect or engineer. Some university schools also accept the qualifications of graduate of three years, technical architect or technical engineer. The president of the commission, which evaluates the merits of the candidate, has to be either a university school professor or university professor. The second member chosen by the university has to be a senior university school lecturer. In order to apply for the post of *university school professor* or *senior university lecturer* one has to hold a doctorate. The president of the commission for the position of *university school professor* has to be a university professor. The second member chosen by the university has to be a university school professor. In the commission, which decides whether one gets the post of *senior university lecturer* or not the president has to be a university professor. One of the members assigned by the universities council has to be a university professor, the other two senior university lecturers. In order to take the competitive exam for *university professor* one has to be either qualified as a university professor already or to be a senior university lecturer or to be a university school professor of at least three years standing. Five university professors decide upon the result of the examination (Páramo de la Plaza/Vicente Pérez 2000:18ff.; Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 243 ff.).²⁴

Generally, it cannot be assumed that the hiring through competitive examinations, which are open to the public, guarantees that discrimination does not happen. It is well known, that the changes in the selection process through the LRU

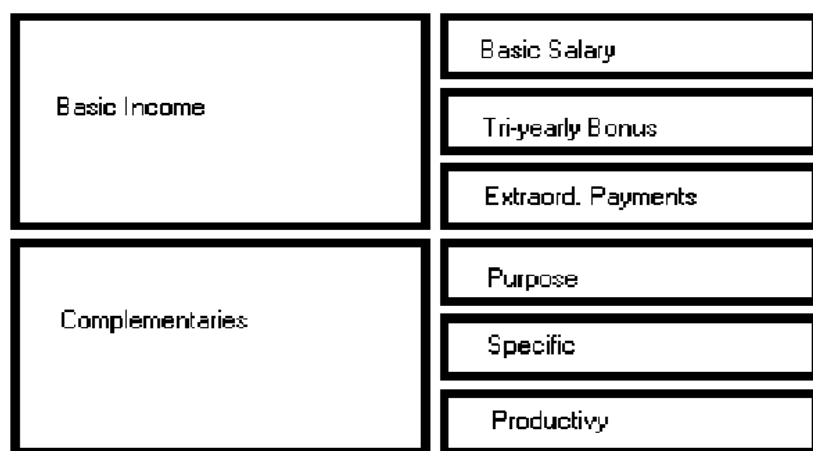
²⁴ The selection process will probably change through the new University Law: it is planned to introduce a national “habilitation”. After announcing a vacancy the universities should choose ex posterior an already habilitated professor to fill it (El País 09/05/01). However, this intention is strongly criticised by the “Council of Chancellors” (CRUE) – they call it a “pseudo-habilitation” (El País 22/05/01).

strengthened endogamy²⁵. For example García de Cortázar/García de León (1997) writes that if a candidate is promoted by her/his university, and especially by her/his department, it is much more likely that s/he will finally obtain the position aspired to (ibid.: 48). The requirements for promotion vary from university to university, some of them focus more on research merits (e.g. Carlos III in Madrid) of the candidates than others, and some of the universities take seniority into account above all (e.g. Complutense de Madrid).

3.5.4 Payments

The payments of the permanent teaching staff are the same at all universities, however the social council of each university (on a proposal by the governing board) can decide on remunerations on an individual basis. The payment consists, as we can see in the following graphic, of two parts: basic income and complementaries:

Graphic 5: Items of payments for academic staff (Source: Gurrea Casamayor 1997: 120):



The basic income consists of basic salary, tri-yearly bonus and extraordinary payments. There are five basic-income groups for civil servants, for university staff members there is only one relevant, group A, with currently 988.12 Euros²⁶ per month. The tri-yearly bonus, currently 37.95 Euros for group A, is paid for every three years of standing. Extraordinary payments are two additional salaries per year (in June and December), these additional payments only include

²⁵ To avoid endogamy, vacancies in German universities have to be filled by applicants from other universities (“Hausberufungsverbot”).

²⁶ All figures for 2001 (BOE – Boletín del Estado, number 3: 141ff.).

basic salary and tri-yearly bonus. Complementaries can be separated into complementaries of purpose, specific complementaries and complementaries for productivity. The complementaries for purpose are divided into three levels: one special level for university professors, one for university school professors and university lecturers and one for university school lecturers. The specific complementaries are divided into a general component, a singular component and a component of teaching merits. The general component varies between the categories, and is of course highest for the university professors. The singular component is connected with the holding of an academic post, such as chancellor, dean, and so on. One receives the component of teaching merits when the university considers his/her teaching qualification sufficient. The amount varies between the categories and if one holds a full-time or a part-time position. It is paid for every five years of standing. After the evaluation of the research activities by the National Commission of Evaluation one can receive the component for productivity, the amount of which is paid for every six years of research (Arias Rodríguez 1997: 183ff.). Generally speaking, the payments of permanent university teaching staff consist of the same items as those of all civil servants plus incentives for research and teaching activities.

Mora (2001) estimated the average yearly incomes of academic staff in 1998 as follows: University professors earn about \$56,500, university lecturers and university school professors around \$42,500²⁷, associate professors with a doctor's degree approximately \$31,200, associates between \$25,700 and \$37,000 and assistants between \$19,500 and \$16,300 (ibid.: 152).²⁸

3.5.5 The PROPORTION OF WOMEN by categories

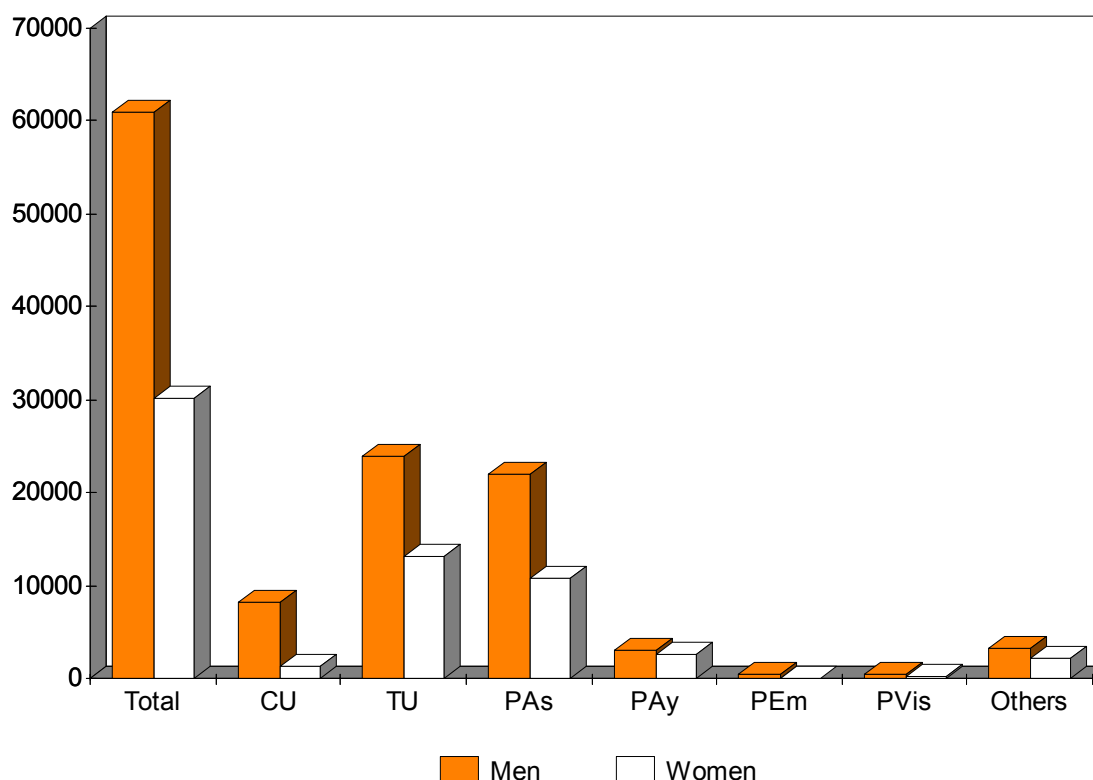
The following diagram shows the figure of male teachers by category and the respective figure for women in 1998 at all Spanish universities.²⁹

²⁷ Without singular component.

²⁸ Converted by the purchasing power parity conversion rate.

²⁹ For the numbers broken down by subject see:
<http://www.ine.es/daco/daco/42/ensenan/98eetb10.htm>
<http://www.ine.es/daco/daco/42/ensenan/98eetb11.htm>
 and

Diagram 1: Teaching staff by category and sex in 1998 (Source: Own elaboration through figures by the INE).



CU - Catedráticos de Universidad (university professors);

TU - Titulares de Universidad (senior university lecturers);

PAs - Profesores Asociados (associate teachers);

PAy - Profesores Ayudantes (assistants);

PEm - Profesores Eméritos (emeriti professors);

PVis - Profesores Visitantes (visiting professors);

Others (university school lecturers, university school professors, interim-professors, and others);

It can be observed that the proportion of women is lowest in the highest categories (university professor with 13.8% like in other European states and – which is not surprising taking into account the generational dimension – in the category of emeriti professors (12.8%). The category with the highest figure of women is – again not surprisingly – that of assistants (47.2%), which is the one with fewest career prospects. The reasons for this are twofold. First, there are hardly any vacancies which could be filled (the growth of the HE-system has stopped, therefore no new posts are established and the current staff is too young for retirement, as it was mainly hired in the last two decades). Second, the position of

interns is becoming more and more the key step into an academic career (cf. Mora 2001: 139).

What is remarkable, however, is that the newer universities tend to have a higher proportion of women in the professorate as well as the larger universities in Barcelona and Madrid. The explanation given for the latter is that large universities are more cosmopolitan and offer all kinds of studies but above all those in women-dominated fields such as the Humanities. In the case of the newer universities the authors argue that there are not male-dominated networks established, which could be disadvantageous for female candidates (García de Cortázar/García de León 1997: 28). These institutions may also be “women friendlier” because these universities often have a worse reputation than the older ones and the teachers have a higher work load. One could assume therefore that it is also easier for women to achieve a teaching position at some of the new universities because these posts are not so attractive. Unfortunately there are until now no studies about this available. As far as one aim of our project, namely identifying examples of institutions in which women have better chances is concerned, we have to keep such distorting factors in mind. The proportion of women in the private universities is below that at the public universities, regardless of whether they are run by a secular body or by the Catholic Church. One reason might be that teachers at private universities often have to impart more hours of class (at the expense of research activities and/or family duties), than at public universities and this is of course more disadvantageous for women.

3.5.6 Post-doctoral career

After finishing the thesis, one can qualify for a permanent position in a faculty. A study of female professors shows, that one out of four interviewed women achieved a permanent position within two years after obtaining the title of doctor, after four years six out of 10 belonged to the permanent teaching staff. The time span after finishing the thesis to obtaining a position as a senior university lecturer varies between the disciplines. A high percentage of women in the fields of Social Sciences (38.4%), Health Sciences (21.1%) and Humanities (22.3%) achieved within two years a position as senior university lecturer. Women in Experimental Sciences had to wait much longer, only 7.6% were senior university lecturers within two years after finishing the thesis. Five years later, more than half of the women in Experimental Sciences and almost 40% of those in Humanities still did not hold a permanent position. The time in order to qualify as a university professor is even longer. On average the interviewed female professors had to wait for it 7.19 years after becoming a senior university lecturer and again, the women in Humanities (8 years) and in Experimental Sciences

(7.94 years) had to wait longest. The majority of the interviewed women (7 out of 10) achieved the position by taking their first competitive exam to qualify as a university professor. Lamentably, a comparative analysis with the total of professors is not possible due to the lack of data (García de Cortázar/García de León 1997: 45ff.).

3.5.7 Women in research institutes

The “Council for Scientific Research” (CSIC) is by far the biggest multidisciplinary research body, with about 100 centres throughout the Spanish territory. It operates some of its institutes directly, some jointly with universities or with other institutions or regional governments. Currently about 2000 scientists, 1500 trainees and 3300 researchers and technicians work for it. The CSIC institutes carry out research in almost all fields, but most of them focus on Experimental Sciences and Technology (The World of Learning 2001: 1436). Iglesias de Usel/Trinidad Requena (1996) estimated that the CSIC conducts about 90% of all research in Spain.

There are three categories for scientific personnel, the highest category, research professor, is equivalent to that of university professor. The proportion of women of all three categories is about 30%³⁰, which is similar to that of university teachers. Most women belong to the lowest category, scientific collaborators (36.4% of total), about 26% of the scientific researchers, the middle category, are female and only very few women are research professors (11.2% of the total). A closer look at the distribution according to fields reveals that most women are in Humanities and Social Sciences (35.9%) and fewer in the field of Science and Technology of Physics (19.6%) (García de Cortázar/García de León 1997: 30f.).

3.6 Equal opportunity measures

Even though the percentage of female academic staff (without the category of emeritus professor: 32.6%) is below the employment rate of Spanish women, there have not been until now affirmative actions introduced at Spanish universities. Furthermore, Spanish universities are not obliged to offer childcare facilities, e.g. the huge Universidad Complutense de Madrid, with its about 110,000 students and more than 6000 teachers (DAP 2000: 21) does not provide such a service.

³⁰ All percentages for 1995.

3.7 Current issues

3.7.1 Debate

The introduction of equal opportunity measures for women and the under representation of them among university professors are not issues.³¹ The most discussed topic concerning universities during the last few months was the proposed reform of the 1983 Law of University Reform. There have been many attempts at reform, but none has been implemented. In 1998 Josep María Bricall, ex-chancellor of the association of European chancellors, at that time in charge of making an expert report on the Spanish universities, described the Spanish university polemic as follows: “The Spanish university is like Yugoslavia ruled by Tito, but without Tito“ [my translation]. He strongly criticized the fact that the chancellors do not have enough power with regard to the governing board and wanted therefore to strengthen their position and in general review all bodies (El País: 01/12/1998). The report by Bricall, the Informe 2000, was finally presented to the public in March 2000 and caused an intense debate. It contains a detailed analysis of the situation in the Spanish universities and proposes, for example to increase within the next 10 years the budget for HE (so that it rises from its present 1.1% of GDP to 1.5%) and to classify degrees into four nationally acknowledged types: A, B, C and D. A and C are the more academic disciplines, B and D are more job oriented (El País: 25/09/00³²). In June 2000, the ruling “People’s Party” (PP), announced that it wants to decentralize and deregulate the university system even more. Therefore, according to Vicente Ortega, the secretary general of the universities council, the autonomous regions should in future obtain more power so that they can convert the general guidelines given by the government into specific laws (El País: 12/06/00). The team of the Informe 2000, known as Informe Bricall, demanded an immediate reform of the LRU in autumn. According to El País the chancellors of the universities were “very worried“ that the government could not agree on a new law in the first half of the parliamentary term. However, the government did not announce until then, if it was going to take the report on reform into consideration or not. At the same time the government of the region of Catalonia and the Catalan chancellors said that they would prefer small adaptations of the LRU, so that the reform does not have to be approved by the full assembly (El País: 25/09/00). In October a group of experts, coordinated by the president of the Fundación de Investigaciones Educativas y Sindicales (foundation of research in the fields of

³¹ A search after related articles in the editions of the two main newspapers yielded almost no results: Only one quite old article in El Mundo (04/03/00) dealt with the under representation of women in academic posts and university staff), one article in El País (18/04/98) informed about the (in this report often quoted study) by Garcíá de Cortazar/García de León.

³² For a more detailed insight see: <http://www.crue.upm.es>.

education and unions), Salvador Bangueses, again presented a report devoted to the modernisation of the university system. They proposed above all abolishing the governing boards and replacing them with supervision boards in order to avoid the *a priori* control of management. In addition they demanded better training of the administrative and service personnel to facilitate the work of the research and teaching staff and a reform of the third cycle (El País: 09/10/00). In January 2001 the Government announced once again the immediate reform of the university law. The main objectives seem now to be clear: the reform shall change the selection and access of teaching staff, improve the promotion of lecturers, promote stability within the teaching body by creating new lecturer categories and strengthen the universities council, which “plays an important role of cohesion as far as the competencies of the autonomous regions are concerned” [my translation]. The chancellors still demand a flexible law which takes the proposals made by Bricall into account (El País: 15/01/01). For the moment I cannot evaluate the chances of the suggestions made by the Informe Bricall or by Salvador Bangueses being put into practice. It is certain, however, that many of the proposals made by Bricall are very controversial. The government of the region of Catalonia and the Catalan chancellors are not the only ones who tend to prefer a more moderate reform (although obviously it is just to speed up the reform). Above all many students seem to be against several of its suggestions (see: <http://www.ucm.es/info/uepei/au.html>) or criticize at least their lack of development (El Mundo: 3/10/00). As far as women are concerned two of the possible changes due to the reform are disquieting: First, further decentralization would certainly make the general introduction of equal opportunity measures even more unlikely. Second, the creation of new lecturer categories bears the risk that new unstable “women-categories” might appear.³³

3.7.2 Adoption of EU regulations/standards

In 1999 twenty-nine European countries, among them Spain, signed the Statement of Bologna, which aims at promoting a common HE-system. Therefore the Spanish universities will change their current credit system and adapt it to the European model. The credit system, which is based exclusively on hours of

³³ Meanwhile the ministry has presented a draft on the new university law to the public. The main changes foreseen affect the selection process of the teaching body, the election of the chancellors and changes in the composition of the university management bodies (for a detailed list of all planned changes see: <http://www.elpais.es>). These intentions are strongly criticised by the Council of Chancellors (CRUE) (see: El País: 22/05/01), so that I assume it is very likely that the draft by the ministry will be modified. As to how far a modification would take the proposals by the chancellors into account, this cannot be evaluated now.

class,³⁴ will in future take the specific amount of work, which every subject requires (practical training, seminars, exams, ...), into account by adopting the standards already used by the Erasmus and Socrates programmes. Furthermore the system of marks will be modified. Currently there are only four categories (pass, notable, excellent and passed with distinction); they will be replaced by a numerical system (from 0 to 10) with one decimal place. As a third measure in order to harmonize the various HE-systems, the signing countries will implement a supplement to the degrees, which will reproduce the curriculum in the new system of grades and credits using a second EU-language. This measure will facilitate the recognition of degrees in all EU-member states (El País: 18/12/00).³⁵

3.7.3 Is there a shift towards the market?

Currently it is very common in all modern societies to demand the adaptation of their education systems to the requirements of the market. Whether such an adaptation has already taken place in Spain or will at least do so in the near future and to what extent, has to be evaluated very carefully. I will limit myself to mentioning briefly a few developments, which can be interpreted as signs of such a trend towards the market and the commercialisation of universities. First I would like to refer to the foundation of the "Offices for the Transfer of the Results of Research" (OTRIs) in 1989. These offices aim at promoting relations between university and business and above all at a transfer of the scientific-technical offerings of the universities to the production sector. The foundation of such an institution is clearly intent on a marketisation of university knowledge. However, it is necessary to evaluate its efficiency. Second I would like to point to the introduction of postgraduate-studies by the LRU, which allows the obtaining of special diplomas (see: 3.1.1.3 Degrees). Many of the studies offered by the various universities aim at a specialisation in several fields of the labour market (for example: the MBA at the Universidad Carlos III; the Máster en Dirección de Empresas offered by the Instituto de Empresa; the Experto en Programación Orientada a objetos en el entorno Windows by the Universidad Complutense, Madrid). Third I would like to refer to the creation of the social councils (see: 3.4 Administration and organisation) through the LRU. These bodies permit members of the trade and labour unions among others to participate in important areas of university management (Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 261f.). Finally I would like to refer to the concept of the future university developed by the In-

³⁴ As already said, one credit is 10 hours of class.

³⁵ The recently announced introduction of an exam to obtain the title "Bachiller", which should replace the PAAUs, has also to be seen as an attempt to align the Spanish system to the majority of the European education systems (Diario 16: 21/04/01).

forme Bricall (however, as already said, it is not certain if the government will consider it in the forthcoming reform of the LRU). By reading this report it can be observed, that its proposals aim at a utilization of the university education for society – and above all – for the economy. In my opinion a shift towards the market can therefore be clearly observed in Spain – however, as I mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the outcomes of the several measures taken in this direction have to be very carefully evaluated. For instance, as already mentioned elsewhere in this report, the efficiency of the social council seems to be limited. Generally, we have to be aware that a shift towards the market is, as far as women are concerned, always alarming. If, for example, the financing of research should be achieved mainly through selling the results, it is very likely that women's studies will no longer be financed.

4 Conclusion

4.1 General

After the re-establishment of democracy the former centralized Spanish university system was transformed into a highly decentralized one. The autonomy of the universities, the transfer of the competences from the state to the autonomous regions and the foundation of many new public and private universities made the system hardly comprehensible. However, common guidelines for all universities have been guaranteed, due to the creation of the universities council through the LRU. This body also maintains a certain degree of state influence, because it is presided over by the Minister for Education.

Nevertheless, the universities are very diverse. Some of them are huge, offering a wide range of subjects; others have only a very small number of students and offer only certain studies. Most of them are public, but Spain also has a considerable number of private institutions. Some of the universities are very prestigious; others have a bad reputation. But this is more or less hearsay because an objective evaluation is until now not compulsory. Nonetheless, students could not freely opt for the better public universities; they have to apply at one of the universities in their autonomous region, as long as it offers the chosen subject. But also the subjects at the public universities cannot be chosen freely, most of them are subject to a restricted entry. This is due to the huge number of Spaniards that enrol in universities. However, the present enormous figure of university students does not only reflect the trend towards better and longer training, which we can observe in all western societies. It is also a result of the incorporation of almost all HE institutions into the university system during the seventies. Due to the growth of the university institutions more and more lecturers have been required, both of the last main acts regulating the university system, the LGE 1970 and the LRU 1983, therefore made attempts to stabilize the permanent teaching body and facilitate the hiring of contracted personnel. While the LGE enabled the universities to employ assistants in order to prepare a new generation of academics, the creation of the category of associate teachers through the LRU should integrate specialists from the business world³⁶ and therefore promote the relation between the university and the market. Other measures taken in this direction have been the creation of the social councils, which are also made up by members of the trade unions and the introduction of postgraduate-studies, which are predominantly job-oriented. The founding of the OTRIs, the offices for the transfer of the results of research, expresses the suc-

³⁶ However, it is well-known that this intention failed – many associate teachers do not perform work outside the university (cf. e.g.: Almarcha Barbado/Gonzalez Jorge 1995: 128; Bricall 2000: 331).

cessful attempts³⁷ to enhance investigation in Spanish universities and reflects likewise this shift towards the market. Taking such alternative measures in order to improve the insufficient financing of the universities is necessary, for the contribution of the private sector through tuition fees is already very high.

4.2 Women related

The first access of women to university happened in the 1870s, however, in order to be treated equally to their male classmates, female students had to wait until 1910. The process of admittance began thus quite late and was slow. Due to the policies of the Franco regime the alignment of the share of female students to that of the males was delayed. Nevertheless, the proportion of women students rose during the sixties and seventies. Not only the changed social-framework, but also the founding of many new universities all over the country was a favourable factor in this respect. In 1986 the proportion of women reached 50% of the studentship; today more than 53% of the students are female. The better performance of girls in pre-university education is certainly a reason for this, but also the higher unemployment rate of women has to be taken into account.³⁸ Women enrolled in technical subjects are still a minority. Likewise, the distribution of female teaching staff according to discipline is still diverse. And despite the fact that the proportion of women in the teaching body is not much lower than that of all employed women, only a minority occupies posts in the highest level of the hierarchy, that of university professors. We find the highest proportion of women in the lowest category, assistants, but the absolute figure of teachers belonging to this category is quite small. Most women teachers are either senior university lecturers or associate teachers, the latter introduced by the LRU in 1983. From my point of view, the following two changes in the university system due to this law have a direct impact on the career prospects of women: First, the reform of the selection-process, which furthered the endogamy of the teaching staff within any university. Second, with the LRU the decentralization process of the university-system got under way. The former enables the university departments to promote “their” candidate, which is especially disadvantageous for women because the departments are traditionally male-dominated; the tendency towards homosocial promotion structures is well known. The second change, decentralization through university autonomy and the later transfer of the competencies over universities to the autonomous regions, made the general introduction of equal-opportunity measures unlikely.

³⁷ Other measures taken in this direction are: the creation of a departmental structure to further research and the granting of a payment for productivity.

³⁸ In 1999 the number of registered unemployed in the 20-24 age group was 75,300 for men and 141,000 for women respectively (<http://www.ine.es>: 14/09/00).

4.3 Hypothesis about WEU project aims

The three main objectives of our project are: Firstly, to investigate whether career patterns in universities constitute administrative and structural opportunities or barriers to the appointment of women in positions of authority. Secondly, to analyse whether specific organisational cultures embedded in the history and the internal decision-making processes of universities comprise embodying organisational opportunity structures or obstacles to the professional advancement of women in academia. And thirdly, to research whether affirmative action concepts have led to an effective promotion of women in positions of authority at European universities. The latter is not relevant for the Spanish case, as there have been until now no equal opportunity measures. In my opinion, a future introduction is not likely, unless the European Union obliges the member states to take such actions. As far as the first objective is concerned, opportunities or barriers for women in positions of authority, I claim that obstacles predominate. Even though many departments nowadays have female heads of departments, a female chancellor is a rarity. There might be several reasons for this: First, the lower proportion of women within the group of university professors (belonging to this category is a prerequisite in order to become chancellor). Second, in order to occupy this post one has to be mobile (e.g. to attend the meetings of the university council) and one has an additional work load. Both are difficult to combine with the double role of women. Third, the appointment of chancellors through the university senate, which could be disadvantageous for women. However this is so far no more than an assertion, because the mechanisms of appointment and the election process have not been evaluated carefully from a gender perspective. As far as the second aim is concerned, to analyse whether internal factors comprise opportunities or obstacles to the promotion of female teachers, I claim that there are both, opportunities and obstacles, especially in the provision of many new universities offering, due to the lack of male-dominated networks, opportunities to women. However, the objection has to be raised that these universities have in many cases a worse reputation than the older ones. The proportion of women at the large universities is above the average. However, it has to be assumed that they provide more opportunities for women. One of the reasons is that they offer traditionally female-dominated disciplines. Another opportunity for female teachers in public universities could be the selection through examinations, the results of which are evaluated by commissions. But if these commissions are mainly made up of men, it might be that this turns into a disadvantage. In this way the gradual increase of women teachers could have positive effects in the long run. To figure out specific obstacles for women is very difficult. It is well known that whether a candidate achieves the aspired position or not depends mainly on the support by her/his department. I assume that it is in many cases disadvantageous for female candidates.

5 Definitions

HE

Universities, as already mentioned, almost exclusively offer HE in Spain. Therefore the Law on University Reform starts as follows: “The public service of higher education corresponds to the university, which realizes it, through teaching, study and research.” (LRU, art.1) [my translation]. The universities provide a wide range of subjects, some of them do not exist in all European countries (e.g. Marine Sciences), some of them are peculiar studies of the country (e.g. Catalan Philology) and some of them are not imparted by universities in other states (this is especially true for some first cycle courses like Nursing or Social work). Furthermore all studies by which special titles of the universities can be obtained and master-programmes belong to HE. According to the “National Classification of Education” (CNED) 2000, which is based on the ISCED 97, the following studies which are not offered by universities also belong to HE: advanced-level specific vocational training, Artistic Education (advanced-level Dramatic Art, Music and Dance, Conservation and Restoration, Plastic Arts and Design), Military Training, Schools for Interior Architecture, Civil Aviation, Tourism, Occupational Therapy, Guardia Civil, ... official programmes for professional specialization (FIR – specialization programmes for pharmacy, BIR – specialization programmes for biologists, MIR – specialization programmes for medicals, ...). If we attach a more specific definition of HE – only those studies are HE which lead to awarding a doctorate – some of the first cycle-only studies, advanced-level specific vocational training, Military Training, the official programmes for professional specialization and other forms of specialized schooling do not belong to HE. This is, however, not true for advanced-level Music and Dance, Conservation and Restoration and Dramatic art – they may lead to certificates that are equivalent to university degrees and after finishing it one can enter doctorate-programmes in universities. If we define HE as only those studies which lead directly to the awarding of the doctoral degree, only third cycle studies at faculties, at the polytechnics and some very specialised courses for doctorate imparted at institutes belong to HE.

Academic Staff

In general, academic staff in public universities are professionals belonging to the corps of permanent teachers and contracted personnel. The permanent teaching body consists of university professors and senior university lecturers in faculties. They are entitled to carry out teaching and research. In order to qualify for these positions one has to hold a doctorate. Furthermore university school professors and university school lecturers in university schools belong to the

permanent staff. University school lecturers are only entitled to carry out research when they hold a doctorate. Access to these four categories is achieved through public competitive examinations. All permanent teachers are civil servants. Visiting professors, associate professors and assistants belong to the contracted personnel (LRU, art. 33). Visiting professors are usually foreigners. The category of associate teacher was created in order to contract specialists who normally practise professions outside the university³⁹. Both associate teachers and visiting professors can work on a part-time or full-time basis. Assistants are hired through competitive public examinations for the purpose of completing their scientific training. They can collaborate in teaching tasks and have to work full-time. Their two-years contracts can only be prolonged once (Sánchez Ferrer 1996: 246f.). The universities can also declare retired professors with a minimum of ten years of standing in the corresponding university as emeriti professors. The personnel in private universities have individual contracts.

Students

Usually people refer to students as those enrolled in universities. This definition seems both too restricted and too broad. On the one hand it is too narrow because it excludes persons who are enrolled in Artistic Education, although by finishing it, they may obtain degrees that are equivalent to university degrees. On the other hand this definition seems to me too unspecific because it also includes those who are enrolled in certain first-cycle-studies (e.g. Nursery, Social Work), which exist in other countries as well but are not imparted at universities there. If we considered all persons who are enrolled in the education programmes, which belong to the levels 5A, B and 6 of ISCED 97 as students, our definition would become even more unspecific. Then we would not only consider persons in all first-cycle-studies (also those by which second-cycle-studies cannot be entered), but also everyone in Military Education, in advanced-level specific vocational training, in special schooling (Civil Aviation, Tourism,...) as students. Therefore we have to find another definition, which meets two aims: first, reflecting the peculiarities of the Spanish education system. Second, serving as a basis for a later data comparison with other European states. Therefore I propose to define as students all those who are enrolled in university centres and artistic education. This definition has of course the disadvantage that it comprises all first-cycle-studies. However, all first-cycle courses offer the possibility to enter a second-cycle-course later (even if sometimes one has to take complementary courses before).

³⁹ Even though, as mentioned elsewhere, in practice many associate teachers are not performing work outside academia.

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Appendix

a) Abbreviations

BOE	Boletín del Estado (official government bulletin)
BUP	Bachillerato unificado polivalente (general secondary education)
CEU	Catedráticos de Escuelas Universitarias (university school professors)
COU	Curso de Orientación Universitaria (university preparation course)
CRUE	Confederación de Rectores de Universidades Españolas (Council of university chancellors)
CSIC	Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (Council for scientific research)
CU	Catedrático de Universidad (university professor)
DAP	Departamento de Análisis y Planificación, Universidad Complutense (department for analysis and planning)
EGB	Educación General Básica (general basic education)
ESO	Educación Secundaria Obligatoria (compulsory secondary education)
EU	European Union
FP I	Formación Profesional I (Intermediate-level vocational training)
FP II	Formación Profesional II (Advanced-level vocational training)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HE	higher education
ISCED 97	International Standard Classification of Education 1997 (used by UNESCO, OECD and in future by Eurostat)
INE	Instituto Nacional de Estadística (National Statistical Office)
LGE	Ley General de Educación y Financiación de la Reforma Educativa de 1970 (General Law of Education and Financing of Educational Reform)
LODE	Ley Orgánica Reguladora del Derecho a la Educación (Law Regulating the Right to Education)
LOGSE	Ley Orgánica de Ordenación del Sistema Educativo (Law of the General Plan of the Education System)
LRU	Ley de Reforma Universitaria (Law of University Reform)
MEC	Ministerio de Educación y Cultura (Ministry of Education and Culture)
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OTRI	Oficinas de Transferencia de Resultados de Investigación (offices for the transfer of the results of research)
PAAUs	Pruebas de Aptitud para el Acceso en la Universidad (aptitude tests)

PAs	Profesor Asociado (associate teacher)
PAy	Profesor Ayudante (assistant)
PEm	Profesor Emérito (emerit professor)
PP	Partido Popular (People's Party)
PVis	Profesor Visitante (visiting professor)
R&D	Research and Development
TEU	Titular de Escuela Universitaria (senior university school lecturer)
TU	Titular de Universidad (senior university lecturer)
UK	United Kingdom
UNED	Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (university for distance learning)

b) Additional tables

Table 1) Since 1987 Spanish universities founded (Source: Bricall 2000: 58):

Public universities	Year	Private universities	Year
U. Pública de Navarra	1987	U. Ramón Llull	1991
U. Carlos III de Madrid	1989	U. Alfonso X El Sabio	1993
U. de Vigo	1989	U. de San Pablo-CEU	1993
U. da Coruña	1989	U. Antonio de Nebrija	1995
U. Pompeu Fabra	1990	U. Europea de Madrid	1995
U. Jaume I	1991	U. Católica de San Antonio*	1996
U. de Girona	1992	U. Internacional SEK	1997
U. de Lleida	1992	U. Internacional de Catalunya	1997
U. Rovira i Virgili	1992	U. de Vic	1997
U. de La Rioja	1992	U. Mondragón	1997
U. de Almería	1993	U. Camilo José Cela	1998
U. de Huelva	1993	U. Católica de Ávila*	1998
U. de Jaén	1993		
U. Internacional de Andalucía	1994		
U. de Burgos	1994		
U. Oberta de Catalunya	1995		
U. Rey Juan Carlos	1996		
U. Miguel Hernández	1996		
U. Pablo de Olavide	1997		
U. de Cartagena	1998		

* Universities of the Catholic Church

Tables 2) Salaries of civil servants and teachers with full-time position in 2001 (Source: BOE, n°3, 2001):

2a) Monthly basic income, complementaries of purpose and general component or specific component according to category:

	Basic Inc.		Purpose		Spec. compl. ⁴⁰	
University professors	988,12	+	778,29	+	877,50	= 2643,91 €
University lecturers and university school professors	988,12	+	712,81	+	409,36	= 2110,29 €
University school lecturers	988,12	+	625,36	+	217,65	= 1831,13 €

2b) Monthly income of staff with full-time posts for the specific component for teaching merits and complementaries of productivity in research:

University professors: 133,06 €

University lecturers and university school professors: 107,78 €

University school lecturers: 91,19 €

2c) Monthly income for the singular component according to academic post:

Chancellor	1 276,18 €
Vice chancellor and secretary general	576,93 €
Dean and director of faculty, polytechnic, university school, university college	449,81 €
Head of department	325,48 €
Secretary of department	174,94 €

⁴⁰ Only general component of specific complementaries.

Table 3) Proportion of persons in the population enrolled in HE by age-cohorts 18-21, 22-25, 26-29 years old in 1996 (Source: Education at a glance – OECD Database 1999 in: Bricall 2000: 48):

	18-21 years (%)	22-25 years (%)	26-29 years (%)
Austria	16,1	16,6	8,8
Germany	10,8	17,2	11,8
France	36,0	18,6	4,4
Poland	21,2	18,5	4,2
Spain	27,3	19,8	6,2
Sweden	13,7	17,9	8,0
UK	26,9	9,4	4,8

Table 4) Distribution of public and private sector of the funds in higher education institutions, before and after the 1995 transfers. (Source: Education at a glance – OECD Database 1999 in: Bricall 2000: 62):

	Before transactions		After transactions	
	Public sector	Private Sector	Public Sector	Private Sector
Austria	n.d.	n.d.	98	2
Germany	93	7	92	8
France	84	16	84	16
Poland	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Spain	76	24	76	24
Sweden	94	6	94	6
UK	90	10	72	28

c) Annotated Bibliography

General:

- **Arias Rodríguez, Antonio (1997): El régimen económico y financiero de las universidades. Madrid.**

An in-depth analysis of university financing, with a detailed chapter about the salaries of university staff.

Further literature about this topic: Gurrera Casamayor, Fernando (1997): Políticas Retributivas Universitarias: Complementos del Profesorado. In: Revista Aragonesa de Administración Pública. No. 10. pp.115-181.

- **Bricall, José María (2000): Informe Universidad 2000. <http://www.crue.upm.es> (20/12/2000).**

This expert report which was commissioned by the Confederación de Rectores de Universidades Españolas (CRUE – council of rectors of Spanish universities) is currently widely discussed in Spain. It consists of an analysis of the situation of the Spanish university and aims at a reform of the current university law (LRU). Some of the suggestions of the author, Josep María Bricall, are:

- Greater participation of the universities in the selection of their students
 - increased competition between universities
 - the right of students to apply to any Spanish university
 - a reduction in the size of the university bodies, thus speeding up their decisions
- **Calvo, Benjamín/Francisco Michavila (2000): La Universidad Española hacia Europa. Madrid.**

The authors reflect upon the necessary measures the European universities and, of course, above all the Spanish ones will have to undertake in order to harmonize their university systems and the probable difficulties which will result. This very interesting book is structured in three parts. The first part points out the starting point in Spain as well as in other European countries. The second shows the desirable scenario and the developments which will have an impact on every planned reform: globalization, diversification, innovation and financing. In the third part the authors propose changes in the university systems.

- **Carreras Ares, Juan José/Miguel Ángel Ruiz Carnicer (1991): La Universidad española bajo el régimen de Franco (1939-1975). Institución Fernando el Católico. Zaragoza.**

This book is the result of the congress of the same name, organised in 1989 by the University of Zaragoza. The articles reflect upon the impact of Franquismo (the Franco regime) on the university system and provide, therefore, not just an insight into this interesting period of Spanish society but also make for a better understanding of the contemporary academic institutions.

- **Cebreiro, José Ignacio/María Jesús San Segundo (1998): Spain. In: Democracy and Governance in Higher Education, Ed.: Jan De Groof et al.: The Hague, London, Boston. pp. 359-365.**

This short article is a good introduction to the management of Spanish universities. It describes the legal framework and the governing bodies and focuses on democratic elements in the university system.

- **Felones Morrás, Román (1998): Nuevas universidades en España (1987-1996). La Universidad Pública de Navarra, un modelo de referencia. Pamplona.**

The main purpose of this thesis is to present a review of the context of the Spanish universities after the implementation of the Ley de Reforma Universitaria (LRU) in 1983. It focuses especially on the foundation of the University of Navarra, which is just one example of the many newly founded universities in Spain since the new legislative framework has been established.

- **MEC (Ministerio de Educación y Cultura) (1996): Estructuras de los sistemas educativos y de formación inicial en la Unión Europea (Traducción de la segunda edición inglesa). Madrid.**

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This description of the different education and initial training systems in the European Union is a very useful first step to obtaining an insight into how the education and professional training systems are structured and financed in the member states.

- **Mora, José-Ginés (2001): The academic profession in Spain: Between the civil service and the market. In: Higher Education. Vol. 41. Nos. 1-2. January-March 2001. pp. 131-155.**

In this volume national experts examine the academic workplace in Germany, the U.K., Italy, the Netherlands, the USA and Spain. The contribution “The academic profession in Spain: Between the civil service and the market” is the best I have read about this topic so far.

- **Sánchez Ferrer, Leonardo (1996): Políticas de reforma universitaria en España (1983-1993). Instituto Juan March de Estudios e Investigaciones. No. 12. Madrid.**

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The thesis deals with the university policies of the Spanish state from the 18th century onwards. It focuses mainly on the process of reform which has taken place in the Spanish university system since the new university law (Ley de Reforma Universitaria – LRU) of 1983 was implemented. It contains, therefore, an empirical study of the changes which were undergone by Spanish universities in the period between 1983 and 1993. The author highlights the process of deregulation in the higher education system of the country to show the difficulties which such intentions face. Furthermore, he shows the possible consequences of them as far as the quality of research and teaching is concerned.

- **The World of Learning (2001): 51st edition. London.**

This reference book contains full directory details for over 30,000 universities, colleges, libraries, archives, research institutes, ... in more than 180 countries. For each institution key academic staff and officials are listed.

Women-related:

- **García de Cortázar, Marisa/María Antonia García de León (1997): Mujeres en minoría. Una investigación sociológica sobre las catedráticas de universidad en España. Madrid (= Opiniones y Actitudes, 16).**

Women professors form a minority within the professorial numbers. Even though the number of professors has considerably increased in Spain within the last few years, the proportion of women remained almost the same. After making a postal inquiry the authors present for the

first time an empirical study concentrating on the career of female university professors.

- **Instituto de la Mujer (1997): III Plan para la igualdad entre mujeres y hombres (1997-2000). Madrid.**

Until now there have been no affirmative actions at Spanish universities. The third plan for the equality of women and men is a very vague program, based on an agreement of the council of ministers. The intention of this program is to promote the opportunities of women so that they participate in all fields of social life on an equal level as men. For the area of education for example, they propose intensifying the academic counselling services, so that women are more likely to select studies which are traditionally dominated by men. The corresponding ministries are in charge of the several measures which have to be taken in order to fulfil the aim of the plan.

- **Sanz Rueda, Carmela (1995): Invisibilidad y Presencia. Seminario Internacional “Genero y trayectoria profesional del profesorado universitario”, Instituto de Investigaciones Femenistas de la Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Madrid.**

A multidisciplinary group of female researchers investigated for three years the “impact of the dynamic of sex-gender on the female lecturers” of the Complutense University, which has more than 6000 lecturers. The work was organized in five thematic groups (“University and contemporary society”, “Feministic epistemology”, “Women in teaching at the Complutense University”, “The university as a professional objective: mechanism of access”, “Professional career and biography of female professors”) intending to integrate general questions as well as individual experiences. The result of the diverse approaches to the subject are presented in this book.

Further women-related literature:

- Almarcha Barbado, Amparo/Benjamin González Rodríguez/Celia González Jorge (1994): Cambio y desigualdad en el profesorado universitario. In: Revista Española de Investigaciones Sociológicas, 66, pp. 117-139.
- Carreño, Antonieta et. al. (1998): La carrera de les profesores universitaris, ed. Instituto Catalán de la Mujer, Barcelona.

- Fenollosa, Carmen (1992): Acercamiento al fenómeno de la desigualdad social sexual en la universitat Jaume I. In: Asparkia. Investigación Feminista, 1, pp. 15-37.
- Fernández Enguita, Mariano (2000): La mitad del cielo y tres cuartos de la tierra. En torno a la feminización de la docencia, in: Cuadernos de Pedagogía, 289, pp. 85-90.
- García de Cortazar Nebreda, Marisa (1998): Alumnas y profesoras en campos científico - tecnológicos en universidades, in: Revista de Educación (Madrid), 316, pp. 283-296.
- Pérez, María Vicenta (1999): La presencia de las mujeres en la universidad, in: Diálogos. Educación y Formación de Personas Adultas, 18, pp. 91-94.
- Santesmases, María Jesús (2000): Mujeres científicas en España (1940-1970). Profesionalización y modernización social. Madrid (= Estudios 67).

Journals:

- **Higher Education – the international journal of higher education and educational planning** (published in Dordrecht, Netherlands):
A must read for everyone who is interested in the field of Higher Education.
- **Revista de Educación** (published in Madrid; appearing: every four months):
Since the beginning of the 1950s reports, monographs, studies and reviews of books and articles on the important questions in the field of education in Spain have appeared in this fountain of knowledge. Many articles also compare different types of education systems with that of Spain.
- **Revista de Investigación Educativa** (published in Murcia):
This journal contains monographs, presentations of research and papers from symposia in the field of education since the 1990s.
- **Other journals of interest:**
Revista Española de Investigaciones Sociológicas; Diálogos – Educación y formación de personas adultas; Revista interuniversitaria de formación del profesorado; Asparkía – Feminista; Análisis e Investigaciones Culturales; Cuadernos de Pedagogía; Revista de Sexología; Feminae;

Interesting links:

- <http://www.ucm.es/info/uepei/au.html> (5/12/00) (“¿Por qué interesa conocer el informe Bricall?”)

Some of the proposals of the so-called “Informe Bricall” are hotly disputed. This article by students argues that many of the measures suggested by the expert report are socially unjust. Above all it claims that the aim of the proposals is a shift towards a commercialisation and a marketisation of the Spanish universities.

- <http://www.mec.es>

The homepage of the Ministry of Education and Science contains many useful statistics about student figures broken down by regions, universities, cycles, subjects and sex.

- <http://www.ine.es>

Figures about the teaching body, broken down by sex and category are available at the homepage of the national statistical institute.

- <http://www.mtas.es>

The homepage of the Ministry for Work and Social Affairs is interesting for us, because the Instituto de la Mujer (Women’s Institute) is under its province. There are some gender-sensitive data available.

- <http://www.csic.es>

This is the address of the homepage of the Council for Scientific Research – the biggest multidisciplinary research body in Spain.

- <http://www.elpais.es>; <http://www.elmundo.es>

These are the homepages of the two biggest Spanish daily papers. Both have a special part on education, El País in its Monday-edition and El Mundo in its Wednesday-edition.

- <http://www.ucm.es/info/dap>

The homepage of the Department of Analysis and Planning of the Universidad Complutense is above all very useful for literature research. One can order articles dealing with the universities from various journals and newspapers.