

## THE SOCIAL GUARANTEE SCHEMES IN THE VALENCIAN REGION (SPAIN): AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS (\*)

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### Abstract

The research context of this project is a particular training course aimed at young people with no degree training for a profession at a level 1 qualification: the Social Guarantee Schemes (SGS) in the Valencian region (Spain). A questionnaire was designed to collect information on the professional specialty for which the scheme qualifies; the sociodemographic, educational and professional profile of educators and trainers; and the kind of organization managing the scheme, as well as its human resource management strategies. The sample of our research is representative of the number and types of SGS in the region. Our data reveal that a crucial feature of those schemes is a high degree of heterogeneity and internal differentiation regarding (a) the kind of organization managing the scheme, (b) the educational and professional careers of teachers and trainers, and (c) the types of contracts, wages and general working conditions. From these data, the Social Guarantee Schemes can be characterized as an educational resource with highly precarious working conditions and wide organizational autonomy in the management of educational projects.

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## **1. INTRODUCTION.**

Both in the Spanish State as well as in the Valencian Community, since the middle 1980s, different governments have developed a wide and heterogeneous range of tools and policies with the aim to face a core problem for educational systems and for society as a whole: to combat social exclusion produced for the lack of basic education.

As a result of these efforts, many training tools have developed which, with some significative differences, attempted to provide young people with the necessary skills in order to find a workplace, in the understanding that this is the gate to social integration. Among these we may point to Escuelas Taller, Casas de Oficio, Talleres Prelaborales de Inserción Social (TAPIS), Talleres de Inserción Sociolaboral (TIS), or Talleres de Formación e Inserción Laboral (TFIL).

From all these tools we want to focus on Social Guarantee Schemes because they have a differential feature which deserves special attention. This is the fact that they are conceived under the Organic Law regulating the educational system –LOGSE-. The rest of the training provision mentioned above are raised either under social policies or employment policies, yet SGS are under a general law that regulates formal education.

SGS are devised as a way to continue offering training within the educational system to those youth who, after unsuccessful access to several measures of curricular adaptation, abandon compulsory education without any formal certification, the so called ‘Graduado en Educación Secundaria Obligatoria’.

Since the birth of SGS in the Spanish educational scene, one may realize that legislation regulating them has been varied and has developed at different times in the different regions. The content of such legislation is defined by the aims and philosophy that every region has, and it has allowed for different organizational shapes, financial and curricular aspects, all of them under SGS. In the Valencian Community, the main legislation of SGS is a joint regulation signed by both the administrations of education and employment and social affairs, which seems pretty coherent with the objectives these programmes intend to achieve, as shown below.

Our aim with this paper is to emphasize how regulatory elements of SGS in the Valencian Community may be conditioned by the sociodemographic conditions and the labour conditions of the trainers that take part in them. This is something often forgotten when studying and evaluating these training tools. Therefore, we will focus first in the description of the normative framework of SGS, in order to understand what they are aimed for and how they are organized. On the other side, we will pay attention to some of the most significant indicators describing demographic and labour features of their trainers.

## **2. NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK OF SGS IN THE VALENCIAN COMMUNITY.**

We will now describe the most relevant elements of the normative framework of SGS in the Valencian Community. We have to refer to two framework legislation documents which have served to finance and arrange SGS since 1994. The first of them, the Order of March 22 1994 (DOGV 2269, 18-5-1994); the second, the Order of February 24 2000 (DOGV 3708, 14-3-2000).

The objectives or main aims of SGS are three:

- a) To broaden students education, in order to achieve skills appropriate for basic education that enable them for an active entry into adult life and, furthermore, to enable them to continue studies, particularly in level 2 vocational education.
- b) To prepare them to take part in professional work, vocations and jobs corresponding to their abilities and personal expectations.
- c) To develop and consolidate their personal maturity, through the acquisition of habits, skills and capacities that enable them to take part, as responsible citizens and workers, in the world of work and in cultural and social life.

Their addressees are, in first place (1994 Ordere), young people between 16 and 22. From 2000 on, this range expanded to 25 years. They may be students in their last year in compulsory education which are at risk of abandoning either have taken part in a programme of curricular diversification. Last, they may also be young people out of school who don't have the

former Graduate in Compulsory Education (at the age of 14) or who, having achieved this accreditation, have not successfully achieved training in the former vocational education level 1.

Training in SGS is organized around two types of content: on one side, basic education in language, mathematics and social studies; on the other, specialized training addressed to develop professional skills in order to facilitate the search of a job.

The team in charge of training, tutorial and assessment of young people is formed initially by: an expert in the appropriate occupational area in charge of specific vocational training, and a primary school teacher in charge of basic education. From 2000 onwards, more professionals may be part of the team: secondary school teachers as well as people with different university degrees.

With regard to the modalities of SGS, we may distinguish three basic types:

- *Training and employment*: Addressed to those students who are willing a quick entry into the labour market. It implies that specific vocational training includes the realization of productive work in the occupation, based upon a legal contract.
- *Approach to the profession*: Preferably addressed to students who, despite willing a quick entry into the market, may also apply for further vocational training. These happen basically in secondary schools. Not only employment or self-employment is fostered, but rather entering back the school system.
- *Special education needs students*: Addressed to students with special needs, due to their school trajectories, to personal conditions or to those who having studied basic education, even in special education schools, have enough personal and social autonomy which, together with the training received in the SGS, will facilitate their entry into working life. It is the preferred type in specific special education schools as well as in non-profit organizations highly specialized in the service to these people.

SGS may be managed by four different kind of institutions: local administrations or municipalities, non-profit organisations, public secondary schools and private secondary schools with public funds. In order to run one or more SGS, those institutions must apply to the regional administration of education every year. The legislation approved in 2000 establishes preferent links between modalities and types of institutions as follows:

- Training and employment schemes may be promoted by any level of the State Public Administration, public entities, municipalities, autonomous consortia, trusts and other non-profit organizations.
- Approach to employment schemes may be promoted preferably by public or private secondary schools, as well as by those vocational training centres belonging to the administration of employment. Both public and private non-profit organizations may run them.
- Special education needs schemes may be promoted preferably by specific special education schools as well as by public or non-profit private institutions devoted to the care of handicapped youth.

Each programme runs with a maximum of fifteen students; this maximum is reduced to ten students if the scheme is for special education students.

With regard to the length of SGS, it was initially variable, according to the moment and level of access and to the expectations of students. It varied from 720 to 1800 hours. From year 2000 on, they have a length of nine months –900 hours-, from September to June next year, as if they were a school term. There may be an extension for a second year –1800 hours- in those schemes with special education students, provided they are adequately allowed by the administration.

### **3. PROCEDURE**

#### **3.1. OBJECTIVES**

Once we have described the legislative framework of SGS in the Valencian Community, we intend to draw down the features of trainers who work in them. In order to do

so, we will focus on the following elements which, in our view, allow us to describe the situation of trainers as workers. We will emphasize the following aspects:

- a) Type of organization they work for.
- b) Professional profile they train for.
- c) Sociodemographic featuring of trainers.
- d) Educational background and qualifications.
- e) Working conditions.

### **3.2. SAMPLE**

We submitted the questionnaire to all trainers in SGS during school term 2000-2001 in the Valencian Community. 179 trainers answered it, working for 109 schemes run by 64 different institutions. That term there were 204 schemes run by 157 different institutions, therefore our sample gathers information from 53.4% of the SGS in the Community during that term and of 40.8% of the institutions. We don't know the exact numbers of trainers working that year, but we may assume for the legislation –which establishes two trainers per scheme, one for basic education and one for the occupation itself- that there were approximately 408 trainers. Hence, our sample comprises 43.9% of all trainers.

### **3.3. RESEARCH TOOL**

Taking into account legislation factors, our research intends to outline the features and situation of trainers in SGS run in year 2000-2001 in the Valencian Community. We developed a tool addressed to trainers in SGS inquiring about the following variables among others: sociodemographic features of the trainers (sex, age, educational background and qualification level, ...), role performed in the institution (school teacher, vocational trainer and/or manager of the SGS), type of institution (non-profit, municipality, public or private secondary school), professional qualification they train for (construction, administration, services, hotelery, ...) and working conditions (recruitment and access to work, wages, types of contract, ...).

## **4. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

In relation to the type of running *institution*, our data show that half of the trainers work in SGS promoted by municipalities (50%). 20,2% work for non-profit organizations, followed by 16.1% working for private secondary schools and 11.9% working for public secondary schools.

With regard to professional profiles, table 1 shows us that the largest group in our sample is that of trainers training for Hotelery (14.5%) or Gardening (14.5%), followed by Administration-Sales (10%) and Construction (8.2%).

### Professional profile of SGS

	Frequency	Valid percentage
Hairdressing	8	7,3
Administration-sales	11	10,0
Care	5	4,5
Industrial worker	3	2,7
Machinery assembling and welding	3	2,7
Mechanic	7	6,4
Electrician	4	3,6
Print	6	5,5
Carpentry	7	6,4
Shoe manufacturing	2	1,8
Craft	5	4,5
Hostelry	16	14,5
Gardening	16	14,5
Construction	9	8,2
Cleaning and maintenance	3	2,7
Cloth manufacturing	5	4,5
Total	110	100,0
Missing	69	
<b>Total</b>	<b>179</b>	

Table 1. *Professional profiles of SGS*

If we force the data a step further, we may consider that some of these profiles belong to more classic industrial profile, while others may be included in the service sector. Therefore, we regrouped the profiles of industrial worker, construction and machinery assembly, mechanic, electrician, printer, carpentry, shoe and clothe manufacturing in a wide category of industrial sector, in which we also included construction. Profiles like hairdressing, administration and sales, care, hotelry, gardening and cleaning and maintainance were adscribed to a wider category under the header service sector. The profile of crafts which does not properly fit in any of both was codified separately. According to this recodification, 41.8% of trainers work in a SGS of an industrial profile and 53.6% in a service profile, with a remaining 4.5% for crafts.

The variable *sex* of the trainer is distributed in a rather balanced way, were the percentage of men trainers (43,6%) is similar to that of women (56,4%). With regard to the variable *type of trainer*, we find 48.6% ‘basic education’ teachers, 42.8% ‘vocational trainers’, and a remaining 8.7% of ‘other professionals’ who now and then perform training or support tasks. There is a total of 179 people in the sample.

Differences by sex according to the role performed in the scheme are shown in table 2, and they prove to be rather stressed (Chi-square=15.387; df=2; p=0.001).

**Educational role x sex**

			Sex		Total
			Male	Female	
Educational role	Schoolteacher	Observed frequencies	25	59	84
		Expected frequencies	37,4	46,6	84,0
	Vocational trainer	Observed frequencies	45	29	74
		Expected frequencies	32,9	41,1	74,0
	Others	Observed frequencies	7	8	15
		Expected frequencies	6,7	8,3	15,0
Total	Observed frequencies	77	96	173	
	Expected frequencies	77,0	96,0	173,0	

Table 2. *Contingency table type of trainer by sex*

In the data we may see that differences show up between the role of school teacher and that of vocational trainer, and not in those who provide support or specific tasks. 70% of school teachers are women, while on the contrary, there is a larger proportion of vocational trainers among men than women.

Yet, there are no significative differences in the sex of trainers with regard to the economic sector to which the professional profile belongs (Chi-square=2.268; df=2; p=0.322), despite there is a larger proportion of men in the industrial sector than in the service or artistic one. The asymmetric distribution of sex with regard to training roles is partly responsible for this: despite 62% of vocational trainers in the industrial sector are men, the most common is that their colleague in basic education is a woman (65.5%). To express it in a graphic way, the most common combination in a SGS with an industrial profile is a basic education woman teacher and a vocational man trainer; in a SGS oriented to service occupations, what happens most frequently is to have a woman as the school teacher and either a man or a woman as the vocational trainer.

The *age* of trainers ranges from 22 to 63, with a mean of 36.41 and a typical deviation of 9.32. More than half of the trainers group between 22 and 35 years old. It follows the interval from 36 to 50 years, amounting almost 40% of the trainers. The least representative age interval is that of 52 to 63 years, amounting only 8,3% of the trainers.

The age of trainers does not vary significantly according to their training role within the SGS ( $F_{2,170}=0.275$ ;  $p=0.760$ ). On the contrary, it differs according to the economic sector to which the scheme is professionally oriented: trainers in industrial profiles have a mean age of 40.02 years, while the mean among those in the service sector is 33.36 years ( $F_{1,102}=15.953$ ;  $p=0.001$ ).

Table 3 shows the frequencies and percentages of diverse *type of studies* that trainers in the sample have. The largest group is that of university graduates, followed by trainers with a masters degree and those with formal vocational qualifications.

### Academic qualifications

	Frequency	Valid percentage
Primary education	3	1,7
Certificate of compulsory education	10	5,6
Baccalaurate	3	1,7
VET	42	23,5
University graduate	68	38,0
Master	53	29,6
Total	179	100,0

Table 3. *Educational level of the trainers*

We may see that 67.6% of the trainers have university studies (graduates and masters). A fourth of the trainers have an intermediate level of studies and there is still a percentage which, despite small (7.3%), shows trainers who have no vocational qualification.

As we might expect and may be checked in table 4, there is a strong relation between the educational background of the trainer and the role played within the SGS. The Chi-square linked to that contingency table has a value of 78.455 (df=10; p=0.001). In the table we may see that –except in a non-typical case-, there is no school teacher with less qualification than a university degree, and somewhat more than 40% of them have master degrees. Vocational trainers, on the contrary, have far more heterogeneous studies, varying from the lack of qualification to a university master. Almost half of them, nonetheless, have a vocational qualification. This majority group is followed at a distance by university graduates. Finally, the smallest group of those who perform support and specific tasks –included under the category of ‘other’- are almost equally distributed among vocational education technicians, graduates and masters.

### Academic qualifications x Educational role

			Educational role			
			Schoolteacher	Vocational trainer	Others	Total
Academic qualifications	Primary education	Observed frequencies	0	3	0	3
		Expected frequencies	1,5	1,3	,3	3,0
	Certificate of compulsory education	Observed frequencies	0	9	0	9
		Expected frequencies	4,4	3,8	,8	9,0
	Baccalaurate	Observed frequencies	1	2	0	3
		Expected frequencies	1,5	1,3	,3	3,0
	VET	Observed frequencies	0	34	6	40
		Expected frequencies	19,4	17,1	3,5	40,0
	University graduate	Observed frequencies	48	14	5	67
		Expected frequencies	32,5	28,7	5,8	67,0
	Master	Observed frequencies	35	12	4	51
		Expected frequencies	24,8	21,8	4,4	51,0
Total		Observed frequencies	84	74	15	173
		Expected frequencies	84,0	74,0	15,0	173,0

Table 4. *Contingency table studies of the trainer and role performed*

We asked the trainers *how they have entered their current job*, giving them a series of alternative possible answers. Given the scarce frequency of some categories, we have

regrouped the original items about the way of entering their current work. We included under a single category of *'co-workers'* those who had previously performed voluntary work or had enjoyed their work experience schemes in the institution; we re-grouped under the category of *'expert professionals'* those who had entered via their CV or who worked for another institution in similar roles; and we included access through agencies of temporary work under *'other ways'*. In table 5 we show the frequencies and percentages of such regrouping. We may find in it that the main way of recruitment is via the own staff of the institution (33,1%). There are three other ways of access who are also common: the National Employment Agency (INEM), a personal recommendation and the selection among specialized professionals.

<b>Way of access to the job</b>		
	Frequency	Valid percentage
National Employment Institute	29	16,3
Organization personnel	59	33,1
Organization collaborator	11	6,2
Acquaintance	31	17,4
Specialized professional	38	21,3
Others	10	5,6
Total	178	100,0
Missing	1	
<b>Total</b>	<b>179</b>	

Table 5. Recategorization of answers to *'How did you become a trainer in this SGS?'*

When paying attention to differences in the way one has entered the job, there are at least two variables which seem to be relevant: the role of trainer within the SGS and the type of institution for which one works.

Differences between school teachers and vocational trainers in the way of access to the job are detailed in table 6, which shows an associated Chi-square of 20.970 (df=5; p=0.001).

**Way of access to the job x Educational role**

		Educational role		
		Schoolteacher	Vocational trainer	Total
National Employment Institute (INEM)	Observed frequencies	12	17	29
	Expected frequencies	15,4	13,6	29,0
Organization personnel	Observed frequencies	35	15	50
	Expected frequencies	26,6	23,4	50,0
Organization collaborator	Observed frequencies	7	1	8
	Expected frequencies	4,3	3,7	8,0
Acquaintance	Observed frequencies	15	16	31
	Expected frequencies	16,5	14,5	31,0
Specialized professional	Observed frequencies	9	23	32
	Expected frequencies	17,0	15,0	32,0
Others	Observed frequencies	6	2	8
	Expected frequencies	4,3	3,7	8,0
Total	Observed frequencies	84	74	158
	Expected frequencies	84,0	74,0	158,0

*Table 6. Contingency table of the way of access to the job between school teachers and vocational trainers*

We may read in the table that there are no differences between both in the probability to enter their work through the recommendation of someone, but there are differences in all other ways of access. In general terms, the most important difference lies in that vocational trainers are recruited specifically for the concrete position, be it via the National Agency for Employment or through a search among professionals in the sector. The process is rather different with school teachers, often recycled among staff or coworkers of the institution.

There are also differences worth pointing at in the way of access to job with regard to the type of institution. A first important dimension is about the public or private nature of the institution, despite there are also significant differences among workers in diverse public and private institutions.

We may observe in table 7 the most important difference in the ways of recruitment via which trainers have had access to their jobs in public and private institutions (Chi-square=28.782; df=5; p=0.001): workers of public institutions have greater probability to have entered via the Nacional Agency for Employment or public job pools, while the probability among workers in private institutions is greater to have got the job with the support of someone else. There are no significant differences in all other ways of access. The relocation of staff and the formal processes of recruitment among professionals in the field explain a large percentage of trainers in both kind of institutions. As a consequence of these trends, the personal recommendation and the relocation of staff explain two thirds of the cases among private institutions, while formal procedures of recruitment and relocation of staff explain three fourths of cases in public institutions.

**Way of access to the job x Type of employing organization**

		Type of employing organization		
		Public	Private	Total
National Employment Institute (INEM)	Observed frequencies	25	2	27
	Expected frequencies	16,7	10,3	27,0
Organization personnel	Observed frequencies	33	23	56
	Expected frequencies	34,5	21,5	56,0
Organization collaborator	Observed frequencies	6	4	10
	Expected frequencies	6,2	3,8	10,0
Acquaintance	Observed frequencies	8	21	29
	Expected frequencies	17,9	11,1	29,0
Specialized professional	Observed frequencies	22	13	35
	Expected frequencies	21,6	13,4	35,0
Others	Observed frequencies	9	1	10
	Expected frequencies	6,2	3,8	10,0
Total	Observed frequencies	103	64	167
	Expected frequencies	103,0	64,0	167,0

*Table 7. Contingency table on access procedures to the job and the public or private nature of the institution*

Nevertheless, public-private differentiation is not the only important variable to explain access to work of trainers in different institutions. In table 8 we show the contingent relation between the way of access and the four categories of promoter institutions. Chi-square associated to this relation of contingency is 53.864 (df=15; p=0.001).

**Way of access to the job x Type of employing organization**

		Type of employing organization				
		Local government	Non-profit organization	Public secondary school	Private secondary school	Total
National Employment Institute (INEM)	Observed frequencies	22	2	3	0	27
	Expected frequencies	13,6	6,0	3,1	4,4	27,0
Organization personnel	Observed frequencies	20	12	13	11	56
	Expected frequencies	28,2	12,4	6,4	9,1	56,0
Organization collaborator	Observed frequencies	6	2	0	2	10
	Expected frequencies	5,0	2,2	1,1	1,6	10,0
Acquaintance	Observed frequencies	7	9	1	12	29
	Expected frequencies	14,6	6,4	3,3	4,7	29,0
Specialized professional	Observed frequencies	22	11	0	2	35
	Expected frequencies	17,6	7,8	4,0	5,7	35,0
Others	Observed frequencies	7	1	2	0	10
	Expected frequencies	5,0	2,2	1,1	1,6	10,0
Total	Observed frequencies	84	37	19	27	167
	Expected frequencies	84,0	37,0	19,0	27,0	167,0

*Table 8. Contingency table relating way of access to job to type of institution*

We may read in that table that there is an important access way for all types of institutions, which is the relocation of staff who was performing other tasks. In fact, in public secondary schools (IES) it is the most important form of access to this sort of work and it explains more than two thirds of the cases in public schools.

Despite its general importance as a way of access, municipalities are the kind of institution in which the relocation of staff happens seldom. More than half of the trainers working in them (52.4%) have entered their job through a formal specific recruitment process for the job; either the National Agency for Employment or by assessment of their CVs.

Differently, private secondary schools use relocation of staff very often (40.7%), despite not so often as public secondary schools. Together with this procedure, the other large way of access is that of personal recommendation (44.4%).

Lastly, access to this kind of work in a non-profit organization (ESAL) is almost equally divided by three among relocation of staff, *ad hoc* recruitment among experts and professionals and *ad hoc* recruitment based upon personal recommendation.

If we pay attention now to the *type of tie* that trainers hold with the promoting institution, we must highlight the precarity of labour contracts. In table 9 we may find that more than half (65%) of the trainers has a temporary contract, while only 8.5% has an unlimited contract and 17.5% are civil servants.

<b>Type of contractual relationship with employing organization</b>		
	Frequency	Valid percentage
Member-associate	4	2,3
Civil servant	31	17,5
Long-term contract	15	8,5
Short-term contract	115	65,0
Unspecified contract	8	4,5
Temporary acting official	2	1,1
Self-employed	1	,6
Others	1	,6
Total	177	100,0
Missing	2	
Total	179	

Tabla 9. *Type of contractual relationship with employing institution*

We regrouped diverse contractual positions as shown in table 9 according to the stability of the contractual link with the institution. Under the category ‘stable link’ we included civil servants, workers with unlimited contract and members or partners of the institutions. Under the category ‘temporary link’ we included those with temporary contracts as well as temporary acting officials. Under the category ‘other’ we included those who either did not specify enough their contractual relation or those holding atypical working positions. Frequences and percentages of these three categories are shown in table 10.

**Type of contract**

	Frequency	Valid percentage
Long-term contract	50	28,2
Short-term contract	117	66,1
Other types of contract	10	5,6
Total	177	100,0
Missing	2	
<b>Total</b>	<b>179</b>	

Table 10. *Stability of contractual link of the trainer with the institution*

Our data show a strong relation between the degree of contractual stability and the age, of a significant and linear type (Chi-square=22.758; df=4; p=0.001). It is mainly younger workers who have temporary contracts, among which only a 15.7% has a stable contractual link with the institution. Among trainers between 36 and 50 there is still a larger proportion of temporary workers (56.5%) than with long term contracts (36.2%), but precarity is much less. Last, among those older than 51 proportions reverse, given that more than two thirds of them have a stable contractual relation.

With regard to *wage*, almost 80% of trainers has a neat monthly wage below 1200 euros, and almost 40% range from 600 to 900 euros.

Despite women tend to be overrepresented in the inferior wage levels and men among the higher ones, wage differences according to sex are not significant (Chi-square=5.181; df=4; p=0.269).

Nevertheless, there are significant differences relating wage to ages, as shown in table 11 (Chi-square=39.543; df=8; p=0.001). Younger trainers are overrepresented in the lower wage levels, and the oldest among higher wage levels. Furthermore, among those younger than 35 and those older than it there is an important wage difference.

**Wage (in euros/month) x Age groups**

		Age groups			
		22- 35 years old	36 - 50 years old	More than 51 years old	Total
Less than 600	Observed frequencies	20	11	1	32
	Expected frequencies	16,4	12,5	3,1	32,0
From 600 to 900	Observed frequencies	43	18	4	65
	Expected frequencies	33,3	25,5	6,3	65,0
From 900 to 1200	Observed frequencies	18	17	1	36
	Expected frequencies	18,4	14,1	3,5	36,0
From 1200 to 1500	Observed frequencies	3	14	6	23
	Expected frequencies	11,8	9,0	2,2	23,0
More than 1500	Observed frequencies	1	5	4	10
	Expected frequencies	5,1	3,9	1,0	10,0
Total	Observed frequencies	85	65	16	166
	Expected frequencies	85,0	65,0	16,0	166,0

Table 11. *Contingency table wage level by age*

Wage differences are also significant between school teachers and vocational trainers, as shown in table 12 (Chi-square=10.075; df=4; p=0.039). The former tend to earn more than the latter.

**Wage (in euros/month) x Educational role**

		Educational role		
		Schoolteacher	Vocational trainer	Total
Less than 600	Observed frequencies	10	16	26
	Expected frequencies	13,5	12,5	26,0
From 600 to 900	Observed frequencies	34	28	62
	Expected frequencies	32,2	29,8	62,0
From 900 to 1200	Observed frequencies	14	17	31
	Expected frequencies	16,1	14,9	31,0
From 1200 to 1500	Observed frequencies	12	11	23
	Expected frequencies	12,0	11,0	23,0
More than 1500	Observed frequencies	8	0	8
	Expected frequencies	4,2	3,8	8,0
Total	Observed frequencies	78	72	150
	Expected frequencies	78,0	72,0	150,0

*Tabla 12. Contingency table of wage levels by school teachers and vocational trainers*

Furthermore, wage differences between workers with stable contractual relations and those on temporary basis are also very high (Chi-square=69.135; df=4; p=0.001), in favour of those with stable contracts.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have tried to describe the variables which define SGS in the Valencian Community. We have found differences between some of those variables which are worth commenting, therefore we will outline the following results:

a. Among promoting institutions, there is a larger amount of municipalities, followed by non-profit organizations and public secondary schools, with private secondary schools at the end. With regard to the type of professional profile for which SGS train, we observe a wide variety of occupations, outstanding agriculture and gardening, hotelry, administration and construction. These results clearly show the wide diversity and heterogeneity both in relation to training provided as well as to the kind of institutions which run them.

b. Differences by sex according to the training role performed in the scheme are pretty stressed. Three quarters of schoolteachers are women while, on the contrary, the proportion of men who are vocational trainers is higher than that of women.

c. With regard to age, most trainers range between 22 and 35. We therefore observe in the sample a large presence of young people with short working life. Even so, the age variable differs according to the economic sector corresponding to the professional profile of the scheme: trainers of industrial profile have a mean age of 40.02, while the mean age of those in service areas is 33.36 years.

d. With regard to the educational background of trainers in the sample, the larger group is that of university graduates, followed by those holding a masters and those with a vocational education accreditation. A majority of schoolteachers are university graduates or masters, while vocational trainers have by large vocational education qualifications. A fourth of

trainers holds secondary studies, while there is still a small percentage (7.3%) of trainers who have not achieved post-compulsory education.

No schoolteacher has an accreditation lower than graduate, and something more than 40% of them are masters. Vocational trainers, differentially, have much more heterogeneous studies, ranging from the lack of accreditation to university masters. We therefore conclude that there exists a certain overqualification of trainers with regard to the job they perform, mainly in the case of schoolteachers.

e. Access to employment happens most often after selection among those already being staff of the institution, followed by those recommended by acquaintances. In the case of vocational trainers, this relation is reversed. At the same time, the most important difference in the ways of access to the job for those in public and private institutions is the higher probability of having entered via the National Agency for Employment or public job pools for those in public institutions, while this probability is higher by acquaintances in private institutions.

In the case of trainers working for municipalities, more than half of them have entered their job via a formal specific recruitment process, either via the INEM or through the assessment of their CVs. Private schools use more frequently relocation of teachers, though in a lesser extent than public secondary schools do. Together with this, the other large way of access is through acquaintances.

Summarising, despite ways of access differ clearly between public and private institutions, relocation is widely used among all of them, with exceptions. This seems to show that these schemes are partly used by institutions in order to solve their problems with excess staff or their lack of structural positions.

f. When taking into account the type of link that trainers have with the promoting institution, we must highlight the precarity of labour contracts. More than half of the trainers holds a temporary contract, while only 8.5% holds an unlimited contract and 17.5% are civil servants. If we differentiate the contractual link between 'stable' and 'temporal', we find out that there are only 28.2% under the first category, while the rest of the sample amounts 66.1%.

g. Together with this, the wage of most of the trainers is below 1200 euros a month per a full working day. There are also wage differences by age of trainers: younger trainers are overrepresented among the lower wage levels, while older workers tend to be among the highest wage levels. Furthermore, the difference between those younger than 35 and older than this is very important.

Summarising, the data presented here show some of the most relevant features of trainers in SGS in the Valencian Community in year 2000-2001, among which we must highlight the wide heterogeneity and diversity at different levels: in relation to the promoting institutions, to the training provided, the educational background of the workers and their working conditions.

We find ourselves before a training offer with high levels of autonomy in the management of educational projects. But, at the same time, it entails high levels of precarity, featured by: low wages, labour instability and temporary contracts.

The work we present here has a clear social relevance by studying an educational offer which is attempted to satisfy the educational needs of those youth most at risk, under the framework of the formal educational system. Youth who urgently need effective attention from the public administrations. At the same time, this has practical relevance for our research project, as it shows key elements for analysis to take into account when facing and deepening the study of SGS as a socially constructed tool and as a work environment.