



Observatory
on national
policies
to combat
social exclusion

SPAIN

**This report was produced by independent experts,
and should not be taken to represent the views
of the European Commission**

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.	3
PART I: THE SOCIAL ACTORS AND DEBATES	
1. The cast of social actors.	5
2. The political and scientific debates.	11
PART II: DIMENSIONS OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION	
3. Sectoral policies against social exclusion:	19
3.1 Social policies to combat economic insecurity.	20
3.2 Working conditions and vocational training.	35
3.3 Education: from quantitative to qualitative reform.	40
3.4 Policies on Health.	46
3.5 The access to housing.	51
3.6 Social services.	57
4. Categorical policies for groups at risk.	62
4.1 Policies for economic migrants.	63
4.2 Elderly and handicapped.	64
4.3 Unemployed and long term unemployed.	66
5. Global policies and cumulative exclusion.	67
PART III: POLICIES AND INNOVATORY ACTIONS.	
6. Policies against social exclusion.	71
7. Conclusions.	74
ANNEX I: Tables on social exclusion.	84
ANNEX II: Some trends in social exclusion.	109
ANNEX III: Policies against social exclusion.	113
ANNEX IV: References.	118

INTRODUCTION.

This Report on policies to combat social exclusion consolidates the reports that have been made in 1990 and 1991 on Spanish policies to combat social exclusion and the report on social services.

The present report consolidates and synthesizes four reports produced during 1990 and 1991:

1. A feasibility Study (1990).
2. First Annual Report (1991).
3. Second Annual Report (1992).
4. Social Services in Spain (1992).

All the data and information are related to the years 1990-1991.

The structure of this present report is as follows: First Part describes the cast of actors and the main political and scientific debates happened in Spain in the last two years. In the Second Part we analyze the dimensions of social exclusion in relation to traditional division of welfare (income maintenance, housing, education, health) categorical policies for specific social groups and global policies to combat social exclusion. Third Part tries to analyze the social policies and innovatory actions against social exclusion and main conclusions. Annex 1 provides information data on social exclusion; Annex 2 synthesises some trends on social exclusion; Annex 3 is on policies against social exclusion; Annex 4 provides a selected bibliography of Spanish publications on social exclusion.

PART I

THE SOCIAL ACTORS AND DEBATES

CHAPTER 1

THE CAST OF SOCIAL ACTORS

1. THE CAST OF SOCIAL ACTORS.

The social actors that take part in Spain in the fight against poverty and social exclusion are characterized by the diversity both in political and theoretical explanations about exclusion and the policies in order to fight against them.

The main social and institutional actors in Spain are: The Central Administration, the Regional Government or Autonomous Communities and Municipalities, the Non Governmental Organizations (The NGO), the Political Parties, the Unions and the Social Workers and practitioners.

1. The Central Administration accepts with difficulty the category of poverty in the political discourse and its underlying social reality. Poverty and poor people are substituted by needy social groups with social integration problems. There are no new types of poverty, only new social needs and groups at risk. These needs are detected and met through the main services and social services which are the basic tools for the social integration policy and also through specific programmes to help women, young people, gypsies and drug addicts or other groups in need.

In relation to the fight against social exclusion the central government is very limited because the constitutional competences in social assistance depend basically on Regional Governments. The main tools of intervention are the finance on agreed programmes with the Regions and the coordination of national programmes which implementation depends always on political support by the Regions. But the Central Government

has full competence in pensions policy of Social Security and vocational training programmes which are main policies in the fight against social exclusion.

2. The Regional Governments and Municipalities have a relevant role in defining and applying antipoverty policies. In the first place they have the exclusive constitutional responsibility of social assistance. This gives them a leading role in the fight against social exclusion. The Central Administration depends on the Regional Government on this matter. Secondly, due to the importance given to the research conditions of poverty and the making of social needs maps. Thirdly, due to the new initiative of implementation of social wage for integration which evaluation will be made later.

The Municipalities have a relevant role in social assistance services, in the provision of integral assistance to needy groups, experimentation and innovation of policies together with those of NGOs and in coordination of social resources to fight against exclusion, being the finance the main problem because depend in many ways on Regional and Central budgets.

3. The Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

This sector is currently gravely and undergoing for reaching changes after a long period of scarce activity. This sector is still to be researched in the field of social action: the number, structure, types and social incidence. But what is a clear fact is that they have been expanding and modernizing themselves in recent years. Concerning the

organizations, fight against social exclusion it must be pointed out: a) That there is a lack of participation by those excluded in pro-integration activities. Traditionally the most important organization has been ONCE (National Organization of the Spanish Blind). Disabled people and old-age pensioners have recently joined but not without problems and internal conflicts. b) Although the Spanish Red Cross has a certain relevant role in the fight against marginalization, Caritas Española is the most important NGO concerned with social assistance and research on poverty. Both organizations have at the present the main role in the social assistance field. The research conducted by the Ministry of Social Affairs on NGOs in 1992 will provide a comprehensive information on that issue.

4. Political Parties.

In general, the Spanish political parties do not mention poverty in their programmes. They do deal with specific issues of unemployment and the policies to combat it. However, they have to give specific answers to the phenomenon of poverty at a local and regional level. In practice, the political parties at Regional level defend in general the minimum income policies because of specific regional problems or political conjuncture.

5. The Unions.

The issue of poverty was not specially important to the Unions until the general strike in December 1988. This strike resulted in a double change in the Unions policy, mainly in UGT and CC.OO, towards action in their fight against poverty

and marginalization. Although the Unions did not originally participate in the idea of the minimum income policy, the later took it on as one of their strategic issues in the Propuesta Sindical Prioritaria (Priority Unions Proposal) and they will be taking part in the negotiation of a settlement of the social wage in the majority of Autonomous Communities.

6. The social workers and practitioners.

This group is characterized by an increasing professionalism and a privileged status in the public sector social services in which they play a key role in the policy of the growth of social services. This has meant an ambiguous attitude in the struggle against marginalization and social exclusion.

On the one hand, they share the government's view of the minimum income being a space of institutional marginalization where "all the problems of a subsidized society are concentrated". They also share the great importance of the social services in the social integration. The social wage or minimum income would be the exception while the social services would be the essence of the social action.

The description of the six main sectors in the fight against poverty and social exclusion shows us an existing quadruple fragmentation in the antipoverty policies in Spain:

1. A certain theoretical fragmentation which is polarized between the concepts of poverty and needy social groups.
2. Institutional fragmentation which is the result of a constitutional división of power between Central and Regional Governments.
3. Functional fragmentation: division

between sectorial and integral approach to social exclusion.4. Instrumental fragmentation: the polarization between personal social services and income policies.

All this makes it difficult to define coherent policies and the coordination of the social resources reducing the effectiveness in the fight against social exclusion.

CHAPTER 2

THE POLITICAL AND THE SCIENTIFIC DEBATES

2. THE POLITICAL AND THE SCIENTIFIC DEBATES.

The exclusion focuses on the reality of unemployment and the new types of poverty. In a way traditional poverty is left out of this debate. On the contrary we are dealing with an urban and economic view of social exclusion. This is shown in three different ways depending on whether they are political parties, unions or regional governments.

a) The general point of view of political parties maintains that the main reason for social exclusion is unemployment and its social and economic consequences. Rather than poverty what exists is unemployment resulting from the economic crisis. The political objective would be to fight unemployment instead of taking out antipoverty measures.

This view reflects Spanish public opinion which is very sensitive to unemployment. According to public opinion poverty means begging and marginalization, while unemployment is a social reality to fight against. Consequently, the main political parties rather than social policies to integrate those who are marginalized, propose policies of economic growth in order to generate employment and training programmes.

b) The point of view of Regional Governments is that a minimum income for integration or social wage is a positive policy for covering the gaps of unemployment benefit, while the unemployed are retrained and integrated or for covering the less privileged groups of society. But while in 1990 it was a polarization between regional and central government in relation to minimum income, now in 1990 the debate has lost

some strenght because of the difficulties of regions in the implementation of social wage and also because the debate is centred around the coordination of social actors to fight social exclusion. Some kinds of political coordination could be the way out to the present situation where neither the Central Government is ready to assume the regional minimum income system, nor many Autonomous Governments have the real resources for the implementation of integration policies.

c) The Unions point of view is that the reason for the exclusion is the precariousness in working conditions and unemployment which generate insecure workers working on temporary contracts. This political view on social exclusion proposes the extension of the welfare benefits as an alternative, introducing the social wage, extending social benefits for unemployed and reducing the precariousness in employment contracts.

Consequently, unemployment, low incomes and precariousness in working conditions are the main sources of social exclusion respectively for political parties, regional government and unions. In spite of this differences the coordination objective of social policies has gained space during 1990-1991 through the development of different systems of participation of unions and NGOs with voice in the public policies and social services plans at regional (minimum income policies) and central level (Assembly of the National Plan on drugs, Consultative Commission of NGOs, The Board of Women, s Organizations. Also it must emphasized the development of National Programmes carried out by central

government and regional authorities on drugs, youth, women and local social services that are improving the framework of institutional coordination in the fight against social exclusion.

The problem of coordination is becoming crucial because the social insertion objective is facing difficulties and clear limits because of several reasons such as the high instability of labor market (temporary jobs) the social ideologies in favour of specific exclusions (immigrants) and the failures in the incomes for integration at regional level in the coordination between minimum incomes and integration programmes.

2.2 The scientific debate on both exclusion and poverty has deepened during the last two years. Until 1987 the scientific debate as was pointed out by Vila and Alcover was restricted to knowing the number of poor people, who they were and their standard of living. From 1989 the scientific debate revolves round how to integrate the excluded social groups. In fact this problem had already been proposed but has only currently become highly important issue. The main actors in this debate have been, at an institutional level, CEBS, Caritas Española, The National Plan on Drugs, National Platform of Women and the Unions. Also individual researchers and planners of social wage. The main subjects of the debate have been the integration of the excluded social groups and the social wage.

The scientific debate has raised not only the question of the old and new poverty, but also the social integration of

marginalized or excluded groups. The debate tends to orientate social action towards three guide lines of action: 1. To reduce the impact of social stereotypes on marginal groups. 2. To coordinate the existing resources to facilitate social integration. 3. To promote the selforganization of the excluded groups.

There are three basic starting points in this debate:

- To accept the different kinds of social exclusion, not only the old and new poverty.

- Poverty is explained as the result of the accumulation of different ways of social exclusion.

- The aim of the fight against poverty is not only to get a minimum income for any citizen, but, above all, to facilitate a social integration and to create a more accessible society.

The scientific debate has followed three fundamental, but not parallel directions:

A) The CEBS debates on poverty and marginalization. The first debate in 1988 qualifies the phenomenon of poverty articulating old poverty (poor workers, poor people receiving social benefits and self-organized marginalized people) with new poverty (long-term unemployed, widows with dependent relatives, one parent families) and looks into sociocultural criteria to explain the complexity of poverty. The problem of self-organization of poor and excluded people is also dealt with and the limitations of social services to fight against poverty and social exclusion are pointed out.

The second debate, at the end of 1989, points out clearly that the basic aim of the actions against poverty is the

integration of the different excluded groups into society. It is stated that " the social insertion is by far one of the main challenges for the present social policies in their fight against poverty". Therefore the social wage or minimum income is not only a guarantee of subsistence, but also the main base upon which to build policies of social integration. The process of social exclusion generated by a society is, perhaps, more important than economic poverty. This means fighting against exclusion from two points of view which are interrelated: the peculiarity of the excluded groups and the necessity of integral intervention on exclusion.

B) The second line of debate was led by the National Plan for Drugs and National Platform for Women which concentrate its theoretical efforts on the social integration of drug addicts and marginal groups and women. The results of research on the social integration problems have centred in favor of flexible and integrated policies of social accessibility and, in relation to women, in the implementation of two national plans for equal rights.

c) The third line of scientific debate revolves round the social or minimum income for social integration in the conferences or seminars organized by Caritas, the Unions and Regions. Here the social wage is, on the one hand, the ultimate safety net of social protection for working people without social and economic resources and, on the other hand, the necessity and possibility of integrating the excluded social groups. The social wage for integration is not the panacea against poverty, but one way that needs coordination of

society and institutions in favour of social groups in need or at risk.

All the debates emphasizes that the fight against social exclusion requieres active policies of coordination, the participation of those who are affected, an opened and flexible view of social insertion and multiple networks of social intervention. The scientific debate has advanced in the last three years from the concept of poverty to a another more qualified of social insertion, from the economic protection to the global social intervention and, finally, from the very general intervention to specifics and locally coordinated intervention. The rising ideologies favouring racism and xenophobia are a new challenge for scientific and political debates.

PART II

DIMENSIONS OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION

CHAPTER 3

SECTORAL POLICIES AGAINST SOCIAL EXCLUSION

3. SECTORAL POLICIES AGAINST SOCIAL EXCLUSION.

3.1 Social policies to combat economic insecurity.

As in any EEC country the two main sources of income are the income got through the market and social benefits. We are in the first place to analyze the redistribution of income through the market, the functional and personal distribution and secondly the impact of the social benefits in the fight against economic insecurity.

3.1.1 Has been shown by different authors, as J. Leal, that during the last decade Spain became richer, but more unequal in such a way that "while poverty was being reduced, inequality growing and duality held under control, new groups of marginal persons were appearing in Spain society". In fact the economic growth during the eighties has allowed a general improvement of living standards where the social benefits have reduced poverty in some groups, as elderly pensioners, but at the same time the inequality has generated new marginal groups and new types of insecurity because of the instability of labour market.

The social inequality as a consequence of very sharp economic growth can be showed at two levels: in the functional distribution of income and in personal distribution of income. The functional distribution of income in Spain shows us how during the decade of the eighties there has been a favorable redistribution of national income to company profits (Table 1). This has been helped by increased unemployment, an international context advantageous to

investment policies and industrial restructuring. Wages income took on a remarkable role on income redistribution from 1970 and surpassed the profits in 1972 (half of this growth was due to the progressively increasing number of salary paid people). From 1978 a process of deterioration in the participation of wages in the national income began and there is a reduction of 5.89 points between 1980 and 1990 although there was a recovery between 1987 and 1988. On the contrary the social benefits grew up 4.07 points from 12.31 in 1980 to 16.38 in 1990. While the profits grew up during the eighties. Then we can state that the social benefits are mainly a redistribution from working people to non active population, unemployed and pensioners, the profits being left out of this later redistribution.

The personal distribution of income in Spain poses several methodological problems: the last Family Budgets Survey that we consider here was carried out in 1980 (the new one carried out in 1990 is publishing now the the data and we will consider in the next report of 1992). The Permanent Survey of Family Budgets published quarterly has a very small sample of 3.200 people. We refer here to both sources of information. Table 2 synthesizes the distribution of the available family income counted in decila after being taxed. From this Table we can say that between 1974 and 1980 it was a clear improvement in income distribution due to a reduction on the income concentration in the highest decila of almost ten points. There is also a slight increase on the participation of the decilas first and second. The increase in

wages against wages and the expansion of social benefits contributed to improve income distribution. But from 1980 to 1989 the distribution of the available family income has not varied deeply; on the contrary during the last years the distribution run worse for the first two deciles. This statement has two main interpretations. According to the first one the number of the poor households and persons have decreased during, at list, the first half of the eighties in as much the adopted criterion is the relative placing of the poorest; the second interpretation is that the better relative distribution has been made at the expense of a more uneven distribution of income.

It could be said that the economic recovery from 1986 to 1990 plus the redistributive effect of Welfare State have managed to stop the number of poor people, but has not been able to avoid greater inequality observable through a greater wages dispersion increasing at the top and decreasing at the bottom growing the Gini Index 13.6% between 1984 and 1988 in wages distribution, the reduction of the purchasing power of the minimum salary, the expansion of the percentage of the temporary jobs and the concentration of taxable income where the Gini Index surpasses 0,333 in 1982 to 0.406 in 1987 before the tax payment in a system where the concentration of taxpayers has place in the lower income groups.

3.1.2 The need for economic security or guaranteed income is recognized by the Spanish Constitution of 1978 in Art. 41. As a consequence of this need, during the last decade a complex and varied system of welfare protection or Welfare

has been developed, starting with the system of Social Security, but as an entity of its own. Table 3 gives us an idea of such a system, showing the Spanish State's system of assistance welfare, the population covered, the total cost and the amount of said assistance. From this synthetic table we can deduce three general conclusions:

1. During the 1980s a complex system of assistance benefits has been shaped, beginning with the system of Social Security, whose objectives are the protection of a part of those excluded from the job market, poor people and different risk groups.

2. This system or Assistance State is based on three types of subsistence welfare aid: minimum benefits from Social Security, assistance pensions and the social wage from the Autonomous Communities, as well as other benefits from smaller entities. It is a complex system which does not recognize a general minimum income, but it has a wide diversity of social benefits facing a problem of harmonization.

3. Finally, this Assistance State is fragmented and has scarce internal coordination. The law of non-insurance pensions of December 1990, the policies of vocational training, the Autonomous Communities' minimum integration wage and the network of social services are at present four instruments of intervention which are not fully coordinated. With little additional cost, they could constitute the elements of an integrated system of minimum income for social integration.

Having clarified that, we are going to briefly define the policies of economic security in Spain which try to respond to the subsistence needs of citizens. The Spanish Welfare State is now a crucial source of income for many people although the levels of social spending are still below the medium levels of EEC.

a) In December 1990 the Law of Non-Insurance Pensions was passed, defining a system of assistance pensions within the scope of Social Security. Although the new law approves a type of pension that is approximately half the minimum interprofesional salary and engenders subjective rights, this law creates some problems: First, the law calculates the pension based on family, not individual, income, thereby placing part of the responsibility for social protection on the nuclear family. This is partly compensated for in the case of handicapped persons. The second problem is that the law abolishes the assistance pension and aid to third parties of the LISMI (Law of Social Integration of the Handicapped of 1982) which meant a real advantage for those handicapped persons with problems of exclusion, although it is true that under that law, reinterpreted by the Supreme Court, many cases of handicapped persons with ample economic resources were protected. Third, although the pension of the LISMI disappears, the FAS - or assistance pensions for senior citizens and ill persons - remains in force, thereby making the system of social protection more complex to manage and confusing for citizens who, when applying, must choose and

evaluate between two aid systems.

From the perspective of this report, the appraisal of assistance pensions of all types can be summed up as:

-Non-insurance pensions fulfill part of the objective of art.149.1 of the Constitution ("Social Security for all citizens") converting assistance pensions into subjective rights that provide access to economic benefits, medical care and social services for senior citizens, the chronically ill and the disabled without economic means. But it does not cover the difficulties of those excluded for other reasons; this will be the objective of the Autonomous Communities' laws of social salary.

-Present barriers to access depend on the information available to citizens. More than press campaigns, it is non-governmental agencies and centers of social services which help to eliminate this barrier.

-As far as its effectiveness, it is a case of subsistence pensions which scarcely reach half the minimum wage and whose quantity cannot be increased as it would cause problems of a financial nature in the Social Security system. Moreover, they are pensions directed at poor women and elderly women without resources, covering female poverty (Table 4).

b) The complements of Social Security minimums are an extension of assistance of this system. Pensions which do not reach the minimum established for each type of pension (retirement, invalidity, widowhood, orphanhood and others) have the right to an economic complement of an aid nature. Table 5 illustrates the extension of Social Security assistance: in 1990 39% of pensions, 2.441.065, had minimum complements. This means a total cost of 417.130 million pesetas which benefitted, above all, widows, orphans and agricultural workers. As a result of the agreements between the government and unions in the spring of 1990, the improvement of complements has been centered in widow pensions and those with a dependent spouse. In spite of the real improvement of minimum pensions in the last three years, efforts are still needed to insure that minimum pensions are equivalent to the minimum wage. In 1990 minimum pensions had the following percentage with respect to the minimum wage: retired with 65 years or more - 94%; retired at less than 65 years and with spouse - 82.2%; invalidity - the same as retired at less than 65 years; widowhood at over 65 years - 73.7%; between 60 and 65 -56%; and widowhood at less than 60 years - 52.5%; absolute orphanhood - 76.2%; others - between 55-57%.

c) Coverage and effectiveness of economic benefits for unemployment.

The intense lack of protection of the unemployed during the period from 1985 to 1988 has been strongly checked so that net coverage has increased notably during the last three years (See Table 6) from 34.1 in 1989 to 51.9 in 1991. It is quite true that it has been favoured by the registered decline in unemployment.

The joint improvement of the protection of the unemployed cannot make us forget that the social right to protection is still far from its final goal. Moreover some clear barriers to access exist: 1. It does not include those seeking their first job. That is to say, it affects young people, above all, although other forms of protection exist, as we will later see (vocational training); 2. Neither does it include those young unemployed people who have used up their Social Security benefits, both insurance and assistance; 3. A temporary barrier exists: Once the period of collection of economic benefits has been exhausted only very old workers have protection until they reach retirement.

What is the effectiveness of the protection for unemployment in Spain?

In the first place, the eminently assistance character of the protection for unemployment (56.8% of the total of unemployed protected in 1991) makes the benefits subsistence benefitss - 75% of the minimum wage - although it is a functionally and politically legitimizing economic help.

In the second place, the effectiveness of the benefits

is greatly limited by time, so that in 1990 the economic benefits of less than 1 year were 69% (Table 7). What's more, benefits of less than 6 months go from 37.9% in 1989 to 41.8 in 1990 in the whole of benefits. Now, if we consider only insurance benefits, we see that 56.5% of the unemployed received them for periods of less than 6 months. Obviously these are workers with temporary jobs.

In the third place, a little more than half the beneficiaries of unemployment benefits are concentrated in two groups: over 55 years old (19.3%) and youth of 20-29 years old (35.3%). We must stress that, although the relationship between period of coverage, age, and type of contract is not available, it seems obvious that the limitation of protection is due to the incidence of temporary contracts.

In the fourth place, from the point of view of the regional inequalities, coverage is lower in poorer regions, with the exception of the Basque Country, while there are regions where the coverage rates cover more than 50% of the unemployed. Such is the case in Madrid, Navarra and Barcelona.

Among unemployment benefits stand out benefits to temporary agrarian workers in Andalucia and Extremadura. In order to have a right to this benefit one must be registered in the Special Agrarian Regimen of Social Security, have paid 60 days of quota in the 12 months prior to becoming unemployed and have an income of less than the minimum wage. One can receive 75% of the minimum wage for up to a maximum

of 180 days per year. In Table 15 one can see, in addition to the relative importance of the absolute number of persons who receive benefits, how in practice there is no quota limit of 60 days: 63% of the beneficiaries have paid less than 30 days per year. Thanks to this flexibility, criticized by supposed cases of corruption discovered in 1991, social stability and the survival of a social group in regression and without possibilities of labor market integration is guaranteed. It is a system whose objective is more the prevention of social conflict than the achievement of social integration. Finally barriers of access do not exist in these two regions and its political and redistributive effectiveness is considerable (Table 8).

The agreements between the government and the unions in 1991 have increased coverage to 27 depressed areas in another four regions (Valencia, Murcia, Castilla y León and Castilla La Mancha), improve the protection of those over 52, create Regional Councils of Employment and guarantee occupational training for young people under 25. These are measures which favour the extension of social rights to the unemployed, above all young people, since protection of those over 52 noticeably improves.

d) The protection of the family in Spain, until the new law of non-insurance pensions of 1990 was approved, has been characterized by the economic insufficiency of allowances for children, at a standstill since 1971, the low level of

expenditure by Social Security on family protection and the establishment of fiscal deductions for children which do not discriminate on the basis of economic situation.

The protection of children, not of the family in its entirety, began in 1985 with monthly benefits of 1.050 pesetas per child to pensioners with minimum pensions and those unemployed persons who receive benefits and have children to support. In 1990 this benefit affected 426.956 beneficiaries or families or 725.253 children, although the social expense is not high.

The 1990 law of non-insurance pensions eliminates the previous benefits as well as the disability benefit that existed since 1970 and that benefitted 200.000 handicapped persons, creating a new system which for the first time dealt with protecting children, keeping in mind income levels and the kind of family burdens that these supposed. The new system, in effect since the beginning of 1991, protects any citizen, whether he pays Social Security or not, benefits all those families with annual incomes of less than 1 million pesetas (the limit of the income tax declaration) if they have one child, increasing the limit 15% with each child. If the child is handicapped, there is no income limit as family expenses are higher. The quantities are:

- Less than 18 years old 36.000 pesetas per year.
- Less than 18 years old and handicapped up to 33%
72.000 pesetas/year

- Over 18 and 65% handicapped 312.000 pesetas/year
- Over 18 and 75% handicapped 468.000 pesetas/year

The management of the new system has just begun, thereby making it impossible to evaluate its effectiveness. But, in terms of social rights, the new system is an important step forward. Its total effectiveness is limited by the non-distributive character of the fiscal deductions for children and for not undertaking the protection of low income families (with many children). The reform is the first strategic step toward a new form of family protection.

e) The minimum incomes of integration or social salary developed by the Autonomous Communities since 1989-90 are as much a type of economic benefit as an instrument of integration in the labor market. As such, they satisfy the need for economic security as well as the need for autonomy.

The minimum incomes of integration are approved in practically all the regions of Spain, but the fact that they were introduced scarcely two years ago, as well as the different ways they are being put into practice, makes them difficult to evaluate. Experts in the field point out that the percentage of the population which the social salary reaches is between 1.5% and 2% of the Spanish population (between 600.000 and 800.000 people). The two regions where the implantation is most developed are the Basque Country and Madrid, although these programs are now in the first phase of

evaluation and implantation.

Various characteristics of this new model of protection and integration can be observed:

1. The minimum income is greater than the assistance pensions of Social Security - around 60% of minimum wage, with increments according to the number of children (See Table 9).
2. The minimum incomes are based on a philosophy of integral struggle against poverty and the multidimensional character that this has.
3. Its objective is the social integration and access to the labor market of the population (between 25 and 65 years old who are most excluded). Within these ages exist various specific groups: young people without jobs, long-term unemployed persons, unemployed women with family responsibilities, ethnic minorities.
4. The social salary is a discretionary periodic benefit for facilitating social integration, but it is not a subjective right to a minimum income separated from the labour market.
5. The social wage has developed as much as a consequence of the policies of the Autonomous Communities as from the pressure of the unions who included it as a goal in the Priority Proposal of Unions.

In relation with its implantation we must point out its slowness and unequal development. At the moment the existing barriers of access seem to be more administrative than anything else. Table 10 gives an idea of the application of the minimum incomes, although its effectiveness may be known

during 1992.

f) There are other economic emergency benefits that Town Councils and non-governmental organizations provide, whose exact quantity is unknown, but which play a certain subsidiary role in the fight against poverty. (See Table 3).

What are the conclusions of social policy for minimum incomes in Spain? First, a fragmented system of protection lacking in coordination between the central and regional governments persists. Second, a step forward in social rights in matters of economic security in terms of coverage has taken place, but its effectiveness in many benefits is insufficient to achieve a minimum of subsistence; the rates of take up of subsistence benefits is far to be completed in the case of unemployed people (Table 11). Thirdly, the value of minimum benefits depends on annual minimum wage. Then, although the social benefits have increased in relation to minimum wage, however the negative increase of minimum wage during the eighties (Table 12), with the exception of 1990, has driven to a negative growth or stagnancy of social benefits in relation to income family per capita at disposal (Table 13). Finally, a complex system of protection has been generated, but this has not translated into recognition of a basic system of minimum income for all citizens. Such a system is possible institutionally combining four existing resources: the social wage of the Autonomous Communities, the resources of vocational training of the National Institute of Employment, the network of social services of local

government and a reformed law of non-insurance pensions. Such coordination in the form of the Concerted Plan would permit the implantation of a more effective system of minimum income at a low cost.

3.2 Working conditions and vocational training.

The need for autonomy in a society depends on integration in the labor market, the possibilities of adapting to that market, and the availability of having some basic knowledge. Unemployment, the difficulties of occupational retraining, and working conditions as beginning circumstances would be ways of negating the autonomy of individuals.

A) The incidence of unemployment in Spanish society has been especially high during the 1980s; even at present its incidence is high despite the reduction in the unemployment rate from 1985 (21.9%) to 1990 (16.3%) (See Table 14), due to the intense creation of jobs in the Spanish economy during that period. Unemployment is the main source of exclusion in Spanish society and forms a fundamental part of people's concerns, together with the problem of housing and drug addiction.

Exclusion from the labor market affects, above all, young people between 16 and 24 years of age although the percentage was reducing during the eighties from 52.2 % in 1980 to 37.1% in 1991 because of the impact of temporary employment creation. But, without a doubt, long-term jobless people is the principal characteristic of unemployment in Spain. At the end of 1991, 51.0 % of those unemployed had been so for more than a year and, what is more revealing,

32.0% of the total of unemployed people had been in this situation for more than two years, although it is true that the percentage of people in this situation decreased between 1989 and 1991 (In 1989 40.6% of those unemployed had been so for two years. In 1991 this percentage had dropped to 32.0%, while the percentage of those unemployed for more than a year fell from 58.5% in 1989 to 51.0% in 1991.).

The growth of employment during recent years has resulted, therefore, in a relative improvement in access to the labor market. But this partial decrease of barriers in the access to employment has been made through the creation of temporary jobs. The leading role of temporary jobs has two consequences from the point of view of its effectiveness: first, hiring on a temporary basis produces instability in the process of social integration and, secondly, it does not favor the quality of life at work.

In effect, temporary contracts (Table 15) were almost a third of the job contracts in Spain in 1990 and they have doubled in three years, affecting half of the salaried workers in agriculture and construction and a quarter of those working in industry and services.

Moreover, temporary hiring affects, above all, young people in such a way that if in 1987 temporary employment affected 47.1% of employed youths between 16 and 25, in 1990 the figure was 66.7%. Therefore the policy of creating jobs

during recent years has a double interpretation: on the one hand, it has been a means of creating jobs, above all, for young people (See Table 16); but, on the other hand, this policy has brought about three processes from the point of view of social exclusion:

-Instability in the process of socio-laboral integration given the low tendency to make temporary contracts permanent. This instability results in low working qualifications and a lack of identification with the company. Contractual flexibility also means precariousness.

-Temporary hiring limits social protection for unemployment: short periods of work have short periods of social protection. Table 17 shows us how in 1991 47.8% of the unemployed between the ages of 16 and 19 do not receive unemployment payments for more than 6 months, the same goes for 34.4% of the 20 to 24 year old unemployed people, when the average of those who receive unemployment payments for less than 6 months is 24.8%

-Finally, temporary hiring is expressed in a rate of job-related accidents three times higher than that for people employed on an indefinite basis. Thus temporary workers, who constitute a third of the country's wage-earners, cause half of the work-related accidents, a tendency that is clearly on the rise, as one can see in Table 18. As labor unions point out fatalism accompanies this negative tendency in the

quality of life at work.

In summary, barriers in the access to employment, above all for young people, have decreased lately thanks to the flexibility of the job market, but its effectiveness is conditioned by instability, the low coverage of social protection and the special incidence of on-the-job accidents.

B) Vocational training has been one of the primary concerns of the government and unions since 1985. In that year the (FIP) Plan went into effect, its objective being the incorporation of vocational training in the active employment policies. The first phase of the FIP Plan was carried out between 1985 and 1989. In Table 19 some basic facts about that phase are summarized. The Plan is directed at very different groups, but it is long-term unemployed youths under 25 who constitute half the group in training; also, the number of self-employed workers and women incorporated in occupational training is outstanding.

It does not seem that barriers in the access to vocational training have existed, although the resources have never been sufficient. Initially the FIP Plan served to combat student drop out (almost a quarter of young people finished basic schooling thanks to the Plan). Later the Plan focused more on the necessities of companies, although the relation between professional training and the necessities of companies has never been close.

In addition, occupational training programs, which get benefits from the European Social Fund (Table 20), receive economic loans during the period of formation, although the quantity is meager. But the main problem is the lack of coordination between the policies of vocational training and those of income: right now the Autonomous Communities are setting up a system of minimum income, but without the guarantee of integration resources, in the same way that policies of training are limited by the absence of minimum incomes. Such a spreading around does not favor the effectiveness of integration policies. Thus the need to combine the resources for professional training of the Central Administration with the minimum incomes of the Autonomous Communities and the network of municipal social services, as we have pointed out in the preceding chapter.

3.3 Education: from quantitative to qualitative reform.

EDUCATION is a right acknowledged in the Spanish Constitution, Article 41.1. What is the degree of coverage and effectiveness?

The educational coverage or access to public elementary education (between the ages of 6 and 14 until the reform by the 1990 Education Law) was 100% during the decade of the eighties (Table 21). It can be said that the 1970 education reform produced the universalization of elementary education. However, together with this fact, the most relevant thing about the past decade was the extension of nursery school education to 100% of the children between the ages of 4 and 6, and the expansion of secondary education: secondary school and vocational training, as well as the growth of special education for children with learning disabilities or handicaps.

However, the problem with education is not the coverage, although there is a problem of real access for minorities, like the Gypsies as we have seen previously, but its effectiveness; that is, student success or failure. Two indicators orient us about the fact of student failures: 1. The first general indicator is the percentage of pupils that cannot get into secondary school and whose only alternative is vocational training, up to now the gray area of secondary education. In the 1987-88 school year, 30.2% of the students that finished their elementary education could not enter

secondary school. 2. A more concrete indicator of student failure is the percentage of students that have to repeat and which in 1986 (the year for which there is information) affected 6.8% of the total of children between the ages of 6 and 14, with higher incidence in public schools, among boys in comparison to girls and the problem being concentrated in the last years of elementary education (See Table 22). It is a type of general indicator, but does not provide information about the kind of social class, levels of income or habitat.

The contrast between educational universalization and student failure incidence should be interpreted in socio-historical terms: according to Esteve Zaragoza, the "quantitative reform" of the educational system has taken place between 1970 (General Law of Education) and 1990 (LOGSE), that is, the full schooling of school-age children. However, such coverage has generated multiple social problems that are summed up in student failure of marginalized children or ones coming from a low motivating family atmosphere. This group has not been expelled from the schools, but retained there at the cost of their failure.

In 1983 (Royal Decree 24-4-1983) and in order to counteract this fact, the so-called Compensatory Education was created with the objective of "correcting the inequality that certain social groups found themselves faced with in the education system", above all for uneducated young people who drop out of elementary or vocational education, for the Gypsy

or itinerant population. This education system was centered in the fight against student failure between 1983 and 1987, afterwards its objectives would be the gypsy population, immigrants and the rural world.

During the eighties, the growth of a Special Education system for children with handicaps also took place and which carried out the aims of the Law for the Integration of the Handicapped of 1981. The expansion of this system meant, however, the segregation of the handicapped from normal schools. As of 1986, full integration in normal schools began with specific support whenever necessary, but we do not have any evaluation study about the social integration process available.

Secondary education has grown considerably in Spain giving coverage for the 1987-88 school year of between 100% of the 14-year-olds and 56% of the 17-year-olds. Nevertheless, secondary education reflects the previous educational failures or shortcomings. Thus, we have a drop-out rate for vocational training (which students who do not get an elementary education diploma enter) which reached 20.4% while in the case of secondary school it was only 7% (Table 23) with higher incidence in public than in private centers.

In the fight against social exclusion, Adult Education is one of the basic pieces which contribute to integration

through basic academic instruction, socio-cultural or occupational training. Table 24 shows us the quantitative incidence in the program for the 1987-88 academic year, almost 300,000 people mostly 14 and over who were trying to begin or finish their general primary education. However, statistical sources do not give information about social class and social profiles of the men and women who enter this program. What has been shown as much in this type of education as in compensatory education is that the carrying out of such policies cannot be effective if municipalities as well as the NGOs and the participants themselves do not intervene in the purpose of finding out what the needs are and specifically satisfying them.

Finally, the policy of scholarships in order to fulfill the principle of equal opportunities has taken a turn since 1985, doubling the budgeted resources (See Table 25) and improving coverage (Half of the scholarship holders are in higher education) although the growth in the number of scholarship holders is mainly due to the granting of aid to buy school supplies and cover transportation. Nevertheless, the economic effort has been reduced again since 1987 in its percentage of the total spending on education.

The educational reform set in motion in October, 1990, (LOGSE) has meant various changes: extending compulsory education to 16 years of age, intensifying and dignifying vocational education, intention to take on a qualitative

reform to support underprivileged groups in order to make "equal rights come into effect" and coordinating with social agents and Autonomous and Municipal Administrations to make the reform progress. The reform is in the beginning stages and, therefore, it is still too soon to have qualified information about its development available.

Illiteracy is a fundamental barrier in the access to society in complex societies where the quantity and quality of information that a citizen has to handle is considerable. The latest information about this phenomenon comes from 1986 (The data from the 1991 Census remain to be exploited). In that year the rate of absolute illiteracy in Spanish society was 4.8%; that is 1.300.991 people over 15 years of age, that rate being higher among women (5.87%) than men (2.44%) (Table 26). In addition, absolute illiteracy has a higher incidence in regions that are economically and socially lagging behind such as Andalucia, Extremadura and Castilla la Mancha (Table 27).

But if we adopt the criteria of functional illiteracy (those totally illiterate and those who have not completed primary studies) the rate of illiteracy is 34%; that is, 10.549.497 over age 15. That is, a third of Spanish society has great problems of access due to the lack of education. This problem affects almost half of the population of some underprivileged regions as those pointed earlier. The problem, as we saw in last year's report, affects older people

above all. For the younger people the program of Adult Education has been the way to combat the lack of basic knowledge, in addition to the literacy campaigns in rural areas. However, public documents that evaluate these programs do not exist.

3.4 Policies on Health.

The right to health protection is a constitutional right in Spain (Article 43.1 of the Constitution) and the General Law of Public Health of 1986 acknowledges the right to equal access for all citizens in terms of "real equality" and is oriented to "overcoming territorial and social imbalances" (Article 3). In the same way as in the educational system or in the system of pensions for the elderly population, the universalization of health care coverage was achieved at the end of the 1980s, but qualitative problems of access and real equality still exist.

1. The first proof, therefore, is that the universalization of the right to health has come about since January, 1990, through the implantation of health coverage for all Spaniards, a measure that was preceded by the initiative to universalize health care in the Basque Country in September, 1989. Table 28 shows us the expansion of health coverage to all the Spanish population upon transforming the health care system of the Social Security -more the existing regional and municipal health care resources - into a national health system financed by the State. Nevertheless, Spanish health care spending has been practically stopped up during the eighties and below the average spending in countries in the OCED (Table 29)

2. The progressive universalization of the health care system has traditionally been founded in a fragmented functioning of the system: in one way, it is a system that so

far has been based on the centrality of hospitals (known as hospital-centrism) and on a very deficient system of Primary Care, the sources of social criticism and inequalities, as J. de Miguel y Guillén has so rigourously pointed out.

3. This universal, fragmented system has provoked a far from insignificant criticism from the people so that 77% of the Spanish in 1991 thought that the system needed profound reform (Table 30) manifesting an insatisfaction that occupies the third place after the United States and Italy in regard to organization and equity of the health care system in contrast to the satisfaction with the health services as such.

These structural features instituted the necessity to undertake the reform of the health care system. In 1990, a Commission of Analysis and Evaluation of the National Health System was created; its results were made public in July, 1991. The Commission has tried to achieve more efficient use of the resources, attain higher subjective satisfaction from the users, promote cost consciousness and introduce flexibility in management, at the same time as improving the quality of assistance and equitable access to health care resources. The Commission's report, known as the Abril Report, has been highly controversial given that it has been interpreted by many sectors as a hidden project of privatization and by a minority as a possible project of reform. For the moment, it has arrived at a situation of certain political freezing about the possibility of applying

some of the proposals presented therein.

The Abril Report coincides in everything with the people's criticism of the lack of quality in primary care, the overcrowding of the services and the existence of equity problems, where we will now direct our consideration, although the supposed financial inviability of the health care system has intensified unless changes in the structure of supply and demand are introduced. The problem is that whatever reform of the system, once universal coverage is attained, should be made through a wide social agreement which combines demands for efficiency with social equity in the satisfaction of needs.

What is the effectiveness of the Spanish health care system? A primary indicator of effectiveness is life expectancy and low infant death rate (Table 31) where Spain is among the first positions within the countries in the OECD. However, we should not have to overvalue the importance of the health care system in this success, as the Abril Report does, since other social factors are those which at times have a higher incidence in an indicator like life expectancy (demographic factors, type of diet, health education in the family, public facilities, among others).

A second indicator is that which refers to access to health centers or primary care centers. Here is the basic problem of access, since its malfunction caused the

saturation of emergency services at hospitals and the overload in specialized services. Within the strategy of health for everyone, the development of Health Care Centers or Units of Primary Care, which try to get immediate access to the health care system, the user's satisfaction, and the co-ordination with social services; has been strengthened in the last few years. This system is growing rather slowly and, in any case, the information we have available only refers to the INSALUD territory, that is, to the regions where health care services have not been transferred to regional authority. Well then, in December, 1990, 13,901,365 people in INSALUD territory, or 65% of the total population in that territory, had use of the new structure of Primary Care in which the program of visits-by-appointment has been established to make access easy by avoiding waiting lines.

Presently, indicators of access are not available - it is in the introductory phase - so we cannot undertake the effectiveness of the system, but we can point out the development of support programs to primary care, which improve the possibilities of effectiveness: programs of care for women, of mental health, rehabilitation and social work. When the primary care network and the corresponding information systems have definitively been established, more global indicators of effectiveness will be available.

A final indicator is that referring to the degree of equity in the health care system. Beforehand, we must point

out some ideas in this point: the first and most elemental is that the health system, more than produce inequalities, reinforces the already existing ones as health sociologists and economists prove. The second is that indicators like death rates are hardly usable in the analysis of social inequality since the profession is the only data collected. If the socio-economic status is not included in the different sources of information, it is not possible to provide statistics of quality, thus having to revert to health surveys to find out the relation among social class, health level and the use of the health care system.

Having made these observations, we can take into consideration two aspects about equality in the Spanish health care system based on secondary sources. Firstly, there is a geographic inequality of access since the distribution of the economic resources of the system follows a strict population criterion and does not take into account the different incidence of the causes of the death and the sick rates or risk groups (Gypsy minority, the elderly in rural areas, urban zones of high social risk). Secondly, health surveys show us indicators of subjective health where socio-economic inequalities are a reality (see Table 32), but which do not look at specific samples to analyze the problems of equality and exclusion of risk or underprivileged groups. Unless there are analyses of sub-samples of underprivileged groups, it will not be possible to delve deeply into the problems of effectiveness of the health care system.

3.5 Access to housing.

"All Spaniards have the right to enjoy a worthy, appropriate dwelling" (Article 47 of the Constitution). In the 1900 report, we made a detailed analysis of the housing policy in Spain during the eighties, qualifying it as a failure from the point of view of social exclusion, at least in comparison to the advances made in other areas of welfare. The reasons for such failure we said were: the non-execution of the housing plans, the dependency of public policies on the dynamics of the liberalization of the building sector (in practice speculation) and the concentration of State intervention through tax deductions. Thus, access to housing in the big cities has been closed off now not only for the working class, but also for considerable contingents of the middle class which have to get a house by moving to the periphery of the cities where the poor quality of collective facilities is notable.

That negative valuation has been entirely confirmed in 1991 in such a way that the debate about housing policy was the central issue in the latest municipal elections in 1991 and has been converted into a national problem, the object of maximum political concern. A widespread debate underlies the project of the new Plan for Housing 1992-95 (Table 33). We will attempt to synthesize said debate and delimit the lines of the new Plan for Housing.

The controversy lies on which should be favored - a policy of liberalization of the housing policies with certain support to the demand through cheaper interest rates or an active one of intervention which implies developing a public offer of housing for needy people and the policies of urban land in addition to the support through demand. The first position is the one which won out in practice during the second half of the eighties and the consequences are expressive: the fall of the building of officially protected and publicly promoted housing, together with the lack of control in the liberalization of building, has taken us to an increase of exclusion in this field, which affects above all the young people as Gaviria and others point out: "It is the generation without a roof, between 25 and 35 years of age, which is about to make up the jinxed generation if when they retire they realize that pensions are not coming to them either because there are too many old agers." Besides, it has provoked going into debt and even insolvency as is the case in some zones to the south of Madrid (Table 34) and, in any case, three quarters of new households cannot afford the prices of getting a house.

The widespread restriction of access to housing that has been created is caused, therefore, by the abandonment of an active management of social housing (public offer of housing and rent policies) and its substitution with a credit based policy. The latter is not enough as the authorities themselves acknowledge: "The raising of housing to the

category of a national problem in 1991 has accentuated the importance of loan conditions...but at first sight, the problems are rooted more in the high rent prices of housing in relation to family incomes than in the loan conditions. Another outstanding problem is the absence of offers of housing for rent and the low public offer of social housing." So, it is acknowledged that a plan for housing cannot be a plan of subsidized credit if there is no policy of active intervention in the offer of housing and of setting-up a public land patrimony. The market left to its free functioning has brought about more inequality and speculation than if the State had had a greater leading role in housing policy.

On the basis of the difficulties of a detailed calculation of needs, the experts believe that housing policy should vary according to the economic possibilities of families. In this sense, we would have to differentiate among three groups: the first group of population composed of those who earn incomes less than 2.5 the minimum interprofessional wage (estimated at 25% of the population with needs) for whom there would have to be a public housing offer on a rental basis, in addition to specific action for the most excluded or marginalized groups and nationwide interventions in the development of the territory. The second group, with family incomes not above 3.5 the minimum wage, the largest group (about 45%) where the offer of solutions should be varied, combining access to property with possible formulas of rent

OBSERVATORY ON POLICIES TO COMBAT SOCIAL EXCLUSION

SOCIAL EXCLUSION IN SPAIN: CONSOLIDATED REPORT 1990-1991

By

Prof. Gregorio R.Cabrero

Universidad Autonoma de Madrid

in addition to aid through credit. There is another, third group (around 30%) with incomes over 3.5 the minimum wage, whose problem is whether there is enough of an offer of officially protected housing.

In any case, a greater leading role from the offer on the part of the public sector, the development of a promotion policy of rented housing (at present without much support given the Spanish people's preference to own property) and greater public spending on housing (Table 35) are starting conditions of an active policy to favor access to housing.

Upon these bases we can consider the draft of the new Plan for Housing 1992-95. In Table 36, the set of aid anticipated in the new housing policy can be seen. The draft of the Royal Decree concerning Measures of Financing Protective Actions in Matters of Housing and Land is centered in the promotion and support of the social demand and, in smaller measure, in the strengthening of the supply or building of housing under public promotion.

The Government has been sensitive to the widespread criticism of the people of the housing policy and in the above mentioned draft a series of supports to the demand, which try to soften the negative social effects of the liberalization of the sector, are defined. Thus, it is about supporting a policy of liberalization controlled by the demand side. A valuation of such measures, bearing in mind

the preceding observations, should differentiate between the positive and negative elements:

- From the demand side, the plan meets a basic objective as is supporting access to housing for incomes under 3.5 the minimum wage: 1. Support of housing with official protection for those who earn incomes at 2.5 the minimum wage. 2. Support of first access to housing for those whose earnings do not exceed 3.5 said wage. 3. Access to housing at a price assessed or fixed for different types of incomes. 4. Support of the renovation of housing with a minimum age of 10 years.

- From the supply side is where the draft has serious problems since it does not include nationwide action in the sphere of the policy of publicly promoted housing, more than 80% of the spending for 1992 will be made in subsidies or grants for interest and loans, and a planning policy of land offer is not guaranteed in spite of the fact that actions for creating public land is supported.

Thus, we have the support to attain a more solvent demand, but a very limited offer/supply from the public side, which can limit access to housing.

For the coming years the access to housing will be a fundamental social problem for social policy. Many policy

changes will be necessary to modify the present quantitative policy based on fiscal spending (80% of total public spending on housing), the poor role of rents policy (Spain is at the bottom of EEC in rent houses percentage) and finance liberalization which has driven to the preeminence of housing building for solvent demand.

A distributive or qualitative policy must emphasize on direct grants for needy groups (not fiscal spending without redistributive effects) improvement on coordination housing policy and public production of houses and flats for very need groups and young people with low incomes.

3.6 Social services.

The personal social services system in Spain has evolved during the eighties from a residual structure of public charity to one of extensive social services structure which has been facing new challenges: sociological changes (the decreasing role of family in the care system and the loosening of community ties) also political changes (decentralization of social services, the rising of NGOs) and economic (such as the high incidence on unemployment and new forms of social instability as temporary jobs rising).

In the specific report on "Social services in Spain" can be found a detailed analysis of social services structure, functions and effectiveness. But we can mention here some crucial social facts:

a) During the last decade has been built a complex structure of social services, in many ways fragmented and decentralized at regional and municipal level. The building of a network of municipal social services or social services centres is being a crucial step to approach the social services to the citizens although it is not clear until now that this system is able to come close to needy groups. A new change from 1985 is the development of home help services at municipal level where the NGOs play a decisive role. New policies for protection of children and family and the new roles of voluntary sector must be emphasised in the new system.

b) A main problem of social services is the coordination of policies and institutions inside social services and with other sectoral areas such as education, health and housing, although the municipal Concerted Plan on Social Services and the different National Plans are contributing to build bridges between different areas of social policy. In spite of present advances the coordination is a crucial challenge for the coming years in the fight against social exclusion.

c) Thirdly, the social services and the present system of assistance benefits allows us to speak of the consolidation of a Social Assistance State to protect the needy groups in a way that political legitimation, social control and compensation for the social cost of economic modernization are more relevant than the policies to combat processes of social exclusion. In other words, the Social Assistance State is fulfilling several objectives at the same time: universalizing social protection, legitimizing the changes in the social structure and controlling the unstable groups. We could say that two main political processes are developing at the same time: the extension of social rights and new types of social control on groups at risk (migrants, gypsies).

The structure of social services in Spain is a complex system of instruments of social action where we must consider different levels of intervention and also different institutional tools. The basic structure of social services is spread over five scopes: a) Social services carried out on the municipal level and recently coordinated through the

Concerted Plan for the Development of Social Services on the Local Government.also known as Concerted Plan for Basic rendering of Social Services which has been in effect since 1988.Their main objectives are providing information and guidance about social rights and social resources to individuals,prevention and integration measures,the development of home help and family support and boarding services for people without a family environment.; b) National Plans that coordinate resources ,institutions and authorities of different levels in order to rationalize the social action and coordinate efforts.We mention here national plans as National Plan on Drugs,the Plan for the Integration of Young people,the Plan for Equal Opportunities for Women and the coming national Gerontologic Plan.c) Also here are Specific Programmes: program for the development of the Gypsy people,The Fight Against poverty (III European Program) and program for the the social integration of handicapped (LISMI).d) The cooperation with NGOs is a new policy of social services driven by the Ministry Of Social Affaires from 1988.e) Finally can be mentioned the national system of social benefits of assistance nature that constitute the social Assistance State in Spain or minimum income resources system.Although the social benefits can not be considered as services are very related with the national system of social services because the social services are a privileged channel of access to social benefits.

The growth and modernization of social services during the last years is a process that has been carried out through

a wide decentralization of social services, the greater presence of the voluntary sector and progressive coordination of policies in this sector. Their functions are under debate now, but could be said that social services are fulfilling contradictory functions: they are a mean of universalizing social protection, they are functional to the labour market in protecting social collectives without questioning the present requirements of this market (instability and precariousness) they legitimize the socio-political system opening the mechanism of integration no matter how weak they are and, finally, they are an instrument of social control of unstable collectives in a period of economic modernization.

The social services in Spain are trying to fulfil functions of information and family support, cooperation and social insertion and minimum income for integration. The development of such objectives is facing barriers of access to social welfare; we can mention six specific barriers: 1. There is an information barrier in the sense that the system of social services does not tend to seek out excluded groups but rather waits for these groups to come to social services or information centers. 2. The second barrier is one of State budget: although spending for social services has grown during the eighties from a very low level there is still a real problem of insufficient funds to meet the new needs and demands. 3. The barrier of lack of coordination of social services at times leads to the duplication of services and a lack of social effectiveness. 4. There is barrier of a physical nature in the case of those rural groups which are

dispersed in rural areas or the barriers not solved of the incapacitated.⁵ The barrier of lack of content of general services which are in many cases limited to ,statically providing information rather than promoting and coordinating the resources in the territory.⁶The last barrier is the increasing social rejection of excluded groups mainly economic colour migrants.These barriers signified by social leaders and social services experts constitute a work program in the field of social servives for the coming years.

CHAPTER 4

CATEGORICAL POLICIES FOR GROUPS AT RISK

4.1 Policies for economic migrants.

During the 1990 and 1991 the xenophobic ideologies have gained support by the Spanish population as different surveys have shown in relation with African inmigrants mainly. The new fact is that Spain is becoming progressively a country of inmigration and the South European door.

The legal framework of migrants policies are the Law 5/1984 on the Right of Asylum and the Status of Refugee and mainly the Law 7/1985 for Foreigners. In spite of restrictive development of the law during the second half of 1991 and the negative ideologies of public opinion has taken place a very positive policy of legalization process of those working inmigrants with illegal status. That policy has been positive because of two reasons: firstly because the process has been concerted between Administration, Unions and main NGOs (Caritas, Red Cross). Secondly, because the process has legalized a high number of working inmigrants (Table 37), although the figures are low in relation with estimated number of illegal inmigrants; approximately, one third of estimated illegal inmigrants have been legalized during the process. But the demographic pressure of inmigrants during the coming years inevitably will create new problems of integration and policy pressures.

4.2 Elderly and handicapped.

The new policy for economic security of elderly and handicapped people was materialized in the law 26/1990 or non-contributive pensions scheme. As we have explained before that approves two types of pensions:

- Pensions for senior citizens over the age of 65 who have not economic resources.

- Pensions for handicapped or chronically ill over the age of 18 whose handicap surpasses 65% and who have not financial resources. If the handicap surpasses 75% the pensioners have the right of 50% above the amount of the pension if they need a help of a third party.

They are means-tested benefits which are recognized by the law as subjective rights that provide access to economic benefits, medical care and social benefits. This new type of pensions calculates the pension on family income basis (on individual basis if the applicant lives alone) and reaches near half minimum wage. The law does not protect other groups at risk who have to apply for economic benefits to the regional minimum incomes for integration.

If the beneficiary does not live with first degree blood relationship family the limitation of income is calculated according to this formula:

$$L = C + 0.75\% C (M - 1)$$

L is the limit of pension

C is the annual amount of the pension.

0.75% of the pension

m number of persons living with the pensioner

That means:

Number		Annual economic limit
2	$364.000 + (254.800)$	618.800
3	$364.000 + (254.800 \times 2)$	873.600
"		
10	$" (" \times 9)$	2.657.200

If the pensioner lives with his parents or children - first degree blood relationship - the economic limitation is raised to facilitate financially family solidarity according to this formula:

$$L = C + 0.75\% C (M-1) 2.5$$

That means:

Number		Annual economic limit
2	$364.000 + (254.800) 2.5$	1.547.000
3	$364.000 + (254.800 \times 2) 2.5$	2.184.000
"		
10	$364.000 + (254.800 \times 9) 2.5$	6.643.000

The main problem of both these groups is the low value of pensions in relation to minimum wage and income family at disposal in spite of increasing value during the last years. At different level this problem is faced by the minimum pensions of Social Security which value has increased in relation to minimum wage, but decreased in relation to income family per capita.

4.3 Unemployed and long term unemployed.

As we saw before the coverage of unemployed people has increased during 1990 and is increasing in 1991 through assistance system of protection (61% of total unemployment beneficiaries) and contributive protection. During these years it was a sharp increase in the figures of unemployed people under social protection.

The crucial problem is the protection of people with temporary jobs and the exclusion of long term unemployed people. In the first case where there are mainly young people we can see how in 1990 53.7% of the unemployed between the ages of 16 and 19 did not received benefits for more than 6 months decreasing to 47.8% in 1991 and the same goes for 45.4% in 1990 and 34.4% in 1991 of the 20 to 24 years of age unemployed when the average of those who receive unemployment payments for less than 6 months was 27.8% in 1990 and 24.8 in 1991. The increasing of temporary jobs between young people has clear impacts in the social protection of this group.

In relation to long term unemployed the problems of the exclusion are more clear for young people who has to apply to the benefits of vocational training or to minimum incomes of integration at regional level, although the people being 55 years of age can apply for economic benefits until the age of retirement.

CHAPTER 5

GLOBAL POLICIES AND CUMULATIVE EXCLUSION

CHAPTER 5: GLOBAL POLICIES AND CUMULATIVE EXCLUSION.

In the development of policies against cumulative exclusion minimum income for integration is a global system at regional level developed from 1989(the Basque Country was the first as we explained in the 1990 report) until now.The system tries to combine economic benefits for needy people with policies of social insertion(vocational training, learning at school or adult education system,etc).

The development of the new system is not coordinated and the differences between regions very high. In general during 1990 and 1991 the new regional system has been developed scarcely.Only in Madrid and Basque Country the minimum incomes programmes are developed widely,and recently evaluated.

Slowness and unequal development are the main characteristics of the minimum income in Spain (see table 10).

The effectiveness of the new system depends now of a new type de coordination between Administrations,Unions and NGOs.If the implantation of the system has been positive because has created a last net of social protection which did no exist before at national level for people between 25 and 65 years of aged or less than 25 with family responsibilities and in general has been concerted between Regional Governments and Unions,now the problem is how to coordinate the differents resources(minimum incomes,vocational training

programmes, social services network) and different Administrations in a concerted and coordinated programme of social insertion. Our proposal in this report and in the Social Services Report is the negotiation of a national programme of social integration which can globalize all the resources and all the political and social actors: Central Government, Regional and Municipal Authorities, Unions and the most relevant NGOs. Only the integrated approaches can overcome the very limited categorical policies such as those for specific groups (gypsies, migrants, etc). However, we can not conceal that this proposal implies deep political changes: the acceptance by Central Government of a leading role in relation to social insertion in spite of present constitutional limits (main areas of social policy are under Regional competence) and the acceptance by Regional Government of a general coordination at national level in order to avoid regional differences and can get effectiveness against social exclusion.

PART III

POLICIES AND INNOVATORY ACTIONS

CHAPTER 6

POLICIES AGAINST SOCIAL EXCLUSION

6. POLICIES AGAINST SOCIAL EXCLUSION.

In Annex III we have synthesized the different policies against social exclusion developed during the decade of eighties although the Spanish Constitution of 1978 is the point of departure of main changes in the field of social policy.

We have differentiated three types of social policies against social exclusion: general policies, categorical policies and specific policies. There is a crucial characteristic in all of those: the decentralization. During the last decade until now has taken place a continuous process of decentralization of the services and policies which has allowed more accessibility to public services in spite of the difficulties of coordination and planning.

a) The general policies on public services show how there is a tendency to decentralization where the central government has competence in planning and coordination, while the regional authorities have competences in the management of public services. Local government is playing a growing role in education, health, housing and social services.

b) The policies on specific groups of population show how the central government plays a role of coordination of initiatives and policies whose competence belongs to Autonomous Governments and the same happens in relation to specific policies or national plans on drugs, poverty, vocational training where the central government is financing and supporting regional policies. This very positive process of decentralization is facing no few

problems of coordination and effectiveness that will be analyzed in a specific report in 1992.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

7. CONCLUSIONS.

1. The political and scientific debate.

The term "social exclusion", which had been treated with secondary importance as a category of analysis in social policy, has gained ground in 1991 and has come to enrich other categories such as those of poverty and marginalization.

We understand that this usage is a positive step in social analysis: first, because it broadens the area of analysis of the causes and effects of social policy; moreover, it goes beyond the binominal term economic income/poverty by substituting it with the term citizenship/social exclusion; finally, because in terms of the designing of social policies it allows us to globalize the problems of socially excluded groups or groups in a situation of risk.

During 1990-91 the setting up of regional programs of minimum income for social integration had polarized the debate on poverty as to capacity of this system to achieve social integration or whether only programs of vocational training were preferable. In 1991 the elimination of this false alternative has allowed the debate among social agents and politicians to acquire more complex and complete dimensions.

Why has this false polarization between social integration via minimum income or social integration via vocational training been overcome? There are several reasons which have contributed to overcoming it:

a) First, the fact that NGOs, labor unions and social leaders have shown the limits of a policy of social integration without a system of minimum income as well as the limits of a system of minimum income without a set of viable programs for social integration.

b) Second, the fact that the worsening of situations of social exclusion in 1991 (of Gypsies, drug addicts and economic immigrants) has added cultural and political exclusion to economic exclusion, thereby globally questioning the essence of the concept of citizenship.

c) Finally, the practical advances in programs of social action, which require institutional coordination and social participation, carry with them the definition of a more complex area of the problems of accessibility of social welfare.

This broadening of the field of debate concerning social exclusion allows us to go into the new problems of the **Welfare State in Spain in depth: universalization/effectiveness, generalization/internal differentiation; in the new objectives of policy against**

social exclusion: the exclusion of ethnic minorities, colored immigrants, immigrants in general, people from rural areas; and in the new institutional problems: to broaden institutional and social coordination and expand the development of volunteer organizations.

2. The effectiveness of social policy with respect to social exclusion.

During the eighties and mainly from 1989 we have witnessed the continuation of the process of universalization of the Welfare State in Spain and of the expansion of the field of action of social services. Thus, we should point out different advances such as the following:

(1) Regarding the policy of income: the passing of the law of Non-Insurance Pensions in December 1990, the development of programs of minimum income in the Autonomous Communities, the expansion of assistance benefits coverage to the unemployed, the changes in the protection of children. Annex II shows clearly the trends in the coverage of social benefits: the index of number of recipients of minimum benefits just has multiplied three times between 1983 and 1991 because of the growing number of elderly people and assistance unemployed and then the rates of take up of means tested benefits.

(2) Concerning the policy of social services: the extension of the network of social services and of home help at municipal level are the most important changes.

(3) With respect to the policy of social integration: the development of mechanisms or national global programs to fight the social exclusion of drug addicts, women and youth that improve the coordination of social policies. Also the policy of promotion and support of NGOs that are developing activities for social insertion.

(4) In regard to the policy of preferential welfare services: the expansion of schooling and the reinforcement of the role of vocational training; regarding health, the continuation of the extension of the new type of basic care to improve the quality of universalization of health system.

All of these are examples of the advances in the universalization and extension of social rights. But their effectiveness depends on the capacity of access to the services and benefits of the Welfare State, on the sufficiency of these services and benefits, on the capacity for coverage of needy groups and on the mobilization of social groups and volunteer organizations in the construction of social welfare.

From this point of view, the analysis of the effectiveness of the process of universalization shows us

some limits and insufficiencies that we can summarize from in the following way:

(a) Concerning the policy of incomes: the law of non-insurance pensions of 1990 missed the opportunity to establish a national system of incomes for social integration, not only for the sick and the elderly but also for all those of working age, especially if we take into account the growing limits that the Autonomous Communities are showing in the development of their programs of minimum income; the improvement of financial benefits for pensions and unemployment still has to reach a higher level of sufficiency in order to surpass the limits of mere subsistence, although there exists the limit of the contributive system of the Social Security; unemployment coverage, which improved and very extended in 1991, is still insufficient given the rate of long-term unemployment and mainly the effects of temporary hiring; while the new system of family protection was a big step forward regarding the protection of children, the rigid income limit required for qualification should be eliminated in order to facilitate eligibility, and the tax deductions according to income level should be modified. As in other European countries the extension of assistance benefits in Spain has been made partially at the expense of the intensity of protection.

(b) Regarding the policy of socio-labor integration in favor of self-autonomy, we must admit the persistence of a

high rate of unemployment, although reduced in 1990-91, but above all social instability brought about by temporary hiring which in 1990-91 affected a third of the work force and 40.8% in 1991 of the young workers between the ages of 16 and 25. With respect to vocational training, the agreements between the Government and the Labor Unions in 1991 may make training more accessible to the most excluded groups and to the real needs of companies under the second Plan for Vocational Training which has just gotten under way.

(c) Concerning the policy of social services we should point out that the extension of the network of social services and the potential in coordination that it supposes seems to benefit fundamentally the general population and to a lesser degree the socially excluded groups that get with more difficulties to centers offering services; however, we shall have to wait for the evaluation of the Social Report of the network of the Concerted Plan of Municipal Social Services in 1992 to confirm this hypothesis or not. The extension of home help over the last few years is going to require improved coordination and new types of more qualitative benefits.

(d) In regard to the policy of coordination and social integration there is evidence of progress in the coordination of policies, through national global programs (on drug abuse, for women and for youth) and the development of volunteer organizations; nevertheless, in 1991 the development of

volunteer groups was still very dependent upon public administration, and the policies of social integration have taken a step backwards concerning two collectives: Gypsies and drug addicts; on the other hand, there has been positive progress in the social integration of foreign immigrants, thanks to cooperation between the Government and NGOs.

(e) With respect to the policy of sectoral welfare services, having achieved universal basic education we are faced with the problem of academic failure on the part of socially rejected groups, a problem which requires the reinforcement of compensatory education and better coordination to achieve this goal. In the area of health, in 1990 a national system was created for universal public health care which would foster basic assistance by including specific programs for women, social work and mental health. The problems of effectiveness of this system are those of accessibility (geographical accessibility or the existence of centers for basic assistance) and equity (measurable only through health surveys, since the rates of death and illness do not include socio-economic criteria) if we bear in mind that the public health system reinforces already existing social inequalities rather than crating new ones in our society. Regarding housing policy, we should point out that in 1991 it became the number one national problem: access to housing is, at present, a serious problem. The failure of liberalizing policies led to an extensive debate before the new Plan for Housing 1992-95. Our evaluation is that the new

plan has taken positive steps from the point of view of demand to facilitate buying; however, it does not undertake an active policy of providing social housing on the part of public administration, a situation which could once again lead to the social failure of the plan.

3. From the analysis of effectiveness of social accessibility in the Spanish system of welfare we can deduce some significant consequences for the development of policies of social integration. These can be tentatively summed up as the following three:

(a) From the political point of view of social policy in Spain, not only must the policy of coverage continue in order to deal with the most obvious gaps in social welfare (unemployment, access to employment and housing), but also its effectiveness must be broadened (sufficient income, eligibility of less informed and socially excluded groups); this lack of effectiveness has led to a Social Assistance State which is incomplete and, at some levels, inadequate.

(b) From the ideological point of view it seems that the Spanish welfare system and Spanish society in general show a certain resistance towards the social integration of those who are different (ethnic minorities and colored immigrants) and those who are far away (rural areas of subsistence). Any progress in social integration policies must be based on the reinforcement and extension of social citizenship from a

pluralistic point of view and in all its dimensions. We believe that this aspect, at present, is vital.

(c) From the institutional point of view, the advance of social policy depends to a large extent on coordination and participation. We can deduce that in those areas where there has been institutional coordination and the participation of volunteer groups we have a guarantee of progress in the development of social policy and in the fight against social exclusion. The continuation of negotiated cooperation among the different levels of government and the active participation of NGOs are unnecessary conditions for the development of social rights.

ANNEX I

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF FUNCTIONAL INCOME AT DISPOSAL INCLUDING
SOCIAL BENEFITS (% /National Income at Disposal)

Year	Wages	Profits	Social Benefits
1980	39.27	48.42	12.31
1981	38.60	47.84	13.56
1982	37.28	48.40	14.32
1983	36.71	48.07	15.21
1984	33.82	50.93	15.25
1985	33.06	51.01	15.92
1986	33.64	50.50	15.86
1987	34.36	49.72	15.92
1988	34.25	50.20	15.56
1990	33.38	50.23	16.38

Source: R.Muñoz del Bustillo.1992.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY INCOME AT DISPOSAL BY DECILES

Year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1970	1.44	3.13	4.31	5.29	6.42	7.90	8.59	9.90	12.26	40.76
1974	1.76	3.18	4.47	5.11	6.34	8.04	9.06	10.09	12.38	39.57
1980	2.41	3.98	5.20	6.31	7.48	8.80	10.01	11.53	15.05	29.23
1986	2.61	4.28	5.61	6.83	7.92	9.23	10.65	12.59	15.72	24.48
1987	2.70	4.35	5.63	6.81	7.91	9.15	10.73	12.50	15.42	24.74
1988	2.63	4.31	5.63	6.91	8.09	9.39	10.73	12.60	15.68	23.97
1989	2.59	4.29	5.66	6.93	8.08	9.36	10.72	12.53	15.58	24.22
1990	2.90	4.44	5.71	6.90	8.04	9.30	10.82	12.64	15.42	23.78

Source: INE, Family Budgets Survey 1974 and 1981. Permanent Survey on Family Budgets 1986, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1990.

TABLE 3

ASSISTANCE ECONOMIC BENEFITS (1990-91)

Benefit	Monthly amount	% /Minimum Wage	Beneficiaries	Spending Millions
1. ASSISTANCE				
PENSIONS				
. FAS	22.108	42.2	342.059	105.861
. LISMI	22.108	42.2	214.257(1)	64.747
. Non-Insu.P.	26.000(2)	48.8	13.645(3)	776
Total			569.961	171.384
2. UNEMPLOYMENT				
BENEFITS				
. Assistance	B.37.507	75.0	508.540	228.800
. Agrarian	B.37.507	75.0	294.677	130.500
. V.Training	37.507(4)	75.0	415.400	74.977.8
Total			1.218.617	434.277.8
3. ASSISTANCE				
LEVEL OF				
S. SECURITY				
. Minimum complements			2.441.065	417.130
. Special Family allowances	1.050		426.956	9.138
. Family B. Allowances	3.000(5)		-	-
. Allowances for Handica.	3.000(6)		201.153(7)	6.639.2
. Emigrants B.			4.197	11.5
Total			3.073.371	424.542
4. MINIMUM INCOME				
FOR SOCIAL				
INTEGRATION				
	30.000(8)		20.114	5.222.1
5. OTHER BENEFITS				
. S.Security				922.3(9)
. Local Governments				1.200(10)
. NGOs				1.500(11)
Total				3.622.3
TOTAL 1+2+3+4+5			4.861.949	1.033.826.1

Source: Own calculations

- (1) Pais Vasco in not included
- (2) Non Insurance Pensions has started in March 1991.
- (3) March to September 1991.
- (4) Being less 25 years old the benefit is les than 75% .
- (5) Starts in 1991 substituting special family allowances.
- (6) This system is substituted by the family allownces of 1990 non insurance pension law.
- (7) Pais Vasco is not included.
- (8) Mean estimated.
- (9) Special benefits for elderly and handicapped people.
- (10) Estimation: 3% of local government social services spending.
- (11) Estimation.

TABLE 4

ASSISTANCE PENSIONS IN SPAIN IN 1990

	Men	%	Women	%	TOTAL
1.FAS					
Total	82.809	26.8	250.311	73.2	342.059
80 +	13.691		80.193		93.884
Chronic Sicks	113.327	38.2	70.138	61.8	113.465
Elderly	34.099	16.9	167.983	83.1	202.082
2.LISMI.					
Total	55.915	26.1	158.342	73.9	214.257
65 +	4.952	6.2	75.812	93.8	80.764
18-65	50.963	38.2	82.530	61.8	133.493
TOTAL 1+2	138.724		417.594		556.316
3.NO INSURANCE PENSIONS LAW					
Total					13.645(1)
Chronic Sicks					1.304
Elderly					12.341
TOTAL 1+2+3					569.961

Source: Anuario Estadísticas Laborales and INSERSO.

(1) March to September 1991.

TABLE 5

MINIMUM CONTRIBUTIVE PENSIONS

Pension	Number	% /Total	%/ pension type	Monthly mean. Ptas	Total Social Security Pensions
Handicap.	408.142	16.72	25.86	10.903	1.578.176
Retired	1.129.627	46.27	39.80	12.599	2.837.862
Widows	793.272	32.50	50.64	13.074	1.566.417
Orphans	95.551	3.91	58.31	6.268	163.864
Others	14.473	0.60	54.76	5.433	26.429
TOTAL	2.441.065	39.54		12.179	6.172.748

Source: Informe Economico Financiero de la Seguridad Social.
Figures 31-12-90.

TABLE 6

COVERAGE OF THE UNEMPLOYMENT PROTECTION SYSTEM

Year	Number	Contributive	Assistance	Coverage %	
				Gross	Net
1982	674.803	568.806	105.997	33.6	47.7
1983	633.537	519.426	114.111	26.3	38.8
1985	1.087.570	585.265	502.305	32.4	48.4
1987	1.112.986	439.414	673.572	28.9	43.9
1989	1.172.900	426.800	746.000	34.1	49.3
1990	1.306.854	503.637	803.217	42.9	59.1
1991	1.427.990	616.159	811.831	51.9	67.0

Source: Boletín de Estadísticas Laborales

Gross coverage:

Beneficiaries excluded partial unemployment and special assistance for casual agricultural workers

Registered unemployed

x 100

Net coverage:

Beneficiaries excluded partial unemployment and special assistance for casual agricultural workers

x 100

Registered unemployed in Industry, Construction and Services

Source: Boletín de Estadísticas Laborales.

TABLE 7

UNEMPLOYMENT COVERAGE EFFECTIVENESS(%)

Coverage	1989			1990		
	Total	Contribu.	Assist.	Total	Contribu.	Assis.
- 3 months	19.2	29.7	8.9	21.3	31.5	10.4
3-6 months	18.7	22.5	15.0	20.5	25.0	15.7
6-9 months	16.6	14.4	18.8	15.1	14.5	15.7
Less 1 year	67.0	77.3	81.3	69.0	57.0	56.1

Gross
Coverage
CCAA

	1989	1990	1991
Total	34.08	42.97	51.93
Under mean rate			
Andalucia	26.17	33.44	42.15
Asturias	29.20	35.01	38.46
Castilla y León	31.44	39.35	45.98
Extremadura	26.50	30.87	35.04
Galicia	31.47	39.10	47.04
Murcia	25.16	35.18	49.75
Pais Vasco	33.35	38.07	44.24
Aragón	36.64	45.89	58.60
Baleares	42.37	54.09	68.66
Canarias	35.15	47.52	54.29
Cantabria	36.32	44.13	52.34
Castilla Mancha	39.80	47.52	57.23
Cataluña	44.33	60.64	73.54
Valencia	35.17	44.91	53.81
Madrid	44.13	52.48	62.47
Navarra	42.43	51.39	58.84
Rioja	56.55	68.66	76.90

Source: Own making on Boletín Estadísticas Laborales.

TABLE 8

UNEMPLOYED AGRARIAN WORKERS WITH ASSISTANCE BENEFITS. 1990

Andalucía	257.658	
Extremadura	37.019	
Men	160.800	
Women	133.877	
Age		
16-19	17.668	
20-24	50.646	
25-54	187.364	
54 +	38.986	
Monthly worked days		
	Less 3 days	3 days +
16-19	11.471	6.197
20-24	31.981	18.665
25-54	116.045	71.329
55 +	25.750	13.236
Total	185.248	109.427

Source: Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales 1990.

TABLE 9

MINIMUM INCOME FOR SOCIAL INTEGRATION ACCORDING TO FAMILY SIZE IN SOME AUTONOMOUS REGIONS

	(Monthly thousands ptas)						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pais Vasco	30	39	45	51	57	60	63
Cataluña	33	38	42	46	49	52	55
Andalucía	31	35	39	43	47	51	54
Navarra	33	38	43	48	50	50	50
Cantabria	30	35	40	45	50	50	50
Madrid	33	41	46	50	54	58	62

Source: El salario social en España y en Euskadi.
Ingreso madrileño de integración.

TABLE 10

Regions	MINIMUM INCOME FOR SOCIAL INTEGRATION	N.Beneficiaries	Spending	(*) Date
Andalucia		1.156	250.0	-
Asturias		375	60.3	February 91
Castilla la Mancha		223	532	August 91
Castilla y León		954	188.2	September 91
Cataluña		1.197	233.7	July 91
Euskadi		4.954	1.850	August 91
Extremadura		302	57.4	September 91
Madrid		7.052	1.810.8	October 91
Murcia		87	3.0	July 91
Navarra		465	95.0	October 91
País Valenciano		1.809	331.7	August 91
La Rioja		140	60.0	October 91
Total		20.114	5.472.1(millions ptas)	

Source: UGT

(*) The minimum income is not applied because of different reasons in Cantabria, Galicia, Baleares, Aragón.

TABLE 11

NUMBER OF RECIPIENTS OF MINIMUM BENEFITS AND RATES OF TAKE UP

	1986	1989	1990	1991
1. Social Assistance unemployed: (1)	595.885	745.971	803.217	827.469
. % /total unemployed with social benefits	42.0	54.0	61.4	57.1
. % / total unemployed without social benefits	24.6	38.0	41.4	45.2
2. Assistance Pensions	351.780	486.254	569.961	581.518(3)
. % / potential recipients (estimation)	55.0	80.0	87.0	90.0
3. Minimum income for Integration				20.114 3.4(2)

(1) 1991 third term

(2) January to September.

(3) FAS november 1991.

TABLE 12

EVOLUTION OF MINIMUM INTERPROFESSIONAL WAGE

	Growth MIW	Growth prices	Purchasing Power
1980	10.2	15.6	- 5.1
1981	12.5	14.6	- 1.2
1982	11.0	14.4	- 2.9
1983	13.1	12.2	0.97
1984	8.0	11.3	- 2.9
1985	7.0	8.8	- 1.6
1986	8.0	8.8	- 0.7
1987	5.0	5.3	- 0.3
1988	4.5	4.8	- 1.3
1989	6.0	6.8	- 0.75
1990	7.1	6.7	0.37
1991	6.5	5.7	0.81

TABLE 13
VALUE OF MINIMUM BENEFITS

	% Income Family per capita at disposal			% /Minimum wage		
	87	89	90	87	89	90
1. Social Security minimum benefits:						
Single retired 65+	67.9	63.0	63.0	74.9	77.4	78.8
Couple 65+	75.6	74.1	74.2	83.4	91.1	92.7
Single retired -65	59.2	54.9	55.0	65.4	67.5	68.8
Couple -65	66.2	64.8	64.9	73.0	79.7	81.1
Widow 65+	51.7	57.3	58.2	57.1	70.5	72.8
Widow - 65	44.7	41.4	44.3	49.3	50.9	53.3

Total number recipients: 2.441.065

2. Assistance pensions:

	89	90	89	90
	34.8	34.9	42.8	43.6
Total number recipients:	556.316			

3. Assistance benefits for unemployed:

	87	89	90	87	89	90
	58.3	52.3	51.4	75.0	75.0	75.0
Total number recipients:	803.217.					

Source: Own elaboration.

TABLE 14
UNEMPLOYMENT: EVOLUTION AND CHARACTERISTICS

	1980	1985	1990	1991
Total	1.482.100	2.970.800	2.441.200	2.480.000
16-24	807.800	1.412.200	978.300	921.300
55 +	96.200	199.200	152.500	
Total Rate	11.5	21.9	16.3	16.4
16-24/Total	52.2	47.5	40.0	37.1
Women rate	12.8	25.4	24.2	
Unemployed 1 year +	32.9	56.8	49.0	51.0
Unemployed 2 year +	10.5	34.4	30.3	32.0

Source: Labour Force Survey.INE.

TABLE 15

TEMPORARY JOBS

Economic sector	1987	1989	1990	1991
Agriculture	38.2	49.1	51.8	51.9
Industry	13.6	23.4	24.9	26.8
Construction	33.8	51.4	53.5	54.4
Services	17.2	24.4	26.8	28.9
Total	18.6	28.2	30.3	32.3
Total temporary jobs	1.478.700	2.395.900	2.809.900	3.027.400
Total less 25 years	705.400	1.023.600	1.165.100	1.235.000
% less 25 years	47.1	42.7	41.46	
40.79				

Source: Own elaboration on Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales.

TABLE 16

EMPLOYMENT CREATION PROGRAMMES

	1986	1990	1991
Temporary jobs	556.594	1.169.662	1.142.774
Part-time jobs	177.449	409.833	470.884
Learning jobs	86.676	210.128	262.841
For 45+ age	9.503	8.870	7.397
Handicapped	3.755	3.941	3.980
Training jobs	161.121	302.240	
Others	416.006	212.677	369.225
TOTAL	1.391.104	2.317.351	2.257.101

Source: Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales.

TABLE 17

PROPORTION OF UNEMPLOYED RECEIVING BENEFITS (1991)

	Months					Total
	3	6	9	12	12+	
Total	14.5	10.3	10.0	10.1	51.0	100
16-19	25.7	22.1	19.6	17.7	14.9	100
20-24	18.2	16.2	15.2	14.6	35.8	100

Source: Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales

TABLE 18

ACCIDENTS AT WORK

	1983	1986	1989	1990	1991
Total number	654.254	634.282	1.176.370	1.232.853	1.223.019
Deaths (1)	411	428	1.438	1.446	1.379
Accidents rate x 1000	45.1	43.9	66.2	68.6	66.9
Accidents in casualty list (2):					
. Total	491.666	471.449	646.182	696.703	688.535
. Permanent workers	-	-	291.479	296.309	289.966
. Temporary workers	-	-	304.791	351.861	357.872
. No classified	-	-	49.912	48.533	40.697
. Rate permanent w.	-	-	4.5	4.6	4.5
. Rate temporary w.	-	-	12.7	12.5	11.82
. Total rate in casualty list	4.5	4.3	7.3	7.5	7.3

Source: Anuario Estadísticas Laborales

(1) Accidents in itinere are not included.

(2) Accidents registered in casualty lists.

The increasing of number of accidents during the last years is due to partially methodological changes.

TABLE 19
VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES

	1983	1986	1989	1990	1991
Total number	73.599	179.431	300.540	303.729	328.038
Young people and long-term unemployed	-	-	162.773	161.350	164.609
Rural workers and redundant workers	-	-	46.947	32.673	29.015
Autonomous workers, factory workers and others	-	-	90.820	109.706	129.174
Number with positive evaluation(1)	67.668	168.325	283.246	286.386	312.231
% with positive evaluation	91.9	93.8	94.2	94.3	95.2
% in training/unemployed	3.15	6.50	11.73	12.3	14.3

Source: Own elaboration on Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales.
(1) Positive evaluation means to get a certificate.

TABLE 20
EUROPEAN SOCIAL FUND FOR TRAINING PROGRAMMES

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
-Total beneficiaries	520.700	662.300	514.800	417.000	502.100
Training	401.700	469.000	377.600	302.900	415.400
New jobs	119.000	193.300	137.200	114.100	86.700
-Training grants:					
young people	313.500	356.000	268.200	198.700	193.100
adults	85.400	111.700	107.600	103.100	222.300

Source: Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales.

TABLE 21

RATES OF EDUCATION COVERAGE

Age	1980-81	1984-85	1986-88
2	4.0	4.6	4.5
3	15.2	15.9	17.8
4	67.7	77.2	90.6
5	92.1	99.5	100
6	100	100	100
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13	94.2	98.5	100
14	83.4	87.2	100
15	68.5	73.4	83.4
16	51.8	58.4	63.9
17	46.1	50.7	56.0

Source: Libro Blanco de la Reforma del Sistema Educativo.1989.

TABLE 22

FAILURE AT SCHOOL:% REPEATING YEAR

Year	Center	Boys	Girls	Total
1/2	Public	6.3	4.4	5.4
	Private	2.8	2.3	2.6
	Total	5.2	3.6	4.5
3/4/5	Public	7.3	5.4	6.4
	Private	3.0	2.7	2.9
	Total	5.9	4.4	5.2
6/7/8	Public	14.0	10.6	12.4
	Private	6.7	5.6	6.1
	Total	11.5	8.6	10.1
Total	Public	9.5	7.1	8.4
	Private	4.4	3.8	4.1
	Total	7.8	5.8	6.8

Source: "El sistema educativo español", CIDE, 1988.

TABLE 23

SECONDARY SCHOOL: RATE OF LEAVING UP

Level	At the beginning of the year	At the end of the year	TOTAL
A) Vocational			
Training 1	9.4	12.9	22.3
Vocational			
Training 2	6.5	11.2	17.7
Total	8.2	12.2	20.4
B) Secondary			
School (BUP/COU)	1.6	5.4	7.0
TOTAL a + b	4.6	8.6	13.2

Source: "Abandono escolar en enseñanzas medias", Ministerio de Educación, 1988.

TABLE 24

ADULT EDUCATION YEAR 1987/88

TOTAL	Total	Men	Women
	276.026	127.089	148.937
Academic Area	204.232	101.306	102.926
Cultural Area	50.795	16.470	34.325
Vocational Tr. Area	20.999	9.313	11.686

Source: Estadística de la Enseñanza en España, 1987/88.

TABLE 25

EDUCATION GRANTS: COST AND NUMBER

Year	Public Spending (Millions)	% PS/Total Spending Education	Number grants
1982	6.879	1.27	162.269
1983	8.631	1.29	218.456
1984	11.849	1.54	251.595
1985	17.863	2.06	381.248
1986	29.586	2.98	473.387
1987	38.904	3.60	565.166
1988	47.045	3.52	583.035
1989	53.561	3.42	622.000

Source: Boletín Informativo Ministerio de Educación.

TABLE 26

ILLITERATE PEOPLE (%)

Age	Total	Male	Female
Total	3.90	2.33	5.38
10-14	0.90	0.92	0.88
15-24	0.66	0.66	0.66
25-44	1.38	1.06	1.70
45-64	5.55	3.56	7.43
65 +	12.93	7.22	16.83

Source: INE.Padrón de Habitantes 1986.

TABLE 27

FUNCTIONAL ILLITERACY : PEOPLE 15 <. ILLITERACY IN SOME
R E G I O N S

Illiteracy in some Regions	Functional Illiteracy(1)
Total national	Total 34.7 (2)
Extremadura	15-24 13.72 (3)
Castilla la Mancha	25-44 27.06
Andalucía	45-64 54.77
Canarias	65 + 68.42
Murcia	
Valencia	

Source: INE.Padrón de Habitantes 1986.

(1) Functional illiteracy: illiterates + without studies.

(2) % /total population.

(3) % /each population group.

TABLE 28

NATIONAL HEALTH SYSTEM: COVERAGE

A) Working people	13.945.213
Beneficiaries	16.524.464
Other groups	352.193
Beneficiaries	417.333
Total	31.239.203
B) Pensioners	5.773.170
Beneficiaries	2.435.607
Other groups	146.427
Beneficiaries	61.775
Total	8.416.979
Total A + B	39.656.182
% Coverage	99.5

Source: Boletín Informativo de la Seguridad Social. September 1991. Ministerio de Trabajo.

TABLE 29

TOTAL SPENDING IN HEALTH (%/GDP)

Year	Public	Private	Total	Average OECD
1985	4.76	1.75	6.51	7.4
1986	4.70	1.58	6.28	7.4
1987	4.80	1.54	6.34	7.4
1988	5.09	1.54	6.63	7.6
1989	5.23	1.52	6.75	7.6
1990	5.27	1.54	6.81	-
1991	5.34	1.56	6.90	-

Source: Comisión de Análisis y Evaluación del Sistema Nacional de Salud. July, 1991.

TABLE 30

PUBLIC OPINION ON SPANISH HEALTH SYSTEM

- The National Health System is working well.Small reforms are necessary	%
	21
- Fundamental changes are necessary	49
- The Health System must be reformed entirely.	28
- NK/NA	2

Source: Comisión de Evaluación Sistema Sanitario (Informe Abril)

TABLE 31

HEALTH MEASURES

	Life Expectancy				Infant Death x 1000
	At birth		At 60 +		
	Men	Women	Men	Women	
Germany	71.8	78.4	17.3	21.7	0.83
Belgium	70.0	76.8	16.3	20.9	0.97
Denmark	71.8	77.6	17.4	21.7	0.83
Spain	74.0	80.0	19.5	23.5	0.87
France	72.0	80.3	18.4	23.7	0.76
Greece	72.2	76.6	18.2	20.6	1.17
Ireland	70.1	75.6	15.9	19.5	0.74
Italy	71.6	78.1	17.1	21.5	0.96
Luxembourg	70.6	77.9	16.4	21.3	0.93
Netherlands	73.5	80.1	18.3	23.6	1.12
Portugal	69.9	76.9	17.4	21.2	1.42
U.Kingdom	71.9	77.6	16.8	21.1	0.91

Source: OECD, 1990.

TABLE 32

SUBJECTIVE EVALUATION OF HEALTH BY INCOME AND OCCUPATION

	Very good	Good	Normal	Bad	Very bad	NA
Total (27.756)	14.3	53.2	23.8	6.7	1.4	0.6
Monthly family Income:						
> 50.000 (4.317)	7.5	39.4	35.7	13.8	3.0	0.6
50-100.000 (7.917)	12.5	55.0	24.9	5.8	1.3	0.6
100.000 < (4.879)	18.6	59.1	17.7	3.2	0.8	0.6
NA (10.644)	16.6	54.8	20.8	6.0	1.2	0.5
Occupation:						
Managers (5.347)	19.8	57.5	18.0	3.5	0.8	0.5
Staff (3.694)	17.1	57.4	19.6	4.4	0.8	0.7
Qualified (7.139)	13.5	55.6	25.5	6.4	1.6	0.6
No qualif.(4857)	10.8	51.6	26.8	8.2	2.0	0.6
Farmers (3.902)	11.8	46.9	29.7	9.3	1.6	0.6
NA (2.818)	12.3	45.3	29.8	10.3	1.8	0.6

Source: Encuesta Nacional de Salud.1987.

TABLE 33

HOUSING PLANS: POLICIES AND RESULTS

PLAN	PUBLIC HOUSING \ PLAN	RESULTS
1984-87:		
1984	30.000	14.039
1985	30.000	28.603
1986	30.000	13.150
1987	30.000	9.167
1988	15.000	9.565
1989	9.000	7.000
Total	144.000	81.524
Plan PSOE		
1984-87	180.000	

Source: J.L.Paniaqua Caparrós.

TABLE 34

HOUSING FINANCIAL DEBT IN MADRID REGION (1)

Total financial debt (millions)	9.924
Number of loans	5.879
Loand required by the bank	4.369

Source: Ingreso Madrileño de Integración. Tomo 5: "La exclusión social y la vivienda".

(1) Financial debts with Banco Hipotecario de España (Public Bank).

TABLE 35

PUBLIC SPENDING IN HOUSING (1987) (1)

	Millions FF (Thousands)	%/GDP	FF Family	% aids for access	% owners
France	87.3	2.0	4000	47	52
Germany	107.7	1.5	4000	50	42
U.Kingdom	136.8	3.4	6500	69	64
Spain	11.0	0.7	1000	95	75
Netherlands	35.3	3.2	6000	39	43.7
Denmark	21.1	3.7	9500	72	55.5
USA	524.7	1.5	6000	81	63.5

(1) That spending do not include public credits for building of new houses o urban renewal.

Source: Ingreso Madrileño de Integración, tomo 5: "La exclusión social y la vivienda", 1991.

TABLE 36

NATIONAL PLAN FOR HOUSING 1992-95

A) ECONOMIC BENEFITS FOR HOUSING ACCESS

	Beneficiaries	Housing size	Credit rate	Credit coverage	Direct loan	Maximum prices for
rent						/selling
	Income 2.5 Minimum wage	Rent 90 m2	Builder 4%	80%	15/ 25 price	380.000 year
SR(2)		Selling	Buyer Builder 5%			7.6 Millions
V			P			O
(1)						
Milli.	Income 5.5 Minimum wage	Rent 90 m2 Selling 90 m2	Builder 7% Builder 7.5-11		10/15 No	690.000 year 9.1
GR(3)				80		
Milli.	First access 3.5 minimum wage	70 m2	6.5		5/10	7.1
	Income 5.5 minimum wage	120 m2	7.5/11	70	no	14 Milli.
VPT(4)						
Mill.	First access 3.5 Minimum wage	70	6.5	70	5/10	8.4

Source: R.D.1668/91 15 Noviembre(BOE 23-11-91).D.1932/91 20 Diciembre(BOE 14-1-92).Ministerio de Obras publicas y Transporte.

- (1) VPO:State Granted Houses.
- (2) Special Sistem.
- (3) General Sistem.
- (4) VPT: Housing with assized price.

B) NUMBER OF UNITS AND COST

Type	1992	1993	1994	1995	1992-95	Public Spending
1.VPO						
Special R.	7000	14500	15500	16000	53000	104248
- Selling	5000	11500	12000	12000	40500	76886
- Rent	2000	3000	3500	4000	12500	27362
2.VPO						
General R.	45500	51500	44000	44000	185000	109790
- Selling	44500	49000	41000	41000	175500	94968
- 1st access	(5000)	(8500)	(8500)	(8500)	(30500)	(382860)
- Rent	1000	2500	3000	3000	9500	14822
3.VPT	24300	30000	29000	31200	114500	62711
- 1st access	(2000)	(4000)	(4000)	(5000)	(15000)	(26343)
4.Reform	7500	12500	13000	14500	47500	17309
5.TOTAL HOUSING	84300	108500	101500	105700	400000	294059
6.Urban land	36800	40000	23000	3000	102800	14813
TOTAL 1+2+3+4+5+6						308872

Source: Ministerio de Obras Públicas y Transportes.

TABLE 37

LEGALIZATION PROCESS OF ILLEGAL IMMIGRANTS
BETWEEN JUNE AND 10TH DECEMBER 1991

Applications		132.934
Resolved applications:		84.446
Positives		74.022
Negatives		7.140
Resignations		3.284
Positive sent cards for residence		60.872
Moroccans		44.9
Latinamericans		24.3
Chinesees		4.3
Philippines		3.1
Polishes		3.07
Others		20.3
Foreign Population in Spain:		
	Before legalization	After legalization
Europe	66.30	51.67
America	19.78	21.76
Africa	6.32	18.34
Asia	7.08	7.76
Oceanía	0.27	0.28
Others	0.25	0.19

Source: Ministerio del Interior, Ministerio de Trabajo y Caritas Española.

ANNEX II

SOME TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXCLUSION

FIGURE 1: TRENDS IN ANNUAL NUMBERS OF RECIPIENTS OF MINIMUM BENEFITS

Year Index	Total	Assistance pensions	Assistance unemployed
1983	462.226	348.115	114.111
1986	946.139	350.255	595.884
1989	1.228.133	482.162	745.971
1990	1.361.320	558.103	803.217
1991	1.408.987	581.518	827.469
			100
			204
			265
			294
			305

Source: Own elaboration on Boletín Estadísticas Laborales de la Seguridad Social.

FIGURE 2: RATES OF TAKE UP OF MEANS TESTED BENEFITS

Year	Assistance pensions(1)	Assistance unemployment(2)
1984	55.0	16.1
1986	58.0	24.6
1989	80.0	38.0
1990	87.0	41.4
1991	90.0	45.2

Source: (1) Own estimation.
(2) Own calculation.

FIGURE 3: TRENDS IN THE VALUE OF MINIMUM BENEFITS AS A PERCENTAGE OF FAMILY INCOME PER CAPITA AT DISPOSAL.

Year	Assistance pensions	Assistance unemployment
1984	29.1	66.1
1986	33.1	60.9
1989	34.8	52.3
1990	34.9	50.7

Source: Own calculation on official statistics.

FIGURE 4: TRENDS IN THE PROPORTION OF THE UNEMPLOYED WHO ARE NOT RECEIVING UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE BENEFIT OR SOCIAL ASSISTANCE

Year	Gross coverage	No receiving benefits
1983	26.3	73.7
1987	28.9	71.1
1989	34.1	65.9
1990	42.8	57.2
1991(1)	51.7	48.3

Source: Own elaboration on Boletín Estadísticas Laborales.
 (1) Third term 1991.

FIGURE 5: TRENDS IN THE NUMBER OF ELDERLY PEOPLE RECEIVING MINIMUM BENEFITS.

Year	Total(1+2+3)	FAS(1)	LISMI(2)	NCP(3)
1983	186.278	186.278	-	-
1986	170.603	170.296	1.307	-
1989	219.088	160.900	58.188	-
1990	264.124	161.200	102.224	-
1991(1)	275.912	155.602	107.969	12.341(2)

(1) It is not including Pais Vasco. Figures of Fas pensions for November 1991.

(2) No Contributive System(NCS): March to September 1991.

FIGURE 6: INTRANATIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT RATES

	1983	1986	1989	1990
Total	17.3	21.5	17.3	16.3
Agrarian regions				
Andalucia	13.8	16.2	27.0	25.6
Extremadura	16.4	28.5	26.4	24.5
Castilla y León	13.7	18.3	14.1	13.0
Castilla la Mancha	14.5	15.7	16.7	15.3
Galicia	9.9	13.5	12.1	12.0
Industrial regions				
Pais vasco	20.2	24.1	19.6	18.8
Madrid	17.6	20.1	13.3	12.5
Catalonia	21.5	21.6	14.3	12.7

Source: Boletín de Estadísticas Laborales.

ANNEX III
POLICIES AGAINST SOCIAL EXCLUSION

THE CAST OF ACTORS

TABLE 1: GENERAL POLICIES

Actors	Government	Regions (1)	Local (2)
Policy Area			
1. Income and consumption	General planning Art.149,1,13 ^a	Promotion and performance in the framework of national policy	--
2. Social Security	Basic legislation and economic management Art.149,1,17 ^a	Management of social services	--
3. Education	Basic legislation of primary and secondary school. Academic degrees	Management of services education according to Regional Laws	Cooperation in the management Participation in planning
4. Employment Training	Total competence Art.149,1,7 ^a	Management of some programmes	
5. Working conditions	Total competence Art.149,1,7 ^a	Management	
6. Housing	Coordination financing	Competence in territorial and urban planning Total competence Art.148,1,3 ^a	Promotion management
7. Health	Coordination Art.149,1,16 ^a	Competence in health Management	Development basic centres
8. Social services	Promotion Coordination	Total competence Art.148,1,20 ^a	Promotion Management

Concerted Plan
for Basic Rendering
Social Services
from 1989

of social
services in
towns of
20.000
inhabitants
and +

(1) In order to promote the coordination between Central Government and Autonomous Governments there are General Conferences (Conferencias Sectoriales), contracting out agreements. The new Regional Agreement of 28 February 1992 increases the legal competences for no historical regions (the majority of them).

(2) According to the Law 7/1985, 2 April, the Municipalities can develop many competences delegated or agreed by Central and Regional Governments.

(3) The NGOs can develop different activities through collaboration Agreements (Acuerdos de Colaboración) with different levels of government.

TABLE 2: GENERAL POLICIES ON SPECIFIC POPULATION CATEGORIES

	C.Government (1)	Regional (1)	Local (3)	Others (4)
1.Women	National Plan for Women	Regional Plans for	Some Programmes of	Conference of Women associations
2.Elderly	Gerontology Plan	Specific Programmes	Specific Programmes	Rising of NGOs
3.People with disabilities	Programme at National Level	Regional programmes	-	Coordination of NGOs
4.Young people	National Plan for Youth	Some Regional plans	-	Conference of NGOs
5.Migrants and ethnic minor.	Programme for Refugees	-	-	-
6.Travellers and Gypsies	Plan for Gypsies	Some programmes for Gypsies	Some programmes for travellers	NGOs for Gypsies

(1) Central Government (Ministry for Social Affaires) guarantees the basic conditions of equality in matters of social rights to all citizens (Art. 149,1,1 Constitution 1978) through National Plans, programmes, financing and coordination. Gerontology Plan is made and waiting to pass in the Ministers Council.

(2) Regional Governments have exclusive authority in social services.

(3) Local Government must render social services obligatory in municipalities of 20.000 and more inhabitants (Law 7/1985).

(4) NGOs are playing an increasing role as instruments for rendering social services contracted out with Public Administrations and as means of coordination the policies of welfare between them and with public sector.

The main changes from 1980 have been: the process of decentralization of social services from Central Government to Regions (from 1980 to 1986) and from Regions from municipalities (1987 onwards) and the rising up of NGOs from 1987 in the production of welfare.

TABLE 3: SPECIFIC POLICIES

	Government	Regional	Local	Others
1. National Plan on Drugs	Coordination and finance	Management of regional plans on drugs	Some programmes on drugs	Coordination of NGOs promotion management
2. Programme III against poverty	Coordination and finance	Management of programmes	Management in specific programmes	Promotion
3. II Plan FIP of Training (1)	Coordination Finance	Planning Management	Management in specific programmes	Promotion Rendering specific programmes

(1) Although the Plan FIP is a very general plan is focused in many ways in the social integration of excluded people living in poor rural areas or young people who have failed at school.

The main changes from 1980 have been the increasing role of NGOs and the crucial significance of coordination between different levels of public sector and these with NGOs.

ANNEX IV

REFERENCES

ANNEX IV. REFERENCES

- AES/Ministerio de Sanidad y Consumo, "Salúd y Equidad", VIII Jornadas de Economía de la Salúd", Madrid, 1990.
- AES/Gobierno Vasco, "El salario social. El envejecimiento de la población", 1991.
- J. Alcalide Inchausti, "La distribución de la renta en España" in "España. Economía", Espasa-Calpe, Madrid, 1989.
- Alfoz, "La línea del suelo", N. 64, 1989.
- I. Alberdi & P. Escario, "Estudio sociológico sobre las viudas en España"? MTSS, Madrid, 1986.
- C. Alvarez Vara y otros, "Incorporación social de colectivos marginados", Acebo, Madrid, 1990.
- A. Bosch, C. Escribano, I. Sanchez, "Evolución de la desigualdad y la pobreza en España", INE, Madrid, 1989.
- Caritas Española, "Pobreza y Marginación", Documentación Social n. 56-57, 1984.
- Caritas-FUHEM, "Anteproyecto de investigación sobre la pobreza", Mimeo, Madrid, 1988.
- Caritas Española, "Renta mínima y salario ciudadano", Documentación Social n. 78/1990.
- D. Casado, "Política social española concerniente a discapacidad", en L. Moreno & M. Perez Yruela, ed., "Política social y Estado de Bienestar", MAS, Madrid, 1992.
- CEBS, "Acciones frente a la pobreza", Acebo? Madrid, 1990.
- CEBS, "La pobreza en la España de los ochenta", Acebo, Madrid, 1990.
- CIDE, "El sistema Educativo español", MEC, 1988.
- CIS, "Encuesta sobre inmigración y racismo", Madrid, 1991.
- CC.OO. & UGT, "Propuesta sindical prioritaria", Madrid, 1989
- M. Cordero, F. Melis, J. A. Quesada, "La distribución personal de los salarios en 1982 y 1986", Boletín Trimestral de Coyuntura, N. 28, INE, 1988.
- Cronica de Información Social N. 3/1991: "Ingreso Mínimo Familiar en Euskadi".
- I. Cruz & G. Rodriguez Cabrero, "Las pensiones asistenciales en el sistema español de protección social: situaciones y previsiones de futuro" Documento de Investigación, MTSS, 1989.

- Documentación Social N.85/1991:"La vivienda social,¿un problema?".
- Economistas M.51/1990:"Economía del Sector no Lucrativo".
- J.Echenagusia y F.Prats:"Notas para un debate sobre Vivienda",El País días 17 y 18 de Mayo,1991.
- A.Gimenez Montero,"El impuesto sobre la renta en España:1979-1987",IEF,Madrid,1990.
- INE,"Estadística de la Enseñanza en España: 1987-88".
- INE,"Encuesta sobre discapacidades,deficiencias y minusvalías",Madrid,1987.
- IOE,"Estudio sobre los extranjeros en España",Documento de Investigación,Madrid,1989.
- J.Leal,"La España desigual y el Estado de Bienestar" en C.Alonso Zaldivar y M.Castells,"España,más allá de los mitos",Alianza Editorial,Madrid,1992.
- R.Marcos Sanz," La comunidad gitana en españa.Bases para una primera aproximación" en L.Moreno Y M.Perez Yruela.
- Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia,"Abandono escolar en enseñanzas medias",Mayo,1988.
- J.M.de Miguel & M.Guillen,"The Health System in Spain" in "Sucess and crisis in national health systems",Edited by M.G.Field,Routledge,London,1989.
- J.M.de Miguel & J.A. Rodriguez,"The politics of Health Policy Reform in Spain" Chapter 6 in R.Gunther,ed., "Politics,Society and Democracy: The case of Spain"Vol.1 ,Boulder,Colorado,Westview Press,1992.
- Ministerio de Economía y Hacienda,"Condiciones de vida y trabajo en España",Madrid,1986.
- Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia,"Libro Blanco sobre Educación de Adultos",Madrid,1986.
- Ministerio de Sanidad y Consumo,"Informes de la Comisión Abril",Madrid,1991.
- R.Muñoz del Bustillo,"Distribución de la renta" en VV.AA., "Reflexiones sobre politica económica", E.Popular, Madrid,1990.
- J.Segura y VVAA,"Análisis de la contratación temporal en España",MTSS,1991.
- L.Toharia,"El mercado de trabajo en España.1983-1991: una evaluación", Economistas N.50, Madrid,1991.

- UGT/ISE, "Evolución social en España 1990", Madrid, 1992.
- UGT/ISE, "Evolución social de España: 1977-87", Madrid, 1988
- UGT/ISE, "Estudio sobre demanda potencial de vivienda en siete ciudades españolas. Síntesis y conclusiones", Mimeo, Madrid, 1990.
- UGT/ISE, "Prestaciones no contributivas y lucha contra la pobreza", Madrid, 1989.
- L. Vila, "Inventory of statistics for identifying poverty in Spain: the use of administrative statistics", Research Document, EEC, 1989.



**Published by European Economic Interest Group
"Animation & Research"**

**301, rue Pierre Legrand
F - 59042 Lille**