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FOREWORD

Spain has applied for membership of the European Community and negotiations are under way.

We in the ten countries that make up the Community still do not really know about each other. It is vital that we should start to find out about the "women of Spain". We need information, statistics, addresses.

We cannot claim that this general review is a comprehensive piece of scientific research. Before we can go investigate in greater depth the important points barely touched on here - the differences between regions, for instance, or moonlighting by women in Spain, unpaid family labour, etc. - we shall need to know more and have more sources of information on which to draw.

The basic part of this report was completed in March 1981, but we felt we should hold up publication until we could include information on the passing of the divorce law.

I N T R O D U C T I O N

The social and political integration of Spanish women and the progress they are making in their struggle for equality with men are closely linked to the political situation and the history of Spain over the past fifty years (1).

In 1930, the cause of women had not made as much headway in Spain as in other European countries: Great Britain, for example, already had a strong suffragette movement. Efforts to improve the social and legal status of women were being made by a small group of women, the intellectual elite from the middle and upper classes. On the whole, Spanish women were poorly educated and the rate of illiteracy was high among women manual workers and peasants (2). Even middle and upper class women lacked a good educational background, since their education was staunchly conservative and designed to ensure that girls would aspire to no more than their traditional duties and what was seen as their role in society: marriage (3).

The legal position of women, too, left much to be desired. In civil law, when a woman married her husband became the unchallenged manager of their joint property and had complete power over their children as the undisputed "pater familias". Unmarried women enjoyed full civil rights except that they could not act as guardians or as witnesses to wills. In criminal law, a husband or father who caught his wife or daughter in the act of adultery and killed her, or the man with whom she was committing the act, would usually incur a penalty no more drastic than exile. If he merely caused them physical injury, he would go scot-free (4).

- (1) "United Nations World Conference of the Decade for Women, equality, development and peace", Copenhagen, 14-13 July 1980: report presented by Spain, Ministerio de Cultura, Madrid, 1980, p. 145.
- (2) GARCIA MENDEZ, E., "La actuación de la mujer en las Cortes de la Segunda República", Ministerio de Cultura, Madrid, 1979, pp. 17-29.
- (3) The sole exception was the Institución Libre de Enseñanza, a school that offered the same curriculum of studies for both boys and girls.
- (4) LEJARRAGA DE MARTINEZ SIERRA, M., lecture delivered to the Madrid Athenaeum on 11 May..

From 1931 onwards, under the Second Republic, a series of innovations was introduced by legislation which had far-reaching repercussions on the society of the time. Women were entitled to be elected to the constituent assemblies. The Constitution enacted in that same year recognized that men and women were equal before the law; in particular, it stated that they should have equal access to employment and public office. It declared that work was a social obligation protected by law, which should govern women's work and protect mothers. Women also had the same right to vote and to stand as candidates in elections as men. In family law, the Constitution acknowledged that the husband and wife have equal rights within marriage and on its dissolution. It laid down that parents have the same responsibilities towards children born in and out of wedlock and that decisions as to the paternity of natural children should be regulated by civil law.

The Constitution did not mention the subject of abortion and birth control, although the region of Catalonia, whose 1932 Statute of Autonomy had given it the right to pass minor legislation on certain subjects, passed an abortion reform law providing for pregnancy termination centres and even the promotion of contraceptive methods.

The civil law was also reformed in certain ways. A woman was allowed to retain her original citizenship on marriage, both husband and wife were responsible for administering the matrimonial estate, and a mother had the same rights and authority over the children as a father.

All these reforms helped to speed up women's progress towards active participation in their country's social and political life. Women's organizations grew both in number and the size of their membership and were no longer élitist bodies. A few magazines and journals specializing in the subject of female emancipation were set up.

The political parties also started to take note of women's views, especially as half of the electorate was now female. It should be pointed out that the strong influence of religion meant that women tended to support parties taking a more conservative line (5), although there were also notable instances of women militants in left-wing parties. Even they, however, held the view that the fields in which women should be making their contribution to society should be those in which women had traditionally been active: schools, hospitals, nursery schools, etc.

(5) CASES J.I., LOPEZ NIETO L., RUIZ DE AZUA M.A., VANACLOCHA F.J.: "Mujer y 15 de junio", Dirección General de desarrollo Comunitario, Ministerio de Cultura, Madrid, 1978, pp.31-32.

In the February 1936 elections, which resulted in an overwhelming victory for the left wing, represented by the Popular Front, the political importance of women's became increasingly apparent both to Franco's Falangists and to the left. The latter urged women to fight for the right to work, equal pay, protection for mothers, divorce without legal or financial ties, abortion, the establishment of day nurseries, an end to discrimination at work on the grounds of sex and access to senior rank in the unions and political parties (6).

This process of emancipation was interrupted by the civil war, in which many women played a vital part. Much of the ground that had been won was lost: for instance by the notorious "Fuero del Trabajo" of 9 March 1938 declared that although all Spaniards had the right to work the State forbade women to work at night and "released" married women from jobs in workshops and factories. Before a married woman could take a job she had to obtain her husband's permission, and if he wished he could object to his wife receiving her wages direct (the wife would have to explain to a court her reasons for wishing to pick up her own wage packet - in other words, the burden of proof was on her).

Schemes for the introduction of abortion, birth control and sex education were quashed, and boys and girls received a different type of education. There were too few State schools to cater for everyone in need of education. Faced with the choice of which of their children would be sent to school, the poorer families usually opted to send a son rather than a daughter.

Statistics and information on new legislation do not give the full picture of women's position in Spain today; it should be borne in mind that most Spanish women today have lived through this period of history and are still influenced by their personal experience.

(6) GARCIA MENDEZ, E.: "La actuación de la mujer . .", op. cit., pp.17-19.

W O M E N a n d W O R K

Women entered the world of paid unemployment in Spain rather later than in the EEC Member States, where the industrial revolution had occurred earlier in history. Sociological factors, such as the traditional distinction made between the roles of men and women in the family and society, have also played their part.

Spain's accession to the European Community will affect unemployment trends, one aspect to which special attention should be paid. The pattern of growing unemployment, especially among young people, and the difficulties women are encountering in gaining access to the labour market are more or less the same in Spain today as in the Community.

In the field of employment, the primary obstacle to equality between men and women in Spain is undoubtedly the lack of training for women in every sector. This is the reason for the small percentage of women in the industrial jobs that call for more specific skills and in sectors using specialist technology.

The second obstacle is the set of restrictions, introduced out of an overzealous and now irrelevant concern to protect women. One of the reasons for women being unable to gain access to skilled and semi-skilled employment in industry is that the regulations prevent them from taking certain jobs which are seen as incompatible with their status as women and mothers, i.e. night work or hazardous, unhealthy or heavy jobs. This is one of the factors preventing women from gaining access to skilled or semi-skilled jobs in industry.

The third obstacle is that women are solely responsible for the physical care of their families. The traditional distinction between men's and women's roles, implying that the wife does the housework and looks after the children, still hampers the full integration of women in the world of production and makes it harder for them to aspire to positions of responsibility.

The lack of nursery schools and community facilities (public cleansing and laundries, ready-prepared foods, etc.) means that women have to spend more time in the home. If a woman does have a job, she has to take time off to look after the children or other members of the family when they are ill. Family obligations are in fact the main cause of female absenteeism; in addition, the lack of coordination between school hours and the working day is often the reason for lateness and absence from work (see table on next page).

Rate of absenteeism by type of work and by reasons for hours lost*

TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT	TOTAL	Reasons for hours lost				
		Sickness	Accident at work	Mater- nity	Personal or family	Other
Total	10.44	7.99	0.84	0.51	0.75	0.35
- men	6.51	4.73	1.05	-	0.49	0.24
- women	14.52	11.38	0.62	1.04	1.01	0.47
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>						
Managers, technicians and administrators	3.93	2.93	0.31	0.13	0.41	0.15
- men	3.70	2.83	0.36	-	0.37	0.15
- women	4.95	3.42	0.09	0.70	0.57	0.17
. single women	3.24	2.56	0.09	-	0.44	0.15
. married women	10.19	6.03	0.11	2.85	0.95	0.25
. without children	8.63	5.68	0.08	1.52	1.11	0.24
. with children under 3	20.00	7.07	0.05	11.11	1.32	0.45
. with children aged 3+	7.09	5.86	0.16	0.27	0.64	0.16
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>						
Blue collar workers	11.59	8.88	0.93	0.58	0.81	0.39
- men	7.40	5.33	1.27	-	0.53	0.27
- women	15.09	11.85	0.65	1.06	1.04	0.49
. unmarried women	8.28	6.70	0.57	0.00	0.67	0.34
. married women	23.74	18.39	0.75	2.41	1.51	0.68
. without children	20.18	14.83	0.62	2.37	1.62	0.74
. with children under 3	38.02	24.38	0.72	9.72	2.26	0.94
. with children aged 3+	21.23	17.94	0.79	0.61	1.29	0.60

* "Mujer y Trabajo", Jornadas Sindicales Nacionales, Ponencias y Conclusiones, p. 170, Madrid 1975

WHY DO SPANISH WOMEN WORK?

Whether or not a woman works is an important issue and it is helpful to discover her motivations and the conditions under which she does her job. A report by FOESSA (Fomento de Estudios Sociales y de Sociología Aplicada) published in 1975, one of the few pieces of research in this field, reveals that the majority of women look on work as a way of filling in time before getting married: 53% of women workers are unmarried, whereas only 16.1% of married women work. If a marriage ends in separation or widowhood, work once again takes the place of what seems to be a woman's chief aspiration, marriage: 44% of separated and widowed women work.

When women without jobs were asked why they did not work, 38.7% said they thought that a woman "should look after her home and her children", 24.8% that "it was not financially necessary", and 21.3% complained that they "could not find a suitable job".

Among the employed women interviewed, 53.1% said that they worked for financial reasons, although their replies differed considerably depending on social class: 84.6% of working class women said that they worked because they needed the money, compared with 31.1% women in the A-B social groups. The ratio was reversed when the women gave other reasons for working. For example, 79.9% of A-B social group women said they worked for personal fulfilment or independence whereas only 15.4% of working class women gave this answer (7).

THE FEMALE WORKING POPULATION

Preliminary observation

The statistics from different sources of information (which are always cited in this report) may seem to contradict each other. According to the UNO definition, by "working population" is meant the population forming part of the labourforce available for the production of goods and services of an economic nature; it includes both the people in employment at the time of the survey and those in search of work, but excludes people who are seeking work but who are not formerly registered and those who, discouraged by difficulties in finding a job, have given up trying. The majority of the latter group is female.

(7) "La española de verdad", Cambio 16, no. 456, 31.8.1980, pp. 59-60.

It should be pointed out that the female working population is not always correctly classified in the statistics. The census conducted in Spain in 1970, for instance, placed what is known as "family labour" (e.g. a wife helping her self-employed husband in his trade) under the general heading of "housewife" (8).

In 1977, 27% of all women in Spain came under the heading of "working population" (9); according to the latest available statistics, this figure has now risen to 29% (10). One of the most important factors that have led to this very low rate is marriage: 65% of the total female working population consists of girls between 14 and 24. The percentage of married women in the 25 to 54 age group who are in employment is only 10% (11).

The type of work done by women

On the whole women take the low paid jobs that do not call for any special skill. One of the main reasons why women are so poorly trained for their jobs is the policy on education: even today, boys and girls receive a different kind of education right from the early years. When a woman enters the world of work she tends to opt for a certain type of employment that reflects the image of women's role as projected in the school and family.

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- (8) PEREZ-SERRANO M., PUNZET S., UBEDA A.: "Mujer y . . . Trabajo". Dirección General de Desarrollo Comunitario, Ministerio de Cultura, Madrid, 1978, pp. 79-83.
 - (9) Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 3rd quarter 1977.
 - (10) "The integration of Spanish women into the world of work", National Report, Spain. High level conference on women's employment, OECD, April 1980, p. 12.
 - (11) According to the FOESSA report, women account for 29.2% of the total working population. Spanish women give up their jobs when they marry.

The service sector is the main field of employment for women workers (office work, domestic service, cleaning firms, the distributive trades, education, etc.). A quarter of the female working population is employed in industry on unskilled types of work (12).

In the public sector, which provides employment for a very large number of women, only 5% of positions of responsibility are occupied by women. A notable exception is that a woman industrial engineer is a director general attached to the Ministry of Public Works and Urban Development, a significant achievement since only five women have ever held such senior office in the Spanish civil service, and those were in positions concerned with the arts, education and social welfare.

At present there are only two women directors general and about twelve women deputy directors (13).

Employment by economic sector

The table below gives a breakdown of workers according to the sector in which they are employed, clearly showing the high concentration of women workers in the service sector.

Sector	Men		Women		T o t a l number
	number	%	number	%	
Agriculture	1,634,300	19.5	622,000	18.5	2,256,300
Industry	2,472,000	29.7	709,800	21.2	3,181,800
Building	1,028,800	12.4	20,200	0.6	1,048,000
Services	3,183,700	38.3	2,000,300	59.6	5,184,000
T o t a l	8,318,800	99.9	3,352,300	99.9	11,671,100

Source: "Cambio 16" nº 456, 31.8.1980, pp. 58 et seq.

(12) French Embassy in Spain, Adviser on Social Affairs to the Secretary of State to the Ministry of Employment and Participation with special responsibility for women's employment: "Etude des discriminations dont les femmes peuvent faire l'objet à l'occasion du travail en Espagne", Madrid, 1979.

(13) "The Integration of Spanish women . . . ", op. cit., p. 18.

Working population by type of work and sex (%) - 1976

Occupation	men	women
Professional and senior technical staff	69.9	30.3
Public office and company management	96.0	3.8
Administrative staff	63.8	36.2
Trade	57.8	42.2
Services	43.0	57.0
Agriculture	75.0	25.0
Non-agricultural work with equipment, transport vehicles, etc.	84.3	5.7
Unspecified	35.2	64.7
Armed forces	100.0	-
T O T A L	72.6	27.4

Source: PEREZ-SERRANO M., PUNZET S., UBEDA A.: "Mujer y . . Trabajo", Dirección General de Desarrollo Comunitario, Ministerio de Cultura, Madrid, 1978, pp. 262-263.

A more detailed breakdown of the percentage of women in specific occupations is:

Education	56.3
Health	46.5
The arts	17.6
Senior civil servants & technical staff	17.1
Business and finance	12.8
The law	6.0
Management of private companies	5.2
Scientists and technicians	4.6
Other professionals	28.7

Source: "La española de verdad", in "Cambio 16", nº 456, 31.8.1980, p. 59. Figures supplied by the Deputy Directorate General for Women, 1980.

CHANGES IN THE FEMALE WORKING POPULATION

Women started to play a more active part in working life in the 1960s: in 1968, 23% of the total working population was female and, by 1973, the rate rose to 28%. Despite the economic crisis, the rate of employment stayed at the level of 29% between 1974 and 1979.

Female working population and occupations (%) - 1978

Occupation	mothers	other women in in the family
Administrative staff	9.0	5.5
Teaching in primary school	6.5	3.2
Employment in distributive trades	4.9	2.4
Domestic help	3.1	1.3
Dressmaking	3.0	1.8
Agriculture	2.1	0.8
Nursing - health-related occupations	1.6	1.6
The professions	1.4	0.5
Switchboard operating and similar work	0.7	0.5
Industry	0.1	0.1
No occupation	66.3	80.5

Source: PEREZ-SERRANO M. et al.: "Mujer y . . . Trabajo", op. cit., p. 249.

The categories used in this table are "mothers" and "other women in the family". The points that emerge are that 66.3% of mothers and 80.5% of other female family members do not have a paid job, that the largest percentage of women who do work are employed in the field of administration, followed by primary school teaching, the third largest proportion working in the distributive trades.

Female working population - marital status

Marital status	1975	1978
single	52.5 %	48.75%
married	40.33%	51.25%
widowed or separated	7.42%	

Source: "The integration of Spanish women into the world of work", National Report, Spain. OECD Conference on women's employment, April 1980, p. 6.

The table shows that there was a relative increase in the percentage of married women working over the past few years. In the 1978 statistics, the only distinction was between single and other women.

Total working population by age group and sex

Age group	male working population in the age group as a percentage of total male working population	female working population in the age group as a percentage of total female working population
under 15	2.3	1.1
15 - 19	65.6	36.8
20 - 24	80.9	39
25 - 29	95.4	20.6
30 - 49	96.4	13.7
50 - 54	91.4	14.8
55 - 59	85.7	14
60 - 64	74.2	11.6
65 & over	21.4	4

Source: International Labour Office Statistical Yearbook on Employment, 1973, p. 32.

Note that in the normal working period of life, i.e. from the age of 20 to 60, 80% of men in fact work; between the ages of 25 and 54, 90% of men work. In the case of women, the peak period for work is up to the age of 25, from which it may be inferred that few married women have a job (on the assumption that women tend to marry at about 25) (14).

(14) "The Integration of Spanish Women", op. cit., p. 5.

DISCRIMINATION

Discrimination against women at work is a focal issue for many different bodies: political parties, unions, feminist groups, etc.

Even though the Spanish Constitution and the Workers' Statute prohibit any disparity of treatment on the grounds of sex, it would be misleading to believe that this is enough to abolish every form of discrimination in practice. In fact discrimination exists, but it is concealed and the principles by which it operates are "unwritten".

An article in "El Socialista" on 6.1.1980 stated that ". . . in 1979, in negotiating almost all collective labour agreements in the public sector (printing, chemicals, paper, textiles, banking, shops, photography and telephony) the demands - that were accepted to a greater or less degree - were the abolition of specific 'women's job ratings', access to every category of job for women, women's right to other work during pregnancy and the right to creches for their children, etc. Despite all this, many claims that had been recognized came to nothing, sometimes because of the ambiguous wording of the collective agreements, sometimes because men and women workers themselves were badly informed and were unaware of their rights under their agreements, and sometimes even because the employers refused to honour the agreements. In the field of employment, then, discrimination against women still exists, although the first hesitant steps are being taken towards its abolition."

The main problem faced by the woman worker is to obtain practical recognition of the principle of equal pay. In Spanish law, the principle of equality between men and women in working relationships has been acknowledged by various laws dating as far back as 1961, but the distortions in this field are due to the different arrangements embodied in certain collective agreements and in binding arbitration awards. The discrepancies regarding pay and duties are to be found not so much in the agreements approved after 1 February 1976 [the date of the Workers' Statute] regarding the various categories of technical, administrative and junior staff as in the agreements relating to manual workers.

From an analysis of 222 national agreements published in 1976 and 1977, it emerges that 28 discriminate against women, i.e. 12.6% (15).

- (15) PEREZ-SERRANO M. et al.: op. cit., pp. 109-110, 229-234. See also OTTOLENGHI C.: "La situazione della donna attiva in Spagna", training course report produced at the EEC, Brussels, 1980, pp. 16-17, which analyses four collective agreements reached after the Workers' Statute came into force.

The unions, too, have pointed out two anomalies:

- (a) differing rates of pay for the same job, with certain collective agreements providing for different job categories for men and women even though the work they do is the same;
- (b) the low wages paid in the categories in which most women are employed, the stated justification is the widely held belief that women's wages merely go to top up their husbands' pay.

During what were called the "First Days of Women Workers in the Region of Murcia", 21-23 March 1980, many infringements of article 35 of the Constitution (which states that there should be no discrimination on the grounds of sex) were pointed out. Collective agreements still contain clauses under which the employer offers a woman a dowry when she marries, which is an undercover method of dismissal, or under which differential rates of increase are given to men and women. In the case of the HERO factory, for example, a contract was signed whereby women accepted an 8.5% wage rise whereas men were awarded 16% (16).

Admittedly the employment authorities must take effective action to avoid irregularities, but very little can be done so long as attitudes in Spanish society - especially among women - remain as they are today: the people who will have to demand a practical solution to the problem will be the women workers themselves.

If we look at the figures on the jobs available, we find the following disparity:

	<u>jobs on offer</u>
total	49,384
to men	38,657
to women	9,961
to both sexes	766

Source: "Estadística de Empleo", Instituto Nacional de Estadística,
October 1979

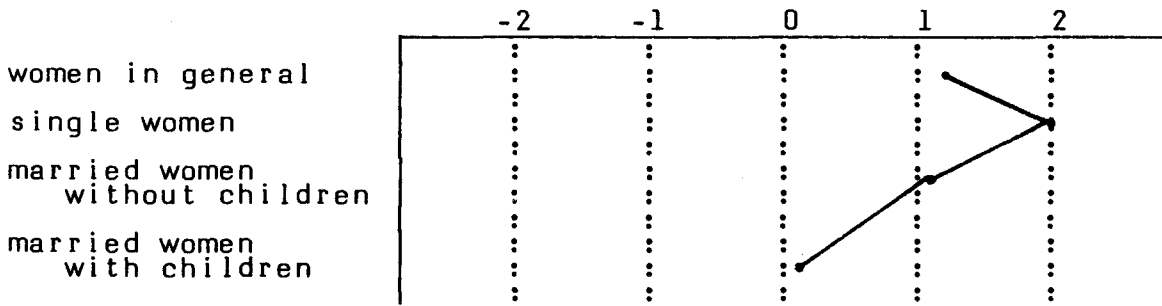
There is an evident disproportion between the number of jobs available for men and for women and it would seem that male workers have better prospects on the labour market than their female counterparts. The number of jobs offered to either sex is insignificant.

To sound out the views of the public as to its acceptance of women working, in 1978 a sample survey was carried out throughout Spain and the following findings were obtained

(16) "El Socialista" nº 149, 16/23, April 1980.

Attitudes towards women's employment, 1978

Degree of non-approval or approval of women working, based on their marital status:



Source: PEREZ-SERRANO M. et al.: "Mujer y . . . Trabajo", op. cit., pp. 250-251.

In this table, the figures at the top stand for the different opinions expressed:

- 2 - complete disapproval
- 1 - relative disapproval
- 0 - indifference - i.e. neither disapproval nor approval, or replies along the lines of "it depends on the type of work".
- 1 - relative approval
- 2 - complete approval

It is apparent from the above that most Spaniards are in favour of women working, although some may have doubts about married women with and without children. Of the interviewees, married and more mature women were less in favour of women working than were unmarried and younger women.

The problems encountered by working women and those wishing to work

Creches at which working mothers are happy to leave their children, at reasonable cost, are not available in sufficient numbers 75.9%

The jobs that women find it easiest to obtain are in "traditionally female" fields of employment (secretarial, nursing, etc.) 66.4%

Employers are reluctant to take on women with children and try to keep the number of such women on their payroll down to the minimum	66.4%
Employers are reluctant to take on married women	61.6%
Women have greater difficulty in finding jobs just because they <u>are</u> women	58.3%
Women are paid less for the same work	51.7%
Even if a husband gives his permission, many problems arise between the husband and wife because of her work	42.1%
The husband often objects to his wife going out to work	41.8%
It is harder for a woman to find a job because she lacks training	30.4%

Source: PEREZ-SERRANO M. et al.: "Mujer y . . . Trabajo", op. cit., p. 253.

In addition to looking at the law and the statistics, it is helpful to have at least an idea of the problems voiced by Spanish women workers themselves. In April 1980, papers by women working in different economic sectors were presented at the "First Days of Women Workers in the Union Confederation" in Madrid. The following are a few interesting points that emerged.

- creches: there are not enough, and their hours often do not coincide with normal working hours;
- lack of vocational training;
- poor career prospects;
- work tends to be temporary (in the food preserving industry, for example); women are unwilling to express their dissatisfaction with working methods because they are afraid that they will not be hired again at the start of the next season; an additional factor is that the seasonal nature of the work causes problems in calculating pension rights;

- occupational and stress diseases caused by repetitive and monotonous work offering no scope for creativity (as in the textile industry);
- pregnant women are not allowed to change to a type of work more appropriate to their condition in some companies, a factor that causes many women to give up working;
- low standards of environmental health and safety - the law is often flouted;
- differentials between men's and women's rates of pay.

UNEMPLOYMENT

The rate of unemployment is higher among women than among men: whereas women represent 29% of the working population, 34% of the unemployed are women (448,000) and the percentage of women actually in employment is 26.5% (17). In the European Community, women make up 36% of the working population (18) and 44.7% of the unemployed (19). While male unemployment stands at 10.6% of the male working population, female unemployment has reached 12.6%. Female unemployment is higher than male unemployment in the European Community as well, but the average rate is lower: 4.9% for men and 6.7% for women (20).

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- (17) "Women's unemployment", in "information sheets", Bureau for questions concerning employment and equal treatment for women, EEC, Brussels, November 1978; the figures for Spain are based on the latest statistics available from the Sub-Directorate General for Women and from the report on "The Integration of Spanish Women . . .", op. cit., p. 11.
 - (18) EEC General Statistics, Statistical Office of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1980, p. 16.
 - (19) "Employment and Unemployment. Significant figures on social trends in the European Community since 1960", Brussels, 1980.
 - (20) "The Integration of Spanish Women . . .", op. cit., p. 12.

Between 1969 and 1974, there was an increase in the percentage of employment among Spanish women, but since 1974 this has been declining while the rate of female unemployment has been rising. The highest rate of female employment in 1960-70 was among women such as traders, saleswomen, administrative staff and agricultural workers. Between 1970 and 1975, on the other hand, it was among women working as administrative staff, in the professions and in the service sector, whereas the rate of employment fell in agriculture (21).

The rate of unemployment is on the increase, the groups affected most being the under-25s (21.12%) and women (22.05%). In the 14-19 age group, the rate is as high as 26% overall and 28% among girls (22). Growing unemployment among young people is indicative of the obstacles they have to overcome in finding a job, especially the first job, and girls are worse hit than boys.

Unemployed by age group and sex

age group	men	women
14 to 19	211,200	187,200
20 to 24	149,700	109,300
25 to 54	336,300	87,000
55 & over	66,100	5,200
T O T A L	763,300	388,700
TOTAL UNEMPLOYED		1,152,000

Source: España. Anuario Estadístico, 1979. Ministerio de Economía. Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas.

From this table, which refers to 1979, we see that although women make up 29% of the working population they account for 33.74% of unemployment. According to the most recent figures published by the Spanish Government, the number of jobless women is 448,000, as shown in the following table.

 (21) "The Integration of Spanish Women . . . ", op. cit., p. 14.

(22) "The Integration of Spanish Women . . . ", op. cit., p. 12.

Working population and unemployment - 1980

	men	women	total
total working population	9,280,800	3,836,400	13,117,200
employed	8,319,100	3,352,300	11,671,400
unemployed	997,800	448,000	1,445,800

Source: "La española de verdad", Riv. Cambio 16, nº 456, 31.8.1980
pp. 58 et seq.

Once again, we note differences between sexes. Unemployed men make up 10.7% of the male working population, whereas unemployed women make up 11.6% of the female working population. Those in search of work account for 11% of the working population, the breakdown being 7.6% men and 3.4% women. In view of the fact that only 29.3% of the work force is female, i.e. less than a third of the working population, the true rate of female unemployment is 30.9%.

The following table of unemployment trends also clearly shows that women are at a disadvantage.

Unemployment trends, 1964 to 1978

Year	Total	Men	Women
1964	178	144	34
1965	186	163	23
1966	107	94	13
1967	127	114	13
1968	126	108	18
1969	119	103	16
1970	133	111	22
1971	193	157	36
1972	278	222	56
1973	304	226	78
1974	354	246	108
1975	516	380	136
1976	658.6	476.5	182.1
1977	724.1	509.8	214.3
1978	991.4	655.5	335.9

Source: Encuesta Población Activa, Instituto Nacional de Estadística, various years, and "The integration of Spanish Women in the World of Work", National Report, Spain. OECD conference on women's employment, April 1980, p. 36.

Unemployed by area and by sex - 1978

A R E A	Total	% of area	% of total	Men ('000)	% of men	Women ('000)	% of women
Northwest	30,700	2.61	2.83	20,100	2.86	10,600	3.43
North	84,100	7.53	7.77	48,900	6.11	35,300	6.10
Ebro	48,100	6.50	4.44	25,400	4.72	22,600	4.21
Barcelona	150,300	8.78	13.88	94,700	7.77	55,600	7.85
Northeast	27,300	3.66	2.52	17,800	3.45	9,600	5.04
Duero	62,400	6.35	5.76	33,600	5.00	28,900	4.82
West	45,700	8.91	4.22	34,300	8.91	11,400	7.31
Madrid	178,100	10.83	16.45	113,800	9.79	64,300	5.75
Mancha	37,000	6.81	3.42	24,000	5.87	12,900	6.50
East	93,600	5.69	8.64	53,400	4.68	40,200	5.80
Southwest	166,100	15.89	15.34	127,300	15.68	38,800	13.69
Southeast	109,100	13.03	10.07	84,500	13.31	24,500	12.77
Atlantic	50,400	10.78	4.66	35,100	10.44	15,400	7.08
T O T A L	1,083,300	8.22	100.00	712,900	7.64	370,100	9.65

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 4th quarter 1978, in "Movimiento Laboral registrado del Ministerio de Trabajo", December 1978.

This table shows the distribution of unemployment in the different areas of Spain. The overall rate of female unemployment is 9.65%, whereas the rate of male unemployment is 7.64%.

Unemployment by sex, age and level of education - 1978

Age	without schooling			primary			secondary			higher education		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
up to 30	23.6	16.3	21.3	13.9	13.9	13.9	18.7	24.9	21.6	21.9	24.9	23.1
over 30	8.0	2.2	6.3	3.7	2.2	3.4	2.1	3.8	2.6	1.4	3.5	1.7
TOTAL	9.2	3.3	7.4	6.5	7.2	6.7	10.4	18.8	13.5	5.7	14.7	7.6

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Encuesta de Población activa, 4th quarter 1978.

Registered unemployed as a percentage of the working population - 1979 - Comparison between the EEC and Spain

	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979
Germany	2.2	4.2	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.4
France	2.3	3.9	4.3	4.8	5.2	6.0
Italy	4.8	5.3	5.6	6.4	7.1	7.5
Netherlands	2.8	4.0	4.3	4.1	4.1	4.1
Belgium	3.2	5.3	6.8	7.8	8.3	8.8
Luxembourg	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.7
United Kingdom	2.4	3.8	5.3	5.7	5.7	5.3
Ireland	6.0	8.5	9.5	9.3	8.7	7.9
Denmark	2.0	4.6	4.7	5.8	6.5	5.3
Greece	na	na	na	na	na	1.8
Spain	1.5	2.3	3.4	5.0	6.9	10.2

Source: "General Statistics", Statistical Office of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1980, pp.16 and 20.

na - figures not available.

The figures for Greece and Spain have been calculated from the table on p. 16 of "General Statistics, op. cit.

LEGISLATION ON WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT

A distinction may be made between two phases in the law regulating women's employment: in the first, protectionist phase, the aim is to put a stop to the abuses from which workers in general and women in particular suffered during the period of industrial growth; in the second, anti-discriminatory phase, the aim is equality for men and women.

Under national law and the international agreements signed with the International Labour Office, women may not work at night or be employed on hazardous, unhealthy or arduous jobs. There is a need for revised legislation now that working conditions have changed (an important factor being new technology), removing the justification for these forms of discrimination. Such differences should disappear, because they make it more difficult for women to gain promotion and take on positions of responsibility.

As we have said, the principle of equality for men and women at work was laid down by Law 65, 22 July 1961, on women's political, professional and occupational rights, the Constitution - which also declares that men and women are equal before the law in all respects - and the Workers' Statute.

Certain situations are not adequately covered by legislation, for instance hazardous work, overnight rest periods, part-time work, homeworkers and parity for working women with regard to the surviving spouse's pension rights.

Marriage gratuity

Before the Law of 22 July 1961, in many sectors of the economy - the steel industry, for instance, and companies in the public and semi-public sector - when a woman employee married she was placed on "compulsory temporary release": in other words, she lost her job and was compensated by a marriage gratuity. If her husband later died, she was entitled to return to her job.

Legislative progress has been made since then. A decree was issued on 1 February 1962 making it illegal to deprive a woman of her job on the grounds of a change in her marital status. It gave a woman three choices:

- (a) she could continue to work;
- (b) she could if she wished take unpaid leave for a year to five years (although the ceiling was reduced to three years by a decree of 20 August 1970);
- (c) she could resign from her job and be paid a gratuity.

As things now stand, changes have been introduced by the Workers' Statute and there is no law or regulation under which the employer/employee relationship changes depending on whether or not a woman is married.

Schemes to promote women's employment

Steps are being taken to make it easier for women to obtain employment or set up on their own account. The "Fondo de Protección al Trabajo", for instance, an "employment protection fund" which comes under the Ministry for Employment, has embarked upon a programme to promote the employment of "women with family responsibilities" (formally defined as those who have a dependent husband or dependent relatives in the ascending or descending line by blood, marriage or adoption, up to and including the third degree of relationship). The programme includes:

- a) free vocational training courses specifically designed for women in search of a job, women who need to retrain for another career or those who hope for promotion in the companies in which they already work.
- b) schemes promoting the formation of cooperatives to create the facilities needed by working women, especially creches, which are subsidized in proportion to the jobs held by women with family responsibilities within each cooperative.
- c) schemes to encourage women with family responsibilities to become self-employed or set up on their own, by granting low-interest loans for business and production. Information is already available on the application of these schemes: 66% of women applying for loans are married, 13% are separated, 6% are widows, 6% are unmarried mothers and 6% are unmarried with other family responsibilities. A breakdown of applicants shows that 51% are unemployed, 29% are seeking their first job, 10% are in paid employment and 8% are self-employed. Details on the projects for which loans are needed are shown in the following table.

Schemes to promote women's employment

livestock farming	0.8%
garment-making workshop	6.8%
beautician	6.8%
hairdressing	10.5%
hotel management	9.0%
trade	43.6%
nursery school	11.3%
nursing	1.5%
pharmacy	1.5%
teaching	4.5%
business services	3.0%
insurance	0.7%

The list shows that 92.4% of applicants wish to work in the service sector, 6.8% in industry and only 0.8% in agriculture.

The Fund also gives grants towards the fees charged by nursery schools for employees' children.

In October 1980, a law on employment policy was enacted in an attempt to promote employment for those groups that find it hardest to find work; the law includes women with family responsibilities and the over-45s among those groups. The encouragement takes the form of aid for employers hiring such workers and/or the workers themselves, through:

- a) vocational training, free of charge;
- b) technical advice, vocational retraining and guidance;
- c) direct grants to employers increasing their work force by taking on new full-time workers with permanent contracts of employment;
- d) aid to workers needing to move or change their jobs or type of work;
- e) study grants and help with basic and refresher training outside Spain;
- f) reimbursement of social security contributions.

Useful addresses Fondo de Protección al Trabajo
Ministerio de Trabajo - Nuevos Ministerios
Madrid - 4.
tel. 253-6000 and 254-5801, ext. 21-96 and 22-48
Secretary General: Africa Jaén Ayudarte
Head of Information Section: Natividad Jiménez Cámara

Secretaría General Técnica
Ministerio de Trabajo - Nuevos Ministerios
Madrid - 4
tel. 253-6000 and 254-5801, ext. 21-85
Section head: Angelines Jiménez Butragueno

Married women with a job

Today a married woman is deemed to be on an equal footing with a man in her legal capacity to enter into a contract of employment. Things were not always like this: a married woman wanting to take a job used to have to ask her husband for his formal consent. The decree on the rights of working women of 20 August 1970, reaffirmed this requirement for a husband's authorization and it was not until 18 April 1976 that the position was changed by the "Ley de Relaciones Laborales" - the "labour relations law". The "Workers' Statute" which became law on 10 March 1980 annuls any regulations, clauses in collective or individual agreements and unilateral decisions on the part of an employer that creates either positive or negative discrimination at work on the grounds of sex or marital status.

The Government may, however, issue measures regulating work quotas, periods or preferential arrangements designed to promote the employment of older people, those whose ability to work is somewhat impaired, the unemployed and school leavers. The Government may also subsidize measures that create job opportunities for such workers.

Motherhood

A contract of employment may be temporarily suspended if a woman is having a baby. A woman is entitled to 14 weeks' maternity leave, taken when she feels it necessary, on 75% of the social security basic living allowance. The employer is under an obligation to allow her to return to her old job after this period with the same status as if she had been absent due to sickness. On the other hand, there is no law to prevent an employer dismissing a woman employee during pregnancy.

Fathers are entitled to two days' paternity leave.

A woman with a baby up to nine months old may take an hour or two half-hours off from work during the day for breast-feeding, although as an alternative she may work half an hour less a day for the same purpose.

Provision is also made for a special type of temporary leave to be taken by a parent (the father as well as the mother): a period of up to three years from the birth of a child. If more children arrive, a further period of leave may be obtained, although it terminates any leave being taken at the time to look after the previous child. If both parents work, only one of them may apply for leave (which is unpaid). This arrangement, known as the "surplus system", does not guarantee a job at the end of the period of child care leave but merely gives the employee a preferential claim to any job in the same or comparable category as before if the employer has to take on new workers.

Whatever her marital status, a working woman is entitled to the full benefits of the social security health scheme. Wives of employees who contributed to the social security scheme and foreign women working for employers who contribute to the general social security scheme enjoy the same benefits.

If the employee has the direct care of a dependant less than 6 years old or who is physically or mentally handicapped and has no paid employment, his or her working day may be cut by a third to a half, with proportionately lower earnings. If both the father and mother work, they may both exercise this right (23). This first attempt to regulate part-time work should pave the way for more advances in the future.

(23) Workers' Statute, 10 March 1980.

Child care and day nurseries

There is no official body with overall responsibility for administering and supervising creches and pre-school units, which makes it difficult to find out the precise position today. Over the past few years many new creches have been set up, but the number is still too small to meet the needs, since the amount a working woman can afford for the care of her child in a nursery is limited.

In addition to the creches attached to certain companies, in 1979 the Ministries for Culture, Health and Social Security were subsidizing 210 nurseries caring for 37,500 children. The Ministry of Justice has centres for mothers in distress with small children.

Through the "national employment protection fund", the Ministry of Employment gives grants towards running costs (staff, food and other expenses) of non-profit-making units that take children up to the age of 6 during working hours if their mothers are in paid employment. These institutions may also provide pre-school education for the children. The State pays a given amount based on the number of children at the nursery; this may be enough to pay the expenses in some cases, although in others the parents may have to pay the balance. In 1975, there were 345 nursery units under this arrangement; by 1978, it had risen to 619, the same figure as today (24).

According to union estimates, fewer than 95% of children up to 5 years old have the opportunity of a subsidized nursery place.

On very rare occasions the State will pay the fees for a working woman's child at a private nursery school.

Until 1979, the "national employment protection fund" also paid a grant toward the cost of building and fitting out new units, but it has been unable to obtain an increase in its budget and is no longer able to do so.

Women workers in the union confederation stress the importance of monitoring the type of care the children are receiving in these centres, as well as the attention paid to their development as individuals.

(24) "The Integration of Spanish Women . . . ", op. cit, p. 12.

Useful addresses Guarderías Infantiles Laborales
Fondo Nacional de Protección al Trabajo
Ministerio de Trabajo - Nuevos Ministerios
Madrid - 4
tel. 253-6000, ext. 23-46
Head of Employment Welfare Dept. Eduardo Valderrama

Escuela Infantil "El Garabato"
Miranda de Ebro
Burgos
Headmistress: Isabel Escobar

Guarderías de Inversión Directa
Dirección General de Servicios Sociales
Ministerio de Sanidad y Seguridad Social
Madrid

Unpaid family labour

For a woman, unpaid work in the family business or trade is a typical outcome of the subordinate and dependent role she often plays in the family. Even though unpaid family labour is becoming less common as the years go by and as industry becomes concentrated, the number of such women helpers has been declining more slowly than that of men (25).

There is another difference between men and women in this respect, based on age: the typical male unpaid family helper is a boy, whereas the female helper tends to be an adult.

The work on which family labour is most commonly employed is on the land and in the retail trade, which together account for more than 83% of the total number of women in this group (26).

(25) PEREZ INFANTE J.I.: "Análisis del trabajo a tiempo parcial en la mujer española: aproximación cuantitativa", in "Trabajo a tiempo parcial y horarios flexibles". Seminario de Estudios, Cuenca, 1978, p. 301.

(26) PEREZ INFANTE J.I.: op. cit., p. 303.

Population in employment: percentage in each category of employment

Occupation	Men	Women
Employers	4.18	1.10
Self-employed	17.99	14.02
Family labour	4.30	19.61
Employees	73.36	65.01
Other	0.17	0.26
TOTAL	100.00	100.00

Source: PEREZ INFANTE J.I.: "Análisis del trabajo a tiempo parcial en la mujer española: aproximación cuantitativa", in "Trabajo a tiempo parcial y horarios flexibles". Seminario de Estudios, Cuenca, 1978, p. 300.

This table shows that one woman in five comes under the heading of family labour, compared with only one man in 25.

Unpaid family helpers by age and sex - 1976

Age group	Family labour as a percentage of national labour force		Percentage of total family labour	
	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN
14 and under	25.53	2.37	0.42	0.01
15 to 19	17.32	9.61	30.18	7.28
20 to 24	11.57	8.99	29.18	8.25
25 to 44	3.17	21.00	30.80	35.98
45 to 64	0.89	28.28	7.41	41.83
65 and over	2.25	29.45	2.01	6.65
T O T A L	4.30	19.61	100.00	100.00

Source: PEREZ INFANTE J.I.: op. cit., p. 302.

The table shows that 60% of male family helpers are under 25, only 15% of female helpers are in this age group. In the over-45 age groups, 9.5% of men and 49% of women come under this heading. The latter percentage is a clear indication of the large numbers of married women who alternate domestic chores with work in the family business throughout the year or during the season (see also "the position of women in agricultural areas", p. 49).

Outworking and part-time work

These two practices are widespread in Spain, one of the incentives being general unemployment. This also leads to unofficial work, especially among women - who are still at a disadvantage on the labour market.

The risks and drawbacks of part-time employment are well known: part-time workers are on the fringes of the labour market, have few prospects of promotion and are sometimes open to exploitation. On occasions there are legal loopholes in the entitlement of part-time workers to social security benefits. In 1976, 14.33% of employed women had a part-time job compared with 11.22% of employed men (27).

Piecework done at home - very common in certain regions of Spain - forces women to stay in the home for many hours at a stretch. There are no specific regulations on homeworkers' legal and social security status.

Domestic help

Domestic workers are seen as doing a special type of work which need not be covered by the Workers' Statute. At the World Conference for the United Nations Decade of Women held in Copenhagen from 14 to 30 July 1980, the Spanish spokeswoman stressed the need for an up-to-date set of regulations covering this type of work, on which 4.4% of the total female work force is engaged - a group that has encountered many obstacles in trying to defend its interests (28).

The Spanish Socialist Party - Partido Socialista Obrero Español- has presented a bill in the Cortes (Spanish Parliament) regulating domestic work and laying down a minimum wage and a maximum working week.

(27) PEREZ INFANTE J.I.: op. cit., p. 308.

(28) PEREZ INFANTE J.I.: op. cit., p. 249.

Access to employment, promotion and vocational training

Spanish legislation gives all workers equal rights to promotion and vocational training at work and bans discrimination in recruitment on the grounds of sex or marital status. The law makes a good distinction between the two stages at which discrimination may occur: many instances occur before recruitment, whereas others may also take place afterwards, i.e. during the course of work.

An employee who is studying is entitled to take time off to sit examinations and has the right to choose on which shift he works. He may also ask to change his normal working hours during the day so that he can attend basic or advanced vocational courses and still retain his job.

The conditions governing promotion within a given job category must be the same for men and women. Unfortunately, here again discrimination arises in practice: a woman is less likely to be promoted or to benefit from vocational training in her work because her additional burden of family responsibilities may detract from her performance and leave her with less time to spend on specialist training.

The principle of equality between the sexes has nevertheless given new hope of advancement for women working in what were formerly male preserves. Examples of what has been achieved include the integration of women in the senior police force, whose last intake of recruits included about 40 women. For the first time, girl recruits were allowed to take deck officer, ship's engineer and radio operator courses in the 1979-80 academic year. The Spanish railways have taken on women for jobs traditionally done by men, e.g. work as mechanics and engine drivers (29).

SOCIAL SECURITY

The general social security legislation ratified by Decree 2065 of 30 May 1974 states that men and women have exactly the same rights. Even so, there are still many unjustifiable forms of discrimination, for instance in widowers' pensions, benefits payable to the family and the arrangements for family allowances.

(29) "The Integration of Spanish Women . . . ", op. cit., pp. 17-18.

Under the general social security scheme, a working woman pays the same contribution as a man but, in the event of her death, her surviving husband will not only have to satisfy the same requirements as a widow but must also have been her dependant and unfit for work at the time of her death. Parliament is considering legislation to correct this disparity.

The laws is even more discriminatory in the public sector: in no case may a woman pass on a pension to her widower, and her children will be entitled to benefits only if the father is physically incapacitated and has no financial resources. A widow is entitled to receive a pension even though she works.

On the death of her husband a woman will receive a pension only if she has co-habited with her husband or, in the case of a legally separated couple, if the court separation order recognizes that she has been the innocent party.

Regarding benefits payable to members of the family, married women or widows aged over 45 who can prove that they have devoted themselves to looking after the insured person are entitled to a pension for a specified period if they have no resources on which to draw for their living expenses.

The law protects the family through various types of allowance paid to the breadwinner:

- a) monthly allowances in respect of the spouse; in the case of a working woman, however, this is paid only if the husband is unfit for work and is his wife's dependant;
- b) monthly allowances for dependent children under 18;
- c) a once-only marriage allowance;
- d) a payment on the birth of each child.

Type a) and b) allowances are higher for large families, but if the widow of a working or retired man who was entitled to a type b) family allowance remarries she forfeits the right to this benefit.

There are also many forms of discrimination against members of the very large unpaid family labour force (30).

(30) "The Integration of Spanish Women . . . ", op. cit, p. 10.

Retirement age

The minimum age at which a person qualifies for a full-rate old age pension is 65, although the age may be lowered if he is engaged on work that may be toxic, hazardous or unhealthy. A person may retire at 60, but the amount of the pension will be reduced. There is no specific legislation on women in this field.

TAXATION

The law has established the principle that the family is a unit and requires tax returns to be signed by both husband and wife. Within the family, the individual earnings of husband and wife are lumped together and considered to be a single income. The result is that the rate of tax payable is higher than if the incomes were assessed separately, an implicit disincentive for a woman to have her own career.

The family unit is deemed to be a taxable entity consisting of the couple and any under-age children. If a marriage is annulled or dissolved or in the case of a legal separation, the unit consists of the spouse and his or her dependent children; the same criterion applies to an unmarried woman and her children.

When the taxpayers are taken together as a family unit, their incomes are aggregated for the purpose of determining how much tax they are to pay, whatever the financial arrangements made in the marriage. Wages and salaries, incentive bonuses, family allowances and grants, etc. are taken into account when working out a family's income. There is also a number of deductions that may be made when calculating net earned income. Expenses necessarily incurred in earning that income are considered to be deductible, but these do not include payments to a creche or day unit for the care of children while their mother works.

In calculating income earned from business or professional work, the cost of services rendered to the taxpayer by third parties is deductible if these are necessarily incurred in the course of the business or profession, but here again they do not include any services used on a private basis and the cost of child-minding is excluded.

COMPARISON BETWEEN SPANISH LEGISLATION AND EEC DIRECTIVES
ON EQUAL TREATMENT AND PAY

- 1) Principle of equal pay for men and women:
Spanish law is very clear on the subject. There may be no discrimination in the wages paid by an employer, and the same rates of basic wages and extras must be paid for work of the same type (Workers' Statute, article 28).

- 2) Principle of equal treatment for men and women in access to employment, training, advancement and working conditions:
see the section on "access to employment, promotion and vocational training", p. 32.

- 3) Principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security:
see the section on "social security", p. 32.

Spanish law, therefore, reflects the principles set out in the three EEC directives. If, after reading the section on "social security", there is some doubt as to this, it should be borne in mind that the EEC directive [79/7/EEC] speaks of "progressive implementation" of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security, giving Member States six years from notification of the directive to comply, i.e. by the end of 1984. Furthermore, the directive does not apply to benefits payable to surviving relatives, nor does it prejudice the right of Member States to exclude from its scope the granting of old-age or invalidity benefit entitlements by virtue of a wife's derived entitlements. The directive does not claim to eliminate all inequalities of treatment but is a first step towards the implementation of the principle, bearing in mind the results of this experiment at the time of formulating further Community measures (31).

(31) Report on the Proposed Directive regarding the gradual implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security. Brussels, 13 January 1977, pp. 2-3.

WOMEN IN THE UNIONS*

Improved working conditions are achieved above all by cooperation between shop floor workers, their unions, works committees and management within each concern and it is important, therefore, that women workers should be properly represented on the union bodies in the workplace, especially if the company employs a large female work force. Women play a less active part in union affairs than men, in terms of both numbers and the quality of their contribution. It is notable that some working women feel that they are not encouraged to be active in their union activities because their specific claims are not taken as seriously as other union objectives. Women in fact have special problems of their own in addition to the problems faced by their male counterparts.

The first problem arises from what is still the general belief: that the wife and mother bears the sole responsibility for looking after the home and children. This means that a woman who combines a family and a job will have little spare time for union activities.

The second problem is that, because of sexist attitudes, women are given the least productive jobs. If the skill content of a job of this kind is upgraded as a result of technological progress, it is often taken away from a woman and given to a man. Economic growth over the long term creates new types of work at every level of skill, and the effect is often that men desert the lower categories (32).

There are some people who think that women's struggle for their own claims would introduce a divisive element among workers.

A woman has little motivation for active participation in union life because she feels that the union does not fight for her rights - indeed, it does not really understand what they are about. The few women unionists who do exist confess that they have encountered innumerable difficulties in their relations with their colleagues, who are unused to treating woman on an equal basis.

* The head of the women's section of UGT (Unión General de Trabajadores - general union of workers) was interviewed to obtain a more detailed picture.

(32) PALMER I.: "Participation in Decisions within the Unions", ILO, Women at Work, 2/1977, p. 13.

The situation is even more serious in view of the fact that, because of the education they have received, many women feel they are not as good as the men with whom they work and may excuse unequal pay on the grounds that "it is the man who has to keep the family, so he has more responsibilities". In the food processing industry, for example, where 90% of the work force is female, only 20% of the union representatives are women (33).

Sometimes the union thinks that there are far more serious problems than discrimination against women and the issue is given a low priority. Despite all this, working women have proved their mettle at the time of pressing claims, for instance in shop floor meetings, debates, strikes, etc.

Some unions, such as CCOO (Confederación Sindical de Comisiones Obreras), which is allied to the PCE (the Spanish Communist Party), and the Sindicato Unitario, have set up a "women's secretariat"; others, such as UGT (Unión General de Trabajadores, which is linked with the Spanish Socialist Party, PSOE), feel it undesirable to create a specific structure for women as this might isolate them from the rest of the workers and their problems. Even so, many working groups have sprung up spontaneously to tackle various subjects such as the health of women workers and the compilation of facts and figures on women at work.

WHICH WOMEN PLAY THE MOST ACTIVE PART IN UNION AFFAIRS?
WHAT ARE THEY FIGHTING FOR?

The CCOO Women's Secretariat has conducted a survey on its officials, on the basis of which we have drawn up the following table.

(33) RUIZ C.: "Notas sobre la mujer trabajadora en la conserva vegetal", in "Primeras Jornadas de la mujer trabajadora del Sindicato Unitario", Madrid, 19-20 April 1980.

Age		How much time do you devote to your husband or partner?	
20 to 25	36.6%	none	20.9%
26 to 30	42.2%	a few days a week	16.3%
31 to 40	16.9%	every day	46.5%
41 and over	4.2%	no reply	16.3%
Marital status		What is your present status?	
unmarried	64.8%	employed	80.3%
married	22.5%	unemployed	9.8%
separated	11.3%	retired	1.4%
widowed	1.4%	work for the union and paid by CCOO	8.4%
Number of children		What type of work do you do?	
one	9.9%	unskilled manual	22.5%
two	1.4%	skilled manual	26.8%
none	88.7%	middle rank executive	2.8%
Age of children		administration	33.8%
up to 4	75.0%	technician	8.4%
5 to 10	12.5%	no reply	5.6%
10 to 20	0		
over 20	12.5%	What are your union duties within your company?	
Has child care leave* been applied for?		none	26.8%
yes	12.5%	shop steward	16.9%
no	87.5%	on the works committee	43.7%
Has the father applied for child care leave or other type of leave to look after the children?		no elections conducted (i.e. in civil service)	2.8%
yes	12.5%	no reply	14.1%
no	50.0%	What are your duties in the union?	
no reply	37.5%	none	16.9%
How many hours a day do you spend on housework?		in company's union section	15.5%
less than 2 hours	81.7%	in local secretariat	38.0%
2 to 4 hours	5.6%	in provincial secretariat	12.7%
more than 4 hours	2.8%	in regional or national secretariat	5.6%
no reply	9.9%	in federation secretariat	5.6%
		in confederation secretariat	1.4%
		legal or financial adviser	1.4%
		no reply	14.1%

Source: "La mujer: un paro silencioso", II Jornadas de CCOO. Secretaría de la Mujer, Madrid, June 1980, pp. 42-43.

* Child care leave is an arrangement whereby a contract of employment may be suspended for up to three years from the birth of a child - not to be confused with the 14 weeks' maternity leave.

The table shows that almost 80% of the women concerned with women's affairs within this union are aged under 30, 77.5% are unmarried, separated or divorced and 88% have no children. Five out of ten work on the shop floor and three out of ten have an administrative type of job.

In the UGT, working women are pressing certain claims:

- more jobs; removal of the obstacles that prevent women from gaining access to all types of vocational training, thus giving them true equality of opportunity.
- better collective agreements, i.e. elimination of the distinctions between male and female job categories still incorporated in some collective labour agreements, despite their illegality. The UGT estimates that women are paid 70% of men's wages because they tend to have the least skilled jobs. There is also a campaign for equal treatment of men and women when a company is in difficulties and it has to cut its work force or working week. Women in general and married women in particular are the first to suffer in such cases. It would be a good thing to set a minimum quota of women in a company, based on a given percentage of the total work force.
- more attention to women's health, with searching investigation into the noxious substances that may be used in the work environment, to prevent miscarriages and improve working conditions in general.
- greater awareness in the union itself of the problems faced by women.
- adoption of the criterion that a job should be accessible - in all senses, including the physical sense - to both men and women (seating height, distance of seat from operating pedals, etc.).
- gradual elimination of the practice of homeworking, with homeworkers being incorporated in a company's permanent labour force with entitlement to the benefits of its social security scheme.
- penalties for employers who place pressure on women to leave their work, even in the form of hidden incentives to resign such as the offer of compensation, "dowries", etc., or who choose which of their work force are to be made redundant on the grounds of sex or marital or family status.
- a change in attitudes towards maternity, which should be seen as a contribution to society: a woman should receive 100% (not just 75%) of her pay during her 14 weeks' maternity leave; in addition, either the father or the mother should be allowed to take this leave.
- creation of the basic infrastructure, such as creches and schools operating at times that fit in with working hours, school meals, retirement homes for the elderly, etc., so that it is easier for women to become an integral part of the world of work (34).

The UGT women's secretariat has proposed measures that would alleviate female unemployment:

- the granting of tax concessions or the reimbursement of social security contributions to companies employing more than a specified minimum percentage of women workers;
- up to 50% reduction in the social security contributions made by employers during maternity leave and a twelve-month period following a mother's return to her job;
- vocational training courses in companies employing a large number of women so that they can take on more skilled jobs on an equal footing with their male counterparts;
- updating the legislation that "protects" women, since in practice it prevents women from working outside normal hours or doing certain jobs that are considered, often without good reason, to be harmful;
- arrangements for the works committee to check on discriminatory measures preventing women from taking on more responsible posts;
- provision of low-cost laundry facilities;
- a ban on discriminatory advertising in the media (35);
- the organization of union training courses so that women workers will be better fitted for more responsible positions within the union or works committees;
- promotion of discussions on the problems of women in general and working women in particular in participating in political, cultural and union life (36).

(34) Resolutions, Thirtieth UGT Congress, Madrid, April 1980, pp.35-38.

(35) "La lucha contra el paro y la mujer trabajadora. Medidas contra el paro femenino". Secretaría de la mujer, Sindicato Unitario, 1979, pp. 12-14.

(36) "Mujer asalariada y participación sindical", Secretaría de la Mujer, Sindicato Unitario, during "National Women's Days" in December 1979, p. 3.

A PARLIAMENTARY CHARTER FOR WOMEN WORKERS

In an attempt to end discrimination against women at work, in November 1979 five unions drew up a "Parliamentary Charter for Women Workers", which declared that "there should be a ban on discrimination in working conditions and in work itself in any field of activity on the grounds of age, sex, marital status or family responsibilities, whether this discrimination is direct or indirect or is exercised by means of selection procedures or through the image of women in the media or advertising". The charter also deals with other problems such as equal opportunities for vocational training, equal pay, recognition of the social function of motherhood, social security and the protection of working women against dismissal during pregnancy (37).

Useful addresses Secretaría de la Mujer
Sindicato Unitario
c/Regueros, 3
Madrid 4
Head of Secretariat: Carmen de Pablo

Secretaría de la Mujer
Confederación Sindical de Comisiones Obreras (CCOO)
Batalla del Salado 42, 1º
Madrid 7

and

Fernandez de la Hoz 12
Madrid 4 tel. 410-4400
Head: Begoña San José Serrán

Unión General de Trabajadores (UGT)
San Bernardo 20, 5a planta
Madrid 8 tel. 252-7100
Head of Women's Section: Henar Corbi

Secretaría de la Unión Sindical Obrera (USO)
Plaza de Santa Bárbara 4
Madrid 4
Head of Secretariat: María Eugenia Somalo

(37) "Women at Work", International Labour Office, 1/1980.

EDUCATION

Equality between men and women depends not only on whether they have access to the same jobs or whether or not they receive the same pay but also on attitudes towards what has traditionally been considered men's or women's work; in particular, it depends on the type of education received.

Two factors should be borne in mind:

- 1) In Spain, there has been a general tendency to segregate girls and boys in education and to give them a different type of education and training (38);
- 2) There is a close correlation between a woman's level of educational attainment and the role she plays in society and the world of work.

The rate of illiteracy is 8.80% in Spain; if we take a closer look, however, we find that whereas the percentage of men unable to read or write is 5.09%, that of women 12.26% - in other words, the ratio is five to two (39).

The Spanish educational system does not discriminate in any way in the educational opportunities it provides for boys and girls, but many forms of discrimination arise in practice at every level.

Primary education (enseñanza general básica) is compulsory and free, lasting 8 years (from the age of 6 to 14), and is divided into two levels. Girls make up 47.35% of the primary school population (40). At this stage exactly the same education is given, but various factors - for example, the contents of teaching materials and male and female roles as projected by the teachers - are forerunners of future inequalities. Research is now being conducted on the eradication of stereotyped images from textbooks, as these shape the attitudes of children, especially in the early years. There are plans for similar action in the teachers' training colleges, since it is vital that the educators of tomorrow should be trained in a more enlightened way.

One problem is the lack of information on the opportunities for study after primary education, a reason why girls tend to opt for the traditional courses.

(38) PEREZ-SERRANO M. et al.: op.cit., p. 111.

(39) España, Anuario Estadístico, 1979. Ministerio de Economía. Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1970 census figures).

(40) World Conference, U.N. Decade for Women, Copenhagen, op. cit., p.462.

Secondary education is from 14 to 17; girls account for almost 50% of the school population at this level (41). Because of cultural, financial and social pressures, girls tend to opt for arts subjects, although an important factor in their choice is the lack of laboratory and science facilities in girls' schools (42).

At university level, there are three options (43):

- college courses (three years);
- university faculty courses (five years);
- technical colleges (five years).

Only 5% of students at engineering colleges are girls, whereas 65% of the student body in teachers' training colleges consists of girls - implying that such studies are seen as typically female. The proportion of trainee teachers is not, however, reflected in the structure of the teaching profession. At the pre-school level, women account for 99% of the teaching staff; in the primary school, 60% of the teachers are women; in specialist education, the percentage is 70%. In secondary education, there are roughly the same numbers of men and women teachers. At university level, on the other hand, there are very few women members of the academic body, although the position is changing slightly, especially among professors who are not on the permanent teaching staff. In the 1976-77 academic year, 23% of the academic staff in higher education were women (44). The following lists the percentage of women on the staff of each faculty.

Faculty of Science	24%
Faculty of Biology	42%
Faculty of Physics	22%
Faculty of Geology	19%
Faculty of Mathematics	21%
Faculty of Chemistry	19%
Faculty of Economics	14%
Faculty of Information Science	13%
Faculty of Law	15%
Faculty of Pharmacy	43%
Faculty of Letters	29%
Faculty of Medicine	17%
Veterinary College	12%
Faculty of Theology	13%

Source: "The Integration of Spanish Women . . . ", op. cit., p. 17.

(41) World Conference, U.N. Decade for Women, Copenhagen, op. cit., p.463.

(42) World Conference, U.N. Decade for Women, Copenhagen, op. cit., p.464.

(43) World Conference, U.N. Decade for Women, Copenhagen, op. cit., pp. 464 and 467.

(44) "The Integration of Spanish Women . . . ", op. cit., p. 17.

Among university students, 40.5% are women. The distribution of women students among faculties is of interest as it shows how they tend to opt for the arts.

Students enrolled in Universities - 1977-78

Faculty	Men	Women	Total	% women
Science	18,091	12,548	30,639	41
Biological science	3,717	4,251	7,968	53
Physical science	4,084	2,193	6,277	35
Geological science	569	257	826	31
Mathematics	4,384	2,920	7,268	40
Chemistry	6,848	3,687	10,535	35
Economic science	42,141	9,727	51,868	19
Information science	6,581	4,039	10,620	38
Political science & sociology	2,545	3,062	5,607	55
Law	45,619	25,257	70,876	36
Pharmacy	8,493	15,763	24,256	65
Literature and philosophy	24,412	36,748	61,160	60
Philosophy/education science	8,380	10,205	18,585	55
Languages	2,746	4,812	7,558	64
Geography and history	5,285	7,598	12,883	59
Medicine	51,562	31,471	83,033	38
Veterinary medicine	4,076	1,123	5,199	22
Theology	368	23	391	6
Ecclesiastical law	63	10	73	14
Information technology	2,812	7934	3,605	22
Psychology	2,356	6,050	8,586	70
Total nº students enrolled	254,274	173,489	427,763	40.55

Source: España. Anuario Estadístico. Ministerio de Economía. Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 1979.

Bearing in mind that the average percentage of girl students is 40%, the faculties in which the average is exceeded are: Psychology (70%), Pharmacy (65%), Languages (64%), Literature and Philosophy (60%), Philosophy and Education Science (55%), Political Science and Sociology (55%) and Biological Science (53%).

On the other hand, women are in the minority in the faculties of: Theology (6%), Ecclesiastical Law (14%), Economic Science (19%), Information technology (22%), Veterinary Medicine (22%), Geological Science (31%), Physical Science (35%), Law (36%) and Medicine (38%).

Basically, there are two fields in which a woman arts graduate can hope to find employment: teaching and the civil service. Anyone with an arts degree is unlikely to find the opportunity for a career in the private sector (45).

Only 5% of students at technical colleges are girls.

Students enrolled in technical colleges

Colleges	Men	Women	Total	% women
Architecture	12,345	1,606	13,951	12
Agricultural science	2,300	180	2,480	7
Aeronautics	1,776	31	1,807	2
Engineering - highways	4,521	73	4,594	3
Engineering - mining	1,529	40	1,569	9
Engineering - mechanical	849	80	929	2
Engineering - naval	1,033	19	1,052	2
Engineering - telecommunications	5,326	131	5,247	2
Engineering - industrial	14,939	434	15,373	3
T O T A L	44,618	2,594	47,212	5

Source: "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . . ", op. cit., p. 466.

Women account for 12% of enrolments in the faculty of Architecture, 9% in Mining Engineering and 7% in Agricultural Science; in other colleges there are only 2% or 3% girl students. The world of economic and scientific research is still a male preserve!

 (45) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . . ", op. cit., pp. 465-466.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

ADULT VOCATIONAL TRAINING

The standards of training for work are lower for women than for men, although there are signs of an improvement. For various socio-cultural reasons, including families, husbands, an unequal sharing of family and domestic responsibilities and the structure of Spanish society, women do not acquire the training they need to enable them to make a career for themselves. To achieve this, they ought to be able to take refresher courses and train for new jobs.

There have been official attempts to remedy the situation through adult vocational training since 1957, and private schemes even before then. Between 1965 and 1972, 25% of women took such courses, although there was a discernible preference for courses in the traditionally female subjects. During the 1970s, greater interest was shown in learning what were formerly considered to be male skills such as technical drawing, industrial design, carpentry, electrical installation, domestic appliance repairs, etc. (46).

From the economic viewpoint, it is apparent that women are excluded from the sectors that call for more advanced vocational training and the growth industries, because of the tendency on the part of Spanish women to do conventional women's jobs, the shortage of training centres, lack of information and careers guidance and the influence of girls' education, which will have been greatly affected by family considerations.

There has been a relative increase in the number of women attending vocational and industrial training courses, but they often drop out before the end for financial or other reasons or because of socio-cultural factors inherent in their background. Even those women who do complete the course tend to end up in the less important jobs, either in retailing or in the field of health, where women account for 80% of the junior technical staff (47). Efforts are currently being made to encourage women's career advancement through measures introduced by the Deputy Directorate General for Women (see section on "the civil service and women").

(46) French Embassy in Spain: "Studies on Discrimination . . .", op. cit.

(47) French Embassy in Spain: "Studies on Discrimination . . .", op. cit.

There are vocational training schools for men and others for women; less than half are mixed. In Madrid, for example, there are only 60 mixed centres and the proportion of women attending these is just 10%. This means that almost all women take courses in single-sex centres. The table that follows shows the large percentage of women trainees in certain specialist fields.

Percentage of women attending vocational training courses

Centres	% women
Social work	91.92
Child care and health	90.61
Administration and trade	36.0
Social education	55.7
Arts and crafts	59.83
Tourism	59.18
Music and drama	64.91
Agriculture	5.38

Source: U.N. World Conference on the Decade for Women, op. cit., p. 468.

INEM (Instituto Nacional de Empleo - national employment institute) arranges vocational training courses for adults over the age of 18, lasting 1 to 6 months. The aim is to enable the trainees to achieve new skills, train for different jobs or improve existing skills. The training given is multi-purpose - in other words, it is not designed to fit a trainee for a given job but to help individuals gain a foothold in the world of work. The Ministry of Employment also organizes vocational training and retraining courses for women with family responsibilities.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

There are two levels of training, each lasting two years, plus a preparatory course for both. The training is administered by the Ministry of Education; it starts after primary education, in other words at the age of 14, and may continue until the age of 21. The subjects studied are not just technical and vocational but include some that are taken in secondary school, the vocational school being considered equivalent. Such schools provide various specialist courses which are open to both boys and girls, although some of the traditional "girls' subjects" are of less practical value because there are too many applicants competing for too few jobs: for example, hairdressing, child care, secretarial skills, beauty care, dressmaking and nursing.

Another factor is that women cannot take courses that provide training in certain skills because when they qualify they would not be allowed to do the jobs using the skills in question. For instance, the law forbids the employment of women on jobs involving the use of heavy machinery or on work that may be hazardous. (48). Such courses are also normally held in all-male establishments and even if a woman insisted on learning the specialist skills she would find it impossible to do so for practical reasons.

There are about 21,000 vocational training centres in Spain; in 1977-78, they were attended by 407,812 trainees, 34% of whom were girls - an encouraging trend, since in 1970-71 the proportion was only 5%. Some courses are free of charge, 30% of the centres being Government-funded in 1977-78. In Madrid, for instance, there are 26 public centres, 132 private. In Barcelona, 100,068 trainees attended 38 public and 225 private centres in 1976-77 (49).

VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN THE COUNTRYSIDE

Statistics show that 18.5% of the working population work in a rural environment, 22.4% of those workers being women (50). There is no discrimination in agricultural training: courses are mixed and the subjects studied are those laid down by national legislation. The educational goal is to cover practical problems but to take the broader approach. At present there are 126 vocational training centres, with 4,265 students in 1979, 637 of whom were women. This low proportion, 15%, is mainly due to the hierarchical structure of the family, which clings to its traditional concept of male and female roles.

As a result of economic and family considerations:

- it is more common in the country than in the towns for parents to expect their daughters to work at home once they have reached the minimum school-leaving age - in other words, look after their younger brothers and sisters, do the housework, work on the land, tend the farm animals, etc.
- for financial reasons, girls have to take a job at an early age, for which they are poorly paid because it needs no special skills. This type of work perpetuates the subordinate role of women in society - as confirmed by the fact that only 3% of those in charge of farms are women (51).

(48) "U.N. Conference for the Decade for Women . . . ", op cit., p. 467.

(49) "La mujer: un paro silencioso". II Jornadas de CCOO. Secretaría de la Mujer, Madrid, June 1980, p. 26.

(50) "U.N. Conference for the Decade for Women . . . ", op cit., p. 468.

(51) "U.N. Conference for the Decade for Women . . . ", op cit., p. 468-9.

RECRUITMENT AND EMPLOYMENT POLICY

The degree to which women are involved in the world of work depends on the region in which they live and the facilities available. Traditional attitudes to women's work mean that they have only limited access to the labour market. They tend to be over-qualified for the jobs they can obtain, which usually offer less security because they are less likely to be permanent or offer scope for a career. This means that women make little headway in their work and a vicious circle is created, with fewer opportunities for employment, training and promotion. Since women are not usually in a position to take advantage of training facilities they do not acquire the skills they need to advance to more responsible positions, and they lack the motivation to acquire adequate training.

Lack of training does not prevent a woman from finding a job, since most women manual workers are unskilled or with only minimal job skills. Research into the fields of employment in which a higher level of training is required has shown that women's employment is like a pyramid: the least skilled at the base are most numerous, the most highly skilled at the top are fewest. It is significant that about 25% of women graduates are unemployed.

It is important, then, that women should acquire better training in job skills, but it is equally important that they should be given new opportunities for work in fields they have not previously entered.

Useful addresses INEM (Instituto Nacional de Empleo)
Condesa de Venadito 9
Madrid tel. 408 1500

Centro de Información de la Mujer
Menéndez Pelayo 11, 2º izq.
Madrid tel. 276 4645; 276 9213

Subdirección General de la Mujer
Ministerio de Cultura
Av. del Generalísimo 39
Madrid 16 tel. 455 5419
Deputy Director: Mabel Pérez Serrano

WOMEN IN AGRICULTURAL AREAS

With the continuous changes in rural society as a whole, special difficulties arise in investigating the lives women lead in the countryside. The evolution of traditional concepts of men's and women's roles is of great importance*. The factors affecting the picture in different areas include climate, methods of working, laws and customs relating to the inheritance and ownership of land and the results of migration (52).

In areas where livestock farming predominates like Galicia, Asturias, Santander, Euskadi, etc., farms are generally run by the family and farming methods are traditional with, for example, cows still being milked by hand. The women here do as much work on the farm as the men.

In crop-growing areas such as Ebro, Rioja, Cataluña and the southern part of Navarra, women do seasonal work such as fruit-picking and grape-harvesting. These are not permanent jobs: women "help out" in the busy periods. They often cope with the paperwork, for instance simple accounts. If livestock is only a sideline for a farm, women look after the cattle. They do the manual jobs; it is rare to see a woman driving a tractor or operating machines, work which is usually done by their menfolk. Moonlighting is a common practice, with women taking in work to be done at home, especially for the clothing industry.

In areas where food is grown and processed like Toledo, Extremadura and Murcia, women pick the crops and work in the bottling and canning factories, once again on a seasonal basis.

A wife will often work on the land and look after the animals while her husband takes a job elsewhere in industry or as a fisherman. In tourist areas and near towns, it is the woman's job to sell the farm produce in local markets.

* Much of the information contained in this chapter has been obtained from an interview with officials in COAG (Coordinadora de Organizaciones de Agricultores y Ganaderos). The author also consulted a report by Manuel García Ferrando: "Mujer y trabajo en la sociedad rural española: estudio de casos", in "Revista de estudios agro-sociales", year XXIV, nº 92, June-September 1975, pp.7-63.

(52) "La Mujer campesina", report by "Mujer y Socialismo" (PSOE) to the Mediterranean Women's Congress in Athens, 10-13 October 1980.

There is a large-scale exodus from the land, with the women remaining and running the farms - although it is becoming increasingly common for the women to migrate as well to find work in domestic service or industry.

In agriculture, women not only look after their families but also work in a state of total submission without hope of self-betterment. A woman may do one of two things:

- she may work for an employer, in which case her job will not be permanent and she may not even be considered as a farmworker, implying that she will not be insured under the agricultural workers' social security scheme.
- if, on the other hand, she works within the family, she will not be recognized as a bona fide worker or be entitled to any of the usual benefits. The main problem lies in her status as an "unpaid family helper": a member of the family who helps the husband in his work but is not officially an employee, receiving no pay and being ineligible for social security benefits.

Working methods in the countryside, where the whole family will be involved in the same activity or form of production, should be covered by legislation that allows for the special case of family labour. A woman doing the same job as a man should enjoy the same legal rights. Pay discrepancies are more marked in this sector than in others. The difficulties posed by traditional values, particularly in certain rural regions of Spain, should not be underestimated.

Comparing the rate of female employment in the three sectors of the economy from 1950 to 1975, we find that it has trebled in agriculture but has not even doubled in industry and the service sector.

Trends in female employment by sector - 1975 (percentage)

Year	Agriculture	Industry	Service	Total female working population
1950	7.9	15.7	30.1	15.8
1960	12.3	16.8	27.3	18.2
1964	19.1	18.8	32.3	23.0
1966	20.4	17.4	34.7	23.7
1970	22	17.5	33.7	24.4
1975	21	26	53	28.5

Source: LOPEZ-MONIS DE CAVO, C., "Incidencia del desempleo en las trabajadoras con responsabilidades familiares", in "Trabajo a tiempo parcial y horarios flexibles", Seminario de estudios, Cuenca, 1978, p. 196.

More women remain in the country than men, and on the whole they work as unpaid family helpers. In other words, they help in the family's work and provide cheap auxiliary labour. This reflects the traditional view that it is normal for women to do farm work and that it is a contribution they should be making as daughters, wives or mothers rather than as workers in their own right. In 1975, women represented 61% of family labour, 14% of farm owners and 11% of salaried farmworkers (see also table headed "Unpaid family helpers by age and sex", p. 30) (53).

The integration of women in agriculture, then, should be seen not as a "victory" but as a gradual process of taking over from men in low paid jobs. Sometimes the process is reversed: when the type of job traditionally done by a woman, such as milking, is mechanized, her job is then done by a man. To operate farm machinery is viewed as a step up the social ladder and men are given priority in taking that step.

COAG (Coordinadora de Organizaciones de Agricultores y Ganaderos)* has outlined a bill on family-run farms under which the farm would be owned jointly by the farmer and his wife, since women usually do more or less the same job in terms of quality and productivity without their contribution being taken into any account.

At the first congress of FUAG (Federación de Uniones de Agricultores y Ganaderos de Burgos), a group of women described a series of problems and suggested ways in which they might be solved, which included:

- 1) recognition by the Government and by farmers themselves of the fact that women share in the running of family farms. In return, men should be involved in certain aspects of domestic life such as the care of the children and the handling of the family money. It is of interest that even the women thought it would be too much to expect husbands to lend a hand with the housework.

(53) LOPEZ-MONIS DE CAVO, C.: "Incidencia del desempleo . . . ", op. cit., p. 186.

- COAG represents the unions of agricultural and livestock farmers with family-run farms.

2) economic, health, educational and cultural improvements in the quality of life in rural areas. Certain points were stressed:

- the inadequacy of the health service provided in small towns and villages;
- the way in which the agricultural social security scheme discriminates against women by not paying the widow's pension until the age of 50;
- the lack of schools in many villages, forcing youngsters to travel long distances to schools and vocational training centres in the towns;
- the lack of adult literacy centres in rural areas, the very places with the highest rate of illiteracy (it is estimated that almost one in three women living in the countryside is unable to read or write) (54);
- the need for country-dwellers to return to their roots and take pride in their peasant culture;
- the need for countrywomen to play an active part in union life.

These points give a fairly clear picture of the problems of agricultural life in Spain.

Education: schools are located in the larger towns, especially at secondary level. Children start school at the age of six, with little provision for pre-school children. There are a few kindergartens catering for the four- and five-year olds, but there is an acute shortage of creches and nurseries.

The idea that girls should have as good an education as boys is gaining ground, but two situations are fairly common: a girl may not be able to continue in school because she is expected to help in the home, cook, clean and look after her younger brothers and sisters while her mother is out at work; or, on the contrary, the daughter - especially in a better off family - may attend the (secondary education level) teacher training school to obtain the highly prized diploma that it confers, the son may not continue with his schooling because he is too busy working on the land.

(54) "La Mujer campesina", op. cit.

There are agricultural training courses in existence, accessible to both sexes. These are at two levels: one level of training is available in schools in various places in Spain, while the other is offered at the "Instituto Rural El Pino" in Valladolid. Unfortunately, in many cases they are not of much practical value, especially when their purpose is to improve growing methods, because the trainees are usually familiar with the problems. What is needed is a more up-to-date approach to the subjects studied, for instance by tackling the problem of marketing.

The Ministry of Agriculture runs a few centres which offer vocational training courses, but the drawback in the departments catering for girls is that traditional subjects are taught (how to bottle produce at home, for example). Recently, however, girls have been able to enroll for courses in market gardening, wine-growing, etc.

Women's participation in agricultural unions. Female union participation is still minimal. The representatives of some of the villages in regions such as Asturias and Aragon are women, but they are usually the wives or daughters of men who already take an active part in union affairs. It should not be forgotten that women are always involved in union campaigns and their attendance at meetings and participation in ballots are increasing.

Countrywomen do not generally take part in women's associations and other movements based in towns.

Professional women specializing in agricultural subjects, such as agricultural science or veterinary medicine, are few in number and tend to be found in the civil service, education and research. There has recently been a slight increase in women with agricultural expertise in industrial concerns.

Useful addresses COAG (Coordinadora de Organizaciones
de Agricultores y Ganaderos)
Jorge Juan 82; 6º 4
Madrid 9 tel. 226 7631
Head: Alicia Langreo

Colegios Familiares Rurales
Instituto Rural El Pino
Simón Aranda 9
Valladolid

H E A L T H

In Spain there are 180 doctors to every 100,000 people; the average in Europe is 186 (55). Spanish women live to an average of 75, men to 72 (56). The health reform of May 1980 covered such issues as preventive medicine, epidemiological measures, environmental health in the workplace and in food processing, the prevention of specific diseases, health education and the promotion of physical and mental health. Health centres are to be set up whose duties will include family planning and counselling, genetic research, education in health and diet and paediatric medicine.

BIRTH CONTROL

At the first family planning seminar arranged by the Health Department in 1977, it was said that "throughout the world, the right of both individuals and society to good health has led to birth control as the means of creating more healthy families in which every child is wanted, with planned pregnancies that will enable women to fulfil themselves as human beings and be better integrated in the working population" (57).

The birth rate fell by 2.7% in 1970 and by 2.2% in 1979. The sale of contraceptives and the provision of family planning information used to be a criminal offence, but the declining birth rate was a clear indication that women were in fact using contraceptive methods. The law was changed in 1978: the sale of contraceptives is now legal, although they cannot be obtained under the health service. The Health Ministry and the Ministry for Cultural Affairs were given responsibility for the problem.

In the same year family counselling services were set up, their terms of reference including birth control. Unfortunately they are not working effectively due to financial, administrative and other constraints, for example lack of information. Even some doctors - especially those working in rural areas - are ill informed because of the nature of their past medical training. The Government is trying to solve the problem by advertising information about birth control and the centres already in operation, including a television campaign. Political parties like the PSOE and PCE run their own centres to help with gynaecological and sexual problems. There are centres run by women's groups concerned with birth control, cancer screening and psychological help with problems of pregnancy, childbirth and sex. There are frequent talks on the subjects and on children, adolescence, cancer prevention, drugs, etc. In addition, private centres have been brought into being.

(55) "General Statistics . . . ", 1980, op. cit., p. 166 (1977 figures).

(56) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . . ", op.cit., p.470.

(57) Seminario de Planificación Familiar, Mahón, June 1977.

PROTECTION OF MOTHERS - MEASURES TO HELP MOTHER AND CHILD

The Ministry of Health and Social Security now issues a special health card for every expectant mother ("cartilla de la embarazada"), which gives full particulars of her pregnancy and the medical history of any members of the family which may be relevant. The card ends with details of the baby up to 72 hours after childbirth.

The health service provides for medical examinations throughout pregnancy, medical care during childbirth, hospitalization and any medication needed. It pays an allowance during maternity leave and gives a special grant for multiple births after the second child.

The cover provided by the health services is given to women in employment, retired women and women entitled to certain benefits or who are dependants of those qualifying for industrial disease or injury benefits.

PREVENTIVE MEDICINE CAMPAIGNS

- a) In 1976, a campaign was launched to prevent the risk to unborn babies caused by German measles during pregnancy; every girl from the age of 11 upwards was inoculated.
- b) For more than ten years now there has been a campaign for the early detection of cancer in women, but the results have been disappointing because of the preconceived ideas often held by Spanish women.

Useful addresses Centro de Información de la Mujer
Menéndez Pelayo 11, 2º izq.
Madrid tel. 276 4645 and 276 9213

CPAC (Centro de Planificación Familiar)
Coordinadora Provincial de Amas de casa
C/ General Lacy 13, 1º izq.
Madrid 7 tel. 467 4141

Centro de Medicina Social
Lope de Rueda 13, 1º
Madrid tel. 276 5548

Centro "Pablo Iglesias"
Sirio nº 30
Madrid tel. 274 9911

The picture in the 1979 elections was slightly different, as will be noted from the following table.

Candidates in the general elections

Year	number of seats in both Houses	total n° and % of candidates		total n° and % of women candidates	
1977	598	5,951	100%	690	11.7 %
1979	558	9,000	100%	1,091	12.12%

Candidates elected to the Cortés

Year	number of seats in both Houses	total n° of men	total n° and % of women	
1977	598	571	27	4.51%
1979	558	532	532	4.8 %

Source: "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . .", op. cit., pp. 453-454.

The number of candidates was slightly higher in 1979 than in 1977, as was the female membership of the Cortes. There was a difference between the women candidates who stood in 1977 and in 1979: in the earlier elections, they were put forward mainly because the parties felt under a moral obligation to do so and were afraid of being criticized by the electorate if they did not. In 1979, on the other hand, the qualities of each woman candidate were weighed more objectively. The women elected to Parliament now tend to belong to their parties' executive bodies or hold fairly senior positions within the party - something that is not necessarily true of men.

Although there are two women committee chairman in Parliament as well as a vice president and a secretary of state, the trend is still to give them responsibility for what are traditionally seen as women's affairs: the committees on the arts, education and health/social security are those with the largest number of women members (62).

 (62) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . .", op. cit., p. 455

WOMEN IN POLITICAL LIFE*

Because they have been confined to the home and family for so many centuries, most Spanish women see politics as a male preserve. Even though women make up 51% of the Spanish population and 53% of the voters and their full equality has been recognized by law, they are poorly represented in the political institutions.

WOMEN IN THE CORTES

There are few women in the Spanish Parliament, the Cortes, despite the fact that women's representation was an issue in the election campaigns - a sign of the low political status of women in politics in general. At the elections of 15 June 1977 the parties and their coalitions put up 653 women candidates for the Lower House out of a total of 5,019, i.e. 13% (58). In the elections for the Upper House, on the other hand, the percentage was 3.97%, i.e. 37 women out of a total of 932 candidates (59). The average age of the women candidates was 41, compared with the average of 49 in the case of their male counterparts.

Only 4.51% of those elected to the Spanish Parliament in 1977 were women, i.e. 27 out of 598 members of both Houses. The breakdown was 21 of the 350 deputies in the Lower House (6%), and 6 of the 248 senators in the Upper House (2.41%) (60). Spain's record for the representation of women in Parliament by comparison with other EEC countries is shown in the following table:

	percentage	year of elections
United Kingdom	2.99	1979
Ireland	4.05	1977
France	4.27	1978
Spain	6.00	1977
Belgium	7.54	1979
Italy	8.25	1979
Luxembourg	13.55	1979
Netherlands	14.66	1977
Denmark	23.46	1979

* Several leading figures in Spanish political life were interviewed to obtain the information in this section.

- (58) CASES J.I., LOPEZ NIETO L., RUIZ DE AZUA M. and VANACLOCHA F.J.: "Mujer y . . . 15 de junio". Dirección General de Desarrollo Comunitario. Ministerio de Cultura, Madrid, 197, pp. 49, 86 and 92.
- (59) CASES J.I. et al., "Mujer y . . . 15 de junio", op. cit., pp. 106-108.
- (60) CASES J.I. et al., "Mujer y . . . 15 de junio", op. cit., pp. 106.

Although there are so few women in Parliament, in everyday life they are playing a much more active role. For example, in neighbourhood groups there are more women than men, even at the executive level, and the same is true of the political parties, works councils, etc. (63). The voting record of women in elections is poorer than men's, something that is true of many other European countries. Women in any given socio-economic group are also more likely to vote for the centre or moderate right-wing candidates than their menfolk, another point in common with some EEC Member States (64).

WOMEN IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

It might be thought that women would play a more active part in local affairs because the issues are of more immediate concern in a smaller community, but this is not the case. Only 95 mayors in Spain's 8,194 local municipalities are women, a percentage of 1.16%.

Women are elected in the smaller local authorities especially those in rural areas which have been depleted by male emigration and where women, having taken over the jobs left by the men, have more opportunities for local office.

Women mayors - breakdown by size of population in local area

local population	women mayors
under 2,000	56
2,000 to 5,000	26
5,000 to 10,000	7
10,000 to 20,000	4
20,000 to 25,000	2

Source: "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . .", op. cit., p. 456.

In no municipality with a population of over 25,000 is there a woman mayor, an indication of the true status of women in local government (65).

(63) CASES J.I. et al., "Mujer y . . 15 de junio", op. cit., pp. 226.

(64) As in the case of France, Italy and West Germany. See CASES J.I. et al., "Mujer y . . 15 de junio", op. cit., pp. 158.

(65) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . .", op. cit., pp. 456-457.

The situation with regard to members of local councils is a little more encouraging: in Catalonia, for example, there are a few women on every local council, but here again they tend to be concerned almost solely with problems of health and education. Even so, women's participation in this sector of public life is very significant, especially if the local councils manage to create a good relationship with the local population, since it is well placed to tackle the problems faced by women. A group of women mayors and local councillors belonging to the women's liberation committee of the PSUC, the Catalonia United Socialist Party, has drawn up a list of proposals:

- creation of more creches and nurseries to give women more scope for action.
- facilities for the establishment of family planning centres;
- campaigns to make the public more aware of the problems specifically faced by women and to publicize women's demands;
- the holding of town council meetings at times when women are able to attend, with creches to care for their children during meetings;
- active involvement in arts events and festivities arranged for the general public to prevent women being cheapened by, for instance, the election of beauty queens and parades of majorettes;
- making premises available to women's groups in each municipality and neighbourhood (66).

WOMEN IN THE POLITICAL PARTIES

Either as the cause or the consequence of what is described above, women are not very active in the parties. They seem to be reluctant to join a party because political activities would mean them being away from their homes and children for several hours. This is difficult for housewives, since meetings are usually held in the evenings, but virtually impossible for working women who have very little time left to look after their children and do the housework. Even if women solve these problems or have no family responsibilities, they still have to

(66) Jornadas Nacionales de la Mujer, December 1979. Report by the Commission of the Central Committee, "Partido Socialista Unificado de Catalunya", on "women's liberation".

combat the attitudes adopted by men within the party. It has been observed that even the most politically active women tend to assume "feminine" roles within the parties and it is unusual for women to rise to party office - partly owing to the traditionalist attitudes of grass roots party members who feel that men are better fitted for positions of responsibility than women.

Some parties have created committees for women's problems, with various aims:

- to give the party guidance on its policy on women's affairs;
- to arouse awareness of the problems within the party itself;
- to encourage and train women aspiring to higher office;
- to act as a link between the party and women's and feminist groups.

The committees have played an important part in introducing women's health and family planning centres, many of which they themselves run. They have also been involved in the creation of legal and social advice centres and arrange political training and work groups to discuss women's problems.

Useful addresses

Comisión para la liberación de la mujer
Partido Comunista de España
Calle Santísima Trinidad 5
Madrid tel. 446 1100
Contact: Pilar Pérez Fuentes

Mujer y Socialismo (PSOE)
Santa Engracia 90
Madrid tel. 253 2300
Federal delegate: Maricarmen Mestre

María Dolores Pelay Duque (UCD deputy)
Cedáceros 11, 4º
Madrid

Comissióne de la dona
Partido Socialista de Cataluna (PSC)
Barcelona

Partito Socialista Unificato de Cataluña (SUC)
Carrer Clutat 7
Barcelona 2 tel. 301 and 301 0612

ASSOCIATIONS AND PRESSURE GROUPS *

There have been three phases in the history of associations and pressure groups, closely linked with the recent history of Spain (67):

- 1) up to 1975, International Women's Year;
- 2) from 1975 to 1977;
- 3) from 1977 to the present time.

1) Up to 1975

The last few years of the Franco regime were difficult for associations and groups, mainly on two counts:

- a) it was impossible to obtain legal status as the authorities steadfastly refused to recognize the statutes of associations;
- b) since the associations had no legal powers of representation, they were considered illegal and their scope was limited.

The groups were frustrated by not being able to take legitimate action and sometimes became more entrenched and radical.

In the case of the feminist movement, groups started up in Madrid and Barcelona in 1970 and 1971. By 1973, many women held virtually clandestine meetings, using premises lent by recognized bodies such as the "friends of UNESCO", the "friends of the U.N." and university women's or housewives' groups.

Groups and associations whose aims came closer to the ideology of the sole political party found it easier to operate, and were even assisted financially.

2) From 1975 to 1977

International Women's Year encouraged a new approach to women's participation in groups and associations. These - some recognized and some unofficial - celebrated the Year by coming together to work out a "parallel course of action" - in other words parallel to official policy. Meetings and discussions manifesto were held throughout Spain and, since the manifesto was highly critical of the Government, many obstacles were put in the way of the women taking part and some of the groups were dissolved, others were changed.

* The author interviewed Ms Jimena Alonso on aspects of the feminist movement.

(67) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., pp. 459-461.

In December 1975, the "first days for Spanish women's liberation" were attended by 400 or so women from every corner of Spain, meeting in secret in a school. The opinions voiced differed widely but the confrontation gave a flying start to many women's groups, not just in Madrid and Barcelona but also in the Basque country, Andalusia, Castille, Valladolid, etc.

The media gave widespread publicity to the activities of women's groups, and this acted as an incentive to the movements. At that time, more than 200 associations and groups sprang up throughout Spain, although they evolved in many different directions.

International Women's Year encouraged women to take an interest and be involved in the problems of emancipation. On 8 March 1975, a demonstration in support of women's claims was held even though official permission had been withheld; some of the demonstrators were arrested.

In May 1976, "days for the liberation of women in Catalonia" were held.

From 1976 onwards, women came together to fight for specific aims such as the abolition of the law making it a criminal offence to commit adultery (some women had gone to prison for this) or to leave the conjugal home. There was also strong pressure for birth control, divorce, abortion, equal pay for work of the same type, equal opportunities of advancement at work and access to all types of job without distinction. There was also a campaign to obtain the same legal status for natural children as for legitimate children.

In 1977, the political parties were made legal and general elections were held. It was the year in which the post of Sub-Director General for Women was created, answerable to the Minister for the Arts.

3. From 1977 to the present-day

The first two years were a period of intensive activity and involvement; the demonstration held on 8 March 1979, for instance, was attended by about 8,000 women.

From 1979 onwards it became apparent that the women's liberation movement had little organizational ability and lacked unity. It seemed unable to reach women in the less privileged sectors of society (most members of the Spanish movement are women with a better than average social and educational background).

The more conservative groups with the benefit of more funds and more official support were also becoming more active (68).

There are hopes, however, that common ground can be found by groups with different political beliefs and that they can agree on certain minimal claims. The Government should make administrative and material resources available so that the groups can work to achieve their shared aspirations (68).

Useful addresses Coordinadora de Organizaciones feministas del estado español
San Cristóbal 17
Madrid 12
(The addresses of many women's groups and organizations in Spanish regions can be obtained from the "Coordinadora")

Frente de mujeres feministas
c/Fernando IV, nº 11, 4º 4.a
Madrid 4 tel. 419 0465
Contact: Anabel González

Librería de Mujeres
San Cristóbal 17
Madrid 12
Contact: Jimena Alonso
(This is a cooperative of 200 or so women. The bookshop is an important women's meeting place in Madrid)

Asociación Catalana de la Dona
c/ Pelayo 50, 3er. 2a
Barcelona

Asociación Democrática de la Mujer (ADM)
Barquillo 44
Madrid tel. 419 5468

(68) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 461.

HOUSEWIVES

The work done by women in the home is a service rendered to society free of charge: by cooking and cleaning, they maintain society's work force; by giving birth and caring for children they enable society to survive. The chores they do free of charge would have to be paid if they were done for others.

Seven out of ten Spanish women between the ages of 30 and 64 are housewives; in the 25-29 age group, six out of ten are housewives, as are three out of ten in the 20-24 age group (69).

In 1979, housewives banded together to form a union. Declaring that they are self-employed workers, they have fought for the right to health and social security cover in their own right. SANAC (Sindicato Autónomo Nacional Amas de Casa) also hopes to set up consumer cooperatives, nurseries and rest homes for housewives, believing that they must pull together to solve problems such as the stability of the national economy, protection of family incomes against inflation, consumer advice and protection, product quality and labelling. They call for legislation on a "housewives' statute" and close contact with Government departments on matters of employment, the economy, industry, trade, the investment of small savings, social security and education.

Another of SANAC's objectives is the setting up of a small claims tribunal to by-pass the costly and time-consuming hearings that have to take place if consumer goods are faulty. The union declares its respect for constitutional and trade union principles, whilst having no allegiance to any one party.

There is also a group of individuals and associations working for housewives' interests called UNAE (Unión Cívica Nacional de Amas de Hogar), which is also campaigning for the right to insurance and social security cover, more creches, nurseries and consumer cooperatives. UNAE has already started up a consumer protection service. It has arranged a scheme under which a monthly "premium" can be paid so that aid will be given in the event of an accident, the wife's illness, maternity and death.

Useful addresses SANAC (Sindicato Autónomo de Amas de Casa)
Gran Vía 489
Barcelona 15 tel. 224 0899
President: Carmen Olazar
Contact: Aurelia de la Sierra

UNAE (Unión Cívica Nacional de Amas de Hogar)
Villanueva 8, 3º dcha.
Madrid tel. 275 7219
President: Margarita Font

Coordinadora Provincial de Amas de Casa
General Lacy 13, 5º izq.
Madrid 7

(69) VALENZUELA RATIA D.: "El sector doméstico español: 1964-1976",
Ministerio de Cultura. 1979, p. 76.

WOMEN AND THE MEDIA

The mass media play a very important part in encouraging community involvement. There are various ways in which the media exert their influence, depending on the attitudes of the institutions.

THE IMAGE OF WOMEN AS CONVEYED BY THE MEDIA

The image generally portrayed is of the traditional sort of woman, with the accent on her role as housewife and mother, as typified by the advertising in the press and on radio and television. A woman finds "fulfilment" in the dazzling whiteness of her sheets, her shining saucepans or her husband's compliments on her delicious coffee. Even when women are shown as having a job rather than working in the home, her work is usually shown as an extension of her role as mother and housewife: a teacher, secretary or nurse. She is often seen as no more than a sex object.

Attempts have been made to put an end to these false impressions of women's image in the media. For example, it was proposed that a woman should be co-opted onto the advertising standards board, but the proposal was not even considered (70). Out of respect for the freedom of expression, the State has never embarked on research or introduced a single measure relating to the conveying of a certain image of women. Despite this, feminists and a few professional women, acting on their own initiative, have tried to "filter" information on women to the radio and newspapers - unfortunately, only in isolated cases.

There is no Government policy designed to involve women in the media; the slight increase that has occurred is due mainly to the fact that women are playing a more active part in every sector of Spanish life.

There is no legal discrimination against women in access to employment, career opportunities, pay and work itself in the media, but they too reflect the way in which society is organized, and there are very few women who have the financial resources to exert even a slight influence over the direction taken by the media (71).

(70) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 481.

(71) A woman is the joint owner of the magazines "Nuevo Fotograma" and "Garbo", and another woman owns the newspaper "Las Provincias de Valencia". "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 483

WOMEN JOURNALISTS

Many journalists are women, although the number of women in senior administrative posts is declining: of the 60 positions at decision-making level, only 8 are held by women (13%). Out of the 150 journalists writing on political affairs, fewer than 20 are women, compared with the proportion of one in two writing columns concerned with children or in the women's page; 5% of journalists producing general interest articles are women (72).

Women graduating from the Information Science Faculty account for 26% of all graduates, a proportion that is maintained even when the total number of graduates rises.

Percentage of women graduates from Information Science Faculty

Academic year	total graduates	men	%	women	%
1975-76	377	276	73	101	26
1976-77	409	299	73	110	26
1977-78	671	490	73	181	26

Source: "Comentario Sociológico Julio-Diciembre de 1979", las Cajas de Ahorro, "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 483.

WOMEN READERS

Over the past few years, the press has been taking more interest in women's problems, but since women do not read very widely this change is having little effect on the female population. Only 17% of women read a newspaper daily, whereas 80% watch television - which unfortunately does not tackle matters of concern to women or further their cause.

Percentage of women reading newspapers or magazines

Age	every day	rarely or never
14 to 19	17.3	53.3
20 to 24	23.1	46.5
25 to 44	22.4	51.1
45 to 64	19.6	62.8
65 and over	13.2	75.5
Total	17.3	62.3

Source: OJD (Oficina de Justificación de la Difusión), "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 484.

(72) "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 483.

Taking the circulation figures for the general interest and informative women's magazines, as well as for the "love interest" magazines such as those containing love stories in the form of photographs in strip form, we find that women are more avid readers of the latter group (circulation 1,828,497) than the general interest publications (circulation 1,088,169). In interpreting these figures, the assumption is made that the former "love interest" magazines are read almost exclusively by women, whereas the others are not.

Circulation figures

Newspapers		General interest magazines	
ABC	135,652	Cambio 16	145,487
El Correo Catalán	46,526	El Europeo	12,126
Diario 16	58,731	Gaceta ilustrada	54,845
El imparcial	51,929	Interviú	771,874
El País	128,338	Sábado Gráfico	48,804
La Vanguardia	195,555	Triunfo	55,033
Ya	124,087		
Women's magazines		"Romantic" magazines	
Ama	107,494	Diez Minutos	380,618
Bellezza y Moda	42,017	Fotogramas	51,097
Casa y Jardín	17,886	Garbo	103,920
Cocina y Hogar	37,655	Hola !	400,540
Dunia	51,313	Lecturas	489,479
Hogar y Moda	39,047	Pronto	39,740
El Mueble	42,256	Semana	363,103
Nuevo Estilo	70,651		
Ser Padres	113,330		

Source: OJD (Oficina de Justificación de la Difusión), in "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women..", op. cit., p. 485.

THE FILM INDUSTRY

The crisis in the film industry has made it more difficult for actors and actresses to achieve equality, and men are still given the major roles.

Spain has no woman film producer and only three women film directors (who have made a total of seven films since 1973 (73)).

The cinema is a favourite form of entertainment among younger women, especially unmarried girls, but not so popular in the older age groups.

Cinema-going among women (%)

Age	4 or more times a month	rarely or never
14 to 19	29.4	20.5
20 to 24	36.7	16.6
25 to 44	13.2	50.6
45 to 64	5.2	73.4
65 +	1.8	91.6

Source: Oficina de Justificación de la Difusión, quoted in "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 486.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

Radio and television audiences are far larger than press readership: half of Spanish women listen to the radio every day and about 8 out of 10 watch some programme at least every day.

Women radio audiences (%)

Age	listen every day	rarely or never listen
14 to 19	50.1	33.9
20 to 24	50.5	32.5
25 to 44	54.2	30.5
45 to 64	49.6	35.0
65 +	40.3	47.0

Source: Oficina de Justificación de la Difusión, quoted in "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 486.

Television viewing among women (%)

Age	every day	rarely or never watch
14 to 19	82.4	10.3
20 to 24	78.2	13.1
25 to 44	83.9	8.3
45 to 64	80.7	12.0
65 +	65.0	26.7

Source: Oficina de Justificación de la Difusión, quoted in "U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women . . .", op. cit., p. 486.

Unfortunately, the same trends and criteria as in the press and cinema are found in radio and television, a matter of even more concern in that these two communications media are far more popular.

In 1978, the Sub-Directorate General for Women launched a scheme designed to explain to the public why the projected image of women is so stereotyped. Advertising space was bought for the purpose and, although the results were highly satisfactory, the venture could not go on because of lack of funds.

There is a current radio programme entitled "Mujeres" ("women") which tackles the themes traditionally of concern to women as well as less conventional topics ranging from beauty, divorce, health, women's employment to subjects in the fields of the arts, society, history, politics and medicine.

WOMEN AND THE LAW*

The gradual evolution in the legal status of women in Spain should be viewed in the light of Spanish political history. We shall first refer briefly to a few constitutional principles and then take a closer look at the practical legal issues that are of greatest concern to women.

NON-DISCRIMINATION ON GROUNDS OF SEX: A FUNDAMENTAL RIGHT

The Spanish Constitution of 1978 declares that all citizens are equal before the law and forbids all forms of discrimination, explicitly prohibiting any differences in the treatment of men and women. In other words, it gives full recognition to the principle that it is a fundamental right not to be discriminated against because of one's sex (article 14).

Any law or measure brought in by the State or the Autonomous Communities that is not in accordance with this principle may be declared unconstitutional.

Article 32 of the Constitution confirms that men and women have equal rights on entering into marriage; article 35 states that all Spaniards have the right and duty to work, to choose their occupation freely, to seek advancement through work and to earn enough to satisfy his or her needs as a worker and those of his or her family. In all these fields, the Constitution prohibits discrimination on the grounds of sex.

The constitutional principle of men's and women's equality under law has been embodied in laws affecting the whole legal system. Major reforms have already been introduced, especially regarding the rights of married women. Unfortunately there are still some legal measures that restrict the capacity and rights of women, but bills amending these anomalies are now before the Spanish Parliament, the "Cortés".

*

In research for this section, the author consulted Spanish legislation, the Spanish report to the U.N. World Conference for the Decade of Women, op. cit., pp. 505-519, and articles in various journals on Spanish women and legislation. We also interviewed the UCD (Unión de Centro Democrático) deputy, María Dolores Pelay Duque, a lawyer who had helped to formulate some of the laws relating to women's affairs, and Cristina Alberdi Alonso, the lawyer who runs the Feminist Legal Collective in Madrid. Legal advisers working at the Madrid women's information centre" were also consulted.

FAMILY LAW

Under the 1972 reform of the Civil Code, amendments were made to article 321 which stated that no girl under 25 might leave the parental home without her parents' consent except to marry or enter an institution approved by the Church, or unless her father or mother married again or there were other grounds "justifying" her separation from her parents.

In 1975, a major reform of civil law - which was highly discriminatory against women - was launched. Until the new law was enacted on 2 May 1975, in other words up to six years ago, Spanish legislation contained measures such as article 57 of the Civil Code stating that "the husband must protect his wife and his wife must obey him", article 58 which laid down that "the wife is under an obligation to follow her husband to the place of residence chosen by him", and article 60, which stated that "the husband is his wife's representative" and "his wife may not take legal proceedings without his consent". This principle, which remained in force until 1975, meant that a married woman was legally incapacitated and deemed equivalent to a minor.

Admittedly the 1975 reform did away with many forms of discrimination against women, but it made no significant change to the principle that the man is the head of the family. Under revised article 57 of the Civil Code, the husband and wife have the duty of mutual respect and protection and must act consistently in the interests of their family. The agreement of both husband and wife as to their place of residence is required and they are also on an equal footing as regards the legal implications of marriage. On the subject of the legal capacity of married women, the principle that the husband represents his wife has been abolished and, according to the revised text of article 62, marriage places no restriction on either spouse's capacity to take legal action.

Nevertheless, there were still certain situations in which women were clearly discriminated against. These are now covered by the law of 13 May 1981. The goals of the reform include the principle of joint responsibility on the part of the father and mother and a couple's joint administration of the assets of the marriage.

Marriage - Annulment and Separation - Divorce

There are different ways of entering into marriage from the legal viewpoint: by what is known in Spain as a "matrimonio canónico", i.e. a religious marriage in the form agreed between the Catholic Church and the Spanish State, or by a civil marriage.

A religious marriage*, which is also binding under civil law, may be annulled by an ecclesiastical court and either party could then re-marry. The annulment of a marriage is recognized under civil law. Until late 1979, a separation could also be decreed by the ecclesiastical court, but all separations now have to be decided by a civil court.

In the case of a civil marriage, before the introduction of the law on 7 July 1981 there could be no annulment but only a separation. For this reason, many couples opted for a religious marriage as there was the "escape route" of annulment and, until December 1979, separation as well.

Since July 1981 the situation has changed: the Cortes have passed a law that permits not only civil annulment but also divorce.

It normally takes one or two years to obtain a decree of divorce, depending on the circumstances, and during this period the husband and wife must no longer be living together (although the law provides for a few exceptions). If only one of the partners wishes to divorce, the minimum period of non-cohabitation is five years, although the period may be curtailed in serious cases - for instance if there has been an attempt to kill the marriage partner, children or parents.

It is the husband and wife who have to decide on such questions as who is to have custody of the children (see section on "Parental responsibility - custody of the children", page 74), who is to live in the matrimonial home, each partner's share of the family's expenses and living costs and any maintenance payments to which one of the partners may be entitled.

If the husband and wife are unable to agree, the court will reach a decision based on the following principles:

- divorce (like an annulment and separation) does not release the parents from their obligations towards their children;
 - the court must decide on the care and education of the children in their interests and must always listen to the views of children aged over 12;
-

* Marriages according to the rites of any other religion in a form agreed between the church in question and the Spanish State or, in the absence of an agreement, in the manner authorized by Spanish law, are fully effective in civil law.

- The parent who has not been given custody of the children is entitled to visit them and maintain the relationship with them, and the court may restrict or suspend this right only on very serious grounds;
- if the guilt of one of the partners to the marriage is ascertained, the court may apply additional sanctions of a financial nature (under the new law, an attempt was made to circumvent the concept of the "guilty party"; it speaks of the "party in bad faith", but in practice the effects are more or less the same);
- the children and the parent awarded custody are entitled to occupy the parental home;
- if there are no children the court may allow a spouse to occupy the home even though it is not owned by him or her if that spouse is found to be in greater need of "protection";
- when deciding on the maintenance that should be paid to the partner suffering greater loss of financial and social status following the collapse of the marriage (usually the wife), the court must take the following factors into account:
 - 1) any agreement reached by the husband and wife;
 - 2) their ages and state of health;
 - 3) occupational skills and the likelihood of obtaining employment;
 - 4) past and future dedication to the family;
 - 5) cooperation with the partner in his or her work;
 - 6) the duration of the marriage and cohabitation;
 - 7) any forfeiture of pension rights;
 - 8) the financial resources and needs of both partners.

The second, third and fourth considerations are of importance to wives who have stayed at home, as they are unlikely to have many skills to offer on a labour market already beset by so many difficulties.

The fifth consideration is important to those who come under the heading of "family labour" (see the section on "unpaid family labour", p. 29).

The right to maintenance is not extinguished on the death of the partner who is required to pay it, although in certain cases the heirs may apply for it to be ended or reduced. It is extinguished, however, if the reason for payment no longer exists, for example if the beneficiary co-habits or remarries.

It is of interest that the care of the children is considered to be a contribution towards defraying the expenses of a marriage.

Finally, if a husband or wife leaves the marital home on "reasonable" grounds and submits a petition for divorce, separation or annulment within a period of not more than 30 days, he or she will not be considered as having ceased to cohabit (see the discussion on the criminal offence of abandoning the marital home).

Parental responsibility - the custody of the children

The husband used to exercise greater authority over the children as he was usually considered as having prime parental responsibility. In a separation, it was customary to entrust the children to their mother and she would be responsible for looking after them and bringing them up, whereas the father retained responsibility for all matters other than routine care and management - something that gave rise to tension between the separated couple and had serious repercussions on the children.

The reform of the Civil Code of 13 May 1981 changed the situation: parental responsibility is now held by the parents jointly. In the event of a disagreement, the court has the power to decide. If disputes are so frequent or if there are other factors so serious as to hamper the exercise of parental responsibility, the court may give all or part of this responsibility to one of the parents or may allocate different duties to one or the other, a measure that remains in force for two years at most.

In the event of separation or divorce, parental responsibility will be exercised by the parent having custody of the children. If requested by the other parent, provided that there are good reasons for so doing, the court may give both parents joint parental responsibility or apportion the duties. Unless the parents agree otherwise, children under the age of seven are usually entrusted to their mother's care.

Affiliation

In the case of a child whose father and mother were not married to each other, the law used to make distinctions based on whether one or both of the parents was (or were) married. Up to 1978, when the Constitution recognized the right to claim paternity, the father could not acknowledge the child as his own if he was married (obviously, to another woman). Under the reform of the Civil Code of 13 May 1981, only if the parents are brother and sister or blood relatives in the direct line or the child's affiliation by one of the parents has already been determined will the court's authorization be needed for the affiliation to be recognized by the other parent.

Now that the reform has come into force, there are only two methods of affiliation: by nature and by adoption. Even though affiliation by nature may be by marriage (in other words if the father and mother later marry) or outside marriage, the law provides that the effects are the same. The basic idea underlying the law is that all the children of one parent are equal whether they are born inside or outside marriage. Before the reform there were many cases of children being treated in different ways depending on whether they were considered "legitimate", "illegitimate" or "natural".

Arrangements for the marital property

Since 1975, it has been possible for a couple to alter the arrangements for the ownership and management of the couple's assets even after the settlement has been reached at the time of marrying, as is the practice in Spain. The legal settlement, known as the "capitulación matrimonial", must be certified by a notary; the couple agrees whether they wish to own and jointly administer the assets they acquire after marriage, keep their individual property separate or pool everything they own. If the couple makes no choice, the law lays down that their assets are held jointly. (The exception to this rule is in the case of certain "Fueros", for example in Catalonia where assets are customarily held separately.*)

* The "Fuero" is a local or regional law which was retained after the Spanish State was formed in the Middle Ages. The "Fuero" takes different forms and is applied in different ways from region to region. In some cases, the arrangements for marriage settlements differed from the practice in the rest of Spain and women were sometimes more discriminated against than under national legislation. For some time now the agreement of both partners to a marriage has been needed before any negotiation with regard to the marital assets could be conducted, and women have been entitled to administer their own property. Certain surviving forms of discrimination, such as the requirement in Navarra for the husband's consent to a woman's disposal of her own assets, were abolished after the 1975 reform.

If the settlement was of the type under which property acquired after marriage was jointly owned, the husband alone was entitled to administer the estate. This discrimination was ended by the 1981 reform, which stated that the assets should be jointly managed.

Under the type of settlement in which property is held separately, each spouse retains the right of ownership and management of his or her assets acquired both before and after opting for this arrangement. It is worth noting that, under the system, domestic work is deemed to be a contribution towards defraying the marital expenses and confers a right to some remuneration if the settlement is wound up.

Under the "sharing" arrangement introduced by the recent reform, the husband's and wife's assets are separate but each one shares in the profits gained by the other party in proportion to their respective property. The law allows couples the choice of various procedures, but all the methods of sharing must be in proportion to their respective assets.

A decree of divorce automatically winds up the arrangement regarding the marital assets.

The married woman's name

In Spain it is customary but not compulsory for a married woman to add her husband's name to her own: in practice she is free to continue to use her maiden name or add her husband's. Only her maiden name is used in her personal papers.

Married women's citizenship

A woman who marries a foreigner is entitled to retain her own nationality, whatever her husband's, since Spanish law now states that marriage in itself does not alter a husband's and wife's nationality, nor does it prevent or enforce its acquisition, loss or recovery by either or both parties.

Labour law

This subject is discussed at length in the section entitled "Legislation on Women's Employment", p. 23.

Points of criminal law

In 1978, a series of changes to the Spanish Criminal Code was finalized. Before this, a woman could be made a ward of court if she was seen as in need of protection; the standards of conduct required of a man were more flexible than those allowed to women.

For example, a married woman who had sexual relations with a man other than her husband (who was, therefore, as much a party to the act as herself) was considered to have committed the "crime" of adultery. If a married man committed adultery, it was not seen as a crime and he would incur legal sanctions only if he kept a mistress ("manceba") under the roof of his marital home (!); to keep her outside the home was punishable only if it was done in such a way as to cause public scandal. Under the 1978 reform, neither the husband's nor the wife's adultery is considered an offence.

The age at which a girl ceases to be considered a minor in the event of rape or for the purpose of protection when she is at risk of prostitution or other offences has been reduced from 23 to 21 and, in certain cases, to 18.

The advertising, sale and use of contraceptives are no longer offences under the reform, although the sale of these products is still not completely free and there are laws and regulations on the subject.

Certain forms of discrimination still exist in criminal law: for instance, a woman is guilty of abandoning the marital home if she physically absents herself for a few days, whereas a man has to fail to support his family financially to be guilty of the same offence.

In 1980, the Government presented the Cortes with a proposed Criminal Code which reinforces the principle of the equality of men and women before the law and non-discrimination on the grounds of sex. It abolishes the aggravating circumstance of sexual disparagement, as well as the fact that a woman charged with abortion, infanticide or the abandonment of minors could plead as an extenuating circumstance that it was done "for the sake of honour".

Abortion is still considered a crime under the proposed Code, which makes it punishable on the grounds that it is an offence against human life. This is specifically directed against the woman, since the man - without whom no baby would have been conceived - is untouched by the criminal consequences of the act.

Useful addresses

Colectivo Jurídico Feminista
Conde de Xiquena 13, 13 3º
Madrid

tel. 410 0317

María Dolores Pelayo Duque
San Lucas 48
Madrid

tel. 28 5310

Centro de Información de la Mujer
Menéndez Pelayo 11, 2º izq.
Madrid

tel. 276 4645 - 276 9213

Asociación de Mujeres Juristas
Costanilla de los Angeles 15
Madrid 13, 2º dcha

WOMEN AND THE AUTHORITIES
- SUB-DIRECTORATE GENERAL
FOR WOMEN

The Government department set up in August 1977 with the title of the Sub-Directorate General for Women's Status comes under the Directorate General for Youth and Socio-cultural Advancement, which in turn is answerable to the Minister for Culture. The Sub-Directorate is concerned with the social, cultural and political integration of women, these functions being based on its position within the Government rather than on specific terms of reference. It may propose and implement measures designed to improve the social, cultural or political position of women, but it does not have the power to make policy decisions.

The Sub-Directorate has a staff of 29, 26 of whom are permanent civil servants and 3 expert advisers. Of these, 9% are engaged on staff duties, 29% do technical and administrative work and 62% provide clerical support. Its 1980 budget was 82,500,000 pesetas (roughly £500,000); its funds are controlled by the Directorate General.

The Sub-Directorate:

- 1) tries to project an accurate image of women today;
- 2) provides information of the position of women in Spain today;
- 3) helps women to gain a critical awareness of themselves and society so that, by bringing about the changes that are needed, they can achieve full participation and integration.

The ideals are being put into practice by action of the following kind:

- a) Action to arouse public awareness of the issues at stake
 - a campaign in the media on the "new image of women", designed to influence traditional attitudes and make society aware of women's new status;
 - a radio programme to encourage women to play a more active role in society by providing useful information;
 - the publication of reports and information booklets on subjects of concern to women.

b) Personalized information

- **The women's information centre** does invaluable work in making up for the lack of information of specific and general concern to women and making it easier for them to play a more influential part in society. Women may obtain from the centre, free of charge, the information they need to solve problems as simply and directly as possible - for example, where they should go for help in a given situation, the name of the agency or individual they should consult and the steps they need to take.

The centre provides information, not advice. In other words, it does not solve problems but points the way to new opportunities and greater social involvement. The information it provides comes under eight headings: legal; work; education and youth counselling; training and adult education; social legislation; associations; useful addresses; leisure activities and holidays. The work done by the centre is highly specialized and expert staff are used.

In addition to the centre in Madrid, there are units in a few other cities.

- A **monthly newsletter** is published, entitled "Mujer Hoy" (woman today).

c) Research

- **Documentation centre**, where books and journals on and by women can be consulted.
- **Annual award** for research on women's affairs, known as the "María Espinosa national prize".

d) Social and cultural advancement

- **Adult education** in rural areas where greater support is needed for the agencies responsible for organizing adult education.
- The organization of **lectures and seminars** to promote women's social and cultural involvement, especially among homebound women. Contracts have been signed with associations to achieve this end.
- **Financial and technical assistance** for women's associations.
- **Competitions** to promote exhibitions of the work of women artists which would not otherwise be available to the public.
- **Family guidance centres:** the Sub-Directorate has taken an active part in drawing up regulations on such centres and has published booklets on the subject.

Looking back over the progress achieved by the Sub-Directorate, a few comments may be made:

- its work has been confined to socio-cultural matters which are difficult to assess in facts and figures, although this does not detract from its importance. The work, however, suffers from the fact that there is no decision-making machinery for those trying to improve women's status.
- this restriction on its powers prevents the Sub-Directorate from taking immediate action on certain matters closely linked with the problem of equality between the sexes, such as education, employment, legislation and health.

The Sub-Directorate may not participate in the planning of these matters, even on a consultative basis, as they come within the sphere of other departments. Even so, it is always ready to put forward the views of groups and organizations to these other departments.

Useful addresses Subdirección de la Mujer
Dirección General de Desarrollo Comunitario
Ministerio de Cultura
Paseo de la Castellano
(antigua Avenida del Generalísimo 39)
Madrid tel. 455 5419
Sub-Director: Mabel Pérez Serrano

Centro de Información de la Mujer
Menéndez Pelayo 11, 2º izq.
Madrid tel. 276 4645 - 276 9213

Centro de Documentación
Menéndez Pelayo 11, 2º izq.
Madrid tel. 276 4645 - 276 9213

Other useful addresses

Asociación Democrática de Mujeres Independientes
Costanilla de Los Angeles 15
Madrid 13

Contact: Asunción Ruiz Ramos

Asociación de Mujeres Independientes
c/ Amparo 6
Guadalajara

Asociación de Mujeres Universitarias
Miguel Angel 8
Madrid 10

Contact: Maria Brana

Asociación de Mujeres Empresarios de Madrid
c/ Maestro Alonso 6
Madrid 28

Contact: Blanca de la Cierva

Confederación Nacional de Mujeres Empresarios
Gran Vía 55
Madrid 13

Contact: Pilar Diaz Playa Conte

Centro de Cultura Popular y Promoción Femenina
Silva 20
Madrid 13

Contact: Carmen Rodríguez Villegas

Colectivo Feminista
Recoletos 12
Madrid 1

Coordinadora Feminista de Barcelona
c/ Caspe 78, 3º 2a
Barcelona

Partido Feminista de Cataluña
Roger de Flor 90, 2º 2
Barcelona

Seminario de Estudios de la Mujer
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

Director: María Angeles Durán

Seminario de Estudios Sociológicos
Gaztambide 11
Madrid 15

Contact: María Campo Lage

SUPPLEMENTS TO "WOMEN OF EUROPE"

- Nº. 1 - ceased publication, replaced by nº 6
- Nº. 2 - ceased publication, replaced by nº 7
- Nº. 3 -- "Women and Men of Europe in 1978"
- Nº. 4 - "Women in the European Parliament"
- Nº. 5 - "European Women in Paid Employment"
- Nº. 6 - "Women and the European Social Fund"
- Nº. 7 - "Women at Work in the European Community
50 questions - 50 answers"
- Nº. 8 - "Women in Spain"