# THE EFFECTS OF REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL POLICIES ON SCHOOL FAILURE IN SPAIN* 

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#### Abstract

This paper presents a regional analysis of the effects of educational policies implemented in Spain between 1992 and 2003, focusing specifically on school failure rates. We consider the impact of expenditure per pupil, class size, and pupil-teacher ratio on dropout rates at the end of compulsory education and on the proportion of early school-leavers in the 18-24 year age group. Our results indicate that higher levels of educational expenditure per pupil and lower class sizes and pupil-teacher ratios reduce rates of dropout and early school-leaving (although class-size is not always significant). However, the magnitude of the effects of these variables is small at the average level.


Key words: school failure, school dropout, regional educational policy.
JEL Classification: I22, I28, R50.

Anumber of recent comparative studies of European Union and OECD countries have highlighted serious problems in the Spanish educational system, especially with regard to students' performance. These studies have found that Spain has higher levels of school dropout and early school-leavers and lower levels of skills and results in secondary education tests [OECD $(2004,2006,2007)$ and MEC $(2006 a)]$.

[^0]In order to improve students' performance, Spanish governments have implemented a large amount of legislation on education in the past twenty years (in our view, an excessive amount, with six fundamental laws since 1985). These reforms, introduced by the central government, extended the period of compulsory education from 14 to 16 years old and reorganized the educational system in a bid to raise the standards. In general, however, the effects on students' performance have not met expectations. In addition, these reforms have been accompanied by an intensive process of decentralization, to the extent that, by 2003, Spain's 17 regional governments (or Autonomous Communities, ACs) administered more than $90 \%$ of the educational budget (MEC, 2006b).

Performance problems are not distributed equally among the ACs (MEC, 2006a). Though, to a large extent, the differences may be attributed to the characteristics of each AC (for example, its level of economic development, the nature of its labour market, rural/urban population distribution, etc.), the educational policies pursued by regional governments may also have had an effect on the regional differences in educational results. The main goal of the present study is to examine the effects of policy on educational performance at a regional level. Specifically, we consider the effects of three policy instruments -expenditure per pupil, class size and pupil-teacher ratio- on two educational outcomes related to academic failure: regional dropout rates at the end of compulsory education (at age 16), and the regional share of early school-leavers in the 18-24 age group.

The empirical evidence on the effectiveness of educational policies on student performance (including the three instruments considered in this paper) is not conclusive [see Heyneman and Loxley (1983), Betts (1995), Akerhielm (1995), Woessman (2001) and Hanushek (2003)]. The published results are inconsistent. For example, while Bradley, Johnes and Millington (2001) report that the higher the pupil-teacher ratio, the poorer the results among English secondary students (period 1993-1998), in the TIMSS analysis (the Third International Mathematics and Science Study, 2003, which presented results for 39 countries), Woessman found that a higher level of expenditure per pupil, lower class sizes and lower pupil-teacher ratios had a negative incidence on students' results. There are two reasons for this conflicting evidence: first, the results are highly sensitive to the variables considered and to the econometric method implemented; second, policy effectiveness depends heavily on local characteristics (for example, legislation, specific government policy, etc.).

At this point, we should stress that our study was carried out during a period of disruption in the Spanish education system. In 2006 and 2007, the whole educational system was reformed with the adoption of two new laws: one related to non-university education, the 2006 Education Act (Ley Orgánica de Educación), and the other related to universities, the Universities Act of 2007 (Ley Orgánica de Universidades), modifying the earlier version passed in 2001. As noted above, the international indicators published at this time also reflected Spain's poor educational standing among European Union and OECD countries and highlighted the significant differences between Spanish regions. The present study is the first to examine these data at the regional level in an attempt to analyze the effects of
our three educational policy instruments on school failure rates. Furthermore, the paper generates a new variable for determining regional expenditure per pupil.

In conducting the empirical analysis, a misspecification bias appears if regional characteristics related either to educational policies or to environmental features are omitted. This bias is exacerbated when working with aggregate samples and can produce misleading results (Hanushek, 2003). Here, we estimate panel data fixed effects so as not to omit key environmental and regional variables and to partially capture the unobserved heterogeneity. Specifically, since dependent variables range between 0 and 1, we use a generalized linear model. The analysis also takes into consideration the endogeneity problem that may arise between educational outcomes and instruments.

Our results show that educational expenditure per pupil, class size, and pupil-teacher ratio have the expected results on student failure rates: higher levels of educational expenditure per pupil, lower class size, and lower pupil-teacher ratios reduce rates of dropout and early school-leaving. However, the magnitude of the effects of these variables is small at the average level.

The paper is structured as follows. The following section describes the effect of the decentralization process on the provision of education in Spain. Section 2 presents the data and Section 3 describes the econometric strategy used in the empirical analysis. Section 4 shows the main findings, and the final section contains the conclusions.

## 1. Decentralization and the regional provision of education in Spain

We conduct our analysis at regional level in order to identify differences in school failure rates from region to region but, more importantly, we choose this level because part of the responsibility for education in Spain was gradually transferred from central to regional governments during the period under analysis (1992-2003). Although there is a common legal framework for the whole country, AC governments legislate on certain educational matters. In addition, regional governments administer most of the educational budget: between 1992 and 2003, the proportion of expenditure managed by regional government rose from $60.2 \%$ to $95.4 \%$ (MEC, 2006b).

This high degree of decentralization occurred not only in education but in most social policies as well. Responsibility for the administration of social issues has been gradually transferred to the regional governments [see Arze, MartinezVazquez and McNab (2005)]. However, the process has been very uneven, with some AC governments taking charge of social policies at the beginning of the 1980s while others had to wait until the end of the 1990s. In the case of education, of the 17 ACs , only seven (Andalusia, Canary Islands, Catalonia, Valencia, Galicia, Navarre and the Basque Country) had some responsibility for education in the 1980s whilst, for the remaining ACs, responsibility in this area was transferred from the central government (specifically from the Ministry of Education and Science) between 1997 and 1999 (the dates of the transfer of responsibilities to each AC government are shown in annex 1).

The differences observed in the process of transferring political responsibilities to ACs can be attributed to two factors: the political relationship between the central and regional governments and the differences in the recognition that the Spanish Constitution grants to the various ACs. In fact, ACs can be divided into two types, depending on the route taken to autonomy: on the one hand, those allowed to follow article 151 of the Constitution and the so called Foral Communities, which were granted powers over areas such as education and health; and, on the other, ACs covered by article 143 of the Constitution, in which the transfer levels are lower (see annex 1). Nevertheless, in an ongoing process, 'article 143ACs' have also assumed responsibilities related to health and education [Pereyra (2002)] for a comprehensive discussion of the evolution of the process of decentralization with regard to education.

Finally, in educational provision, it has to be taken into account that there are two constraints operating at the regional level: the existence of limited resources and the welfare decisions of regional governments when allocating spending. With regard to the first point, while there has been a considerable degree of decentralization in public spending in Spain (comparable to countries with a longstanding federal tradition), the level of decentralization in relation to revenues has been significantly lower. In 1980, the central government received $88.9 \%$ of total public revenue and the ACs received none (the rest being administered by local authorities). By 2003, the central government's share had fallen to $66.3 \%$ and the ACs' share had risen to $23.3 \%$. In relation to expenditure, the central public sector accounted for $89.5 \%$ of all expenditure in 1980, but only $54.6 \%$ in 2003 ; over this period, the proportion of regional government expenditure increased from $0 \%$ to $32.1 \%$. Therefore, there has been a major asymmetry between the decentralization of expenditure and that of revenue.

## 2. Regional data

Annual regional data correspond to the last decade available (1992-2003). Table 1 presents the details concerning the definitions and sources of the variables that are used in the article, and Table 2 contains descriptive statistics for the overall variables. We consider two endogenous variables: the school dropout rate at age 16 (defined as one minus the net share of schooling at that age), and the share of early school-leavers at age 18-24 (defined as the population aged between 18 and 24 with no more than lower secondary education and is not in schooling or training, which constitutes one of the 2010 Lisbon Objectives of the European Union in education and training).

Average regional figures show that dropout and early school-leaver rates fell for both sexes during the period considered (see Figures 1 and 2). These figures also show a strong heterogeneous regional pattern for both rates and the tendency. In addition, within each AC, gender differences are observed in school dropout and early school-leaver rates. Note that there is a highly significant correlation between dropout and early school-leavers rates ( 0.84 for men and 0.85 for women).

|  | Table 1: Definition and source of the variables and instruments |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Variables | Definition | Source |
| School dropout rate at age 16 | One minus the net share of <br> schooling at age 16 | Statistical yearbooks. Spanish Ministry <br> of Education and Science (MEC), <br> (www.mec.es) |
| Share of early school-leavers <br> at age 18-24 | Share of 18-24 year old population <br> that has not completed higher secondary <br> education and is not in schooling or <br> training | Statistical yearbooks. Spanish Ministry <br> of Education and Science (MEC), <br> (www.mec.es) |
| Deflated overall non-university <br> expenditure per pupil | Non-university public and private educational <br> expenditure in each region / regional <br> non-university students in public and private <br> schools (in 1992 thousand Euros base) | Public expenditure and public and private <br> pupils: Statistical yearbooks. Spanish <br> Ministry of Education and Science (MEC), <br> (www.mec.es) and General State Comptroller <br> (IGAE); Private expenditure: Spanish |
| National Institute of Statistics (Continuous |  |  |

Source: Own elaboration.

| Table 1: DEFINITION AND SOURCE OF THE VARIABLES AND INSTRUMENTS (continuación) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Variables | Definition | Source |
| Share of public educational <br> attendance | Share of pupils enrolled in public <br> educational institutions in non-university <br> education | Statistical yearbooks. Spanish MEC <br> (www.mec.es) |
| Average schooling years | Average schooling years of working-age <br> population | Institut Valencià d'Investigacions <br> Econòmiques (IVIE) www.ivie.es |
| Immigration schooling rates | Percentage of non-university pupils born <br> abroad in public and private schools | Spanish National Institute of Statistics <br> (www.ine.es) |
| Fertility rates for girls | Fertility rates (x1000 women) for girls of <br> between 15 and 19 | Spanish National Institute of Statistics <br> (www.ine.es) |
| Share of rural students | Percentage of students in non-university <br> education in towns of up to 10,000 inhabitants | Statistical yearbooks. Spanish MEC <br> (www.mec.es) and interpolated data for <br> the 1992-95 period |
| Population density | Number of inhabitants per square kilometre | Spanish National Institute of Statistics <br> (www.ine.es) |
| Share of students with grants | Regional percentage of students with grants <br> in non-university education | Statistical yearbooks. Spanish MEC <br> (www.mec.es) |

[^1]Table 2: Descriptive statistics: 1992 vs. 2003

|  | Variables | 1992 | 2003 |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Endogenous | Male dropout rates | $0.240(0.088)$ | $0.138(0.056)$ |
| variables | Female dropout rates | $0.178(0.072)$ | $0.080(0.040)$ |
|  | Early male school-leavers | $0.451(0.080)$ | $0.363(0.088)$ |
|  | Early female school-leavers | $0.350(0.093)$ | $0.234(0.071)$ |
| Covariates | Deflated overall | $1.904(0.352)$ | $3.420(0.702)$ |
|  | expenditure per pupil |  |  |
|  | Class-size | $27.630(1.376)$ | $24.207(1.682)$ |
|  | Pupil-teacher ratio | $17.394(1.278)$ | $11.665(1.052)$ |
|  | Young male unemployment rates | $31.331(14.38)$ | $25.49(8.136)$ |
|  | Young female unemployment | $45.202(10.380)$ | $41.679(9.109)$ |
|  | rates |  |  |
|  | Share of public educational | $67.506(10.284)$ | $67.524(9.059)$ |
|  | attendance |  |  |
|  | Average schooling years | $7.14(0.631)$ | $8.76(0.402)$ |
|  | Immigration schooling rates | $0.462(0.357)$ | $5.675(2.998)$ |
|  | Fertility rates for girls aged 15-19 | $9.817(4.353)$ | $9.934(3.767)$ |

Note: standard deviation reported in parentheses.
Source: Own elaboration.

The educational instruments evaluated are overall non-university educational expenditure per pupil, class size, and pupil-teacher ratio. Expenditure is deflated by means of the regional educational inflation rate and includes public spending on public and private non-university institutions by all levels of government (central, regional and local) as well as family educational expenditure on non-university levels. Pupils comprise students at public and private schools. We obtained the statistics on the central government's expenditure on education in the regions in which education had not yet been transferred to the AC governments from the General State Comptroller - the Intervención General de la Administración del Estado, IGAE (see annex 2).

Class size is defined as the average number of students per educational unit in lower secondary education (named ESO, Educación Secundaria Obligatoria). The pupil-teacher ratio reflects the average number of students per teacher in primary and secondary education (there are no regional data available for secondary education alone). Both variables include public and private schools. Though the two variables do not address the same inputs, given that class size considers classroom inputs other than just the number of teachers [Boozer and Rouse (2001)], they are included as alternative factors in the estimations because, when computing the condition number, collinearity is observed (see Section 3).

## Figure 1



Source: Own elaboration.

Figure 3 shows the different position of each AC with regards to the three educational policy instruments indicated above. The significant differences observed between ACs for each instrument may be important when considering educational policy implementation from a regional perspective.

In an international comparison, and related to secondary education for the 2003-2004 school year, the educational policy instruments show the following figures. With regard to overall expenditure per pupil (at educational institutions for all services) Spain allocated 6,418 US $\$$ (in Purchasing Power Parities) whilst the average of all OECD countries was 6,962 US\$. Considering class size (in lower secondary school), the figure is 25 students per group in Spain (the highest in the European Union, alongside Germany and Greece) compared with an OECD average of 24 . Finally, there were 10.8 pupils per teacher in Spain compared with an OECD average of 13.6 [see MEC (2006a)].

In the case of exogenous control variables, various factors are taken into consideration at regional level. First, since it is well known that the characteristics of the labour market are relevant in school failure rates, we include the following variables in our study: youth unemployment rates and the regional educational level. In the former, unemployment may be related to lower levels of school dropout

Figure 2


Source: Own elaboration.
since the opportunity cost of remaining at school is reduced. Because unemployment levels are different for men and women, we consider them separately as well as in lagged terms, since simultaneity may appear between dropout and unemployment. Regional educational level is considered since more educated societies are expected to have a higher interest in reducing school dropout. It is calculated from the average years of schooling of the working-age population.

Second, we consider variables related to the personal and family environment which may have an influence on the dependent variables, such as the regional fertility rates for 15-19-year-old women and the average number of children per woman. Both variables are expected to increase school dropout (especially that of women). Finally, we include two variables related to the school system: the regional share of pupils attending public schools (public schools do not include private public funded or "concerted" schools) and the percentage of immigrants at private and public schools. The first variable allows us to include a measure of a household's educational preferences as well as the financial sacrifice involved. In fact, strong regional heterogeneity in public/private school attendance is observed: while three regions (Catalonia, Madrid and the Basque Country) show private school attendance rates of higher than $40 \%$, most regions present

Figure 3


Source: Own elaboration.
shares lower than $34 \%$. Similarly, this variable reflects differential features in the organization of teaching (such as diverse pupil-teacher ratios). The percentage of immigrants at school provides information on educational demand derived from diverse proportions of foreign students at the regional level (migration between regions is not considered, since regional mobility between students is insignificant).

## 3. Econometric strategy

We should consider that preferences are not equal for Spanish regional governments, since differences in income per capita levels or other covariates may be a proxy of differences in public goods preferences [Oates (1972)]. In order to partially control the unobserved heterogeneity in the regional environment, we need to include fixed effects [Besley and Case (2000)]. Moreover, preferences might change over time [Strumpf and Oberholzer-Gee (2002)] and, therefore, panel data is needed. Finally, we also consider time dummies to capture trend changes. As a consequence, here we estimate panel data with fixed and time effects.

However, the empirical analysis must also consider the presence of endogeneity because of i) reverse causality and ii) the fact that factors may be endogenously determined. On one hand, educational policy instruments may reflect initial regional differences in educational outcomes. On the other hand, according to Besley and Case (2000), this involves identifying the determinants of the policies that are included on the right hand side of the regressions. Therefore, in the presence of endogeneity, the estimated effects for educational policy instruments may be misleading. For this reason, we use instrumental variables (IV). This strategy obliges us first to check the endogeneity of all educational policies by means of the David-son-Mackinnon test. The null hypothesis states that the OLS estimator would yield consistent estimates. Then, the rejection of the null hypothesis indicates that the endogenous regressors' effects on the estimates are meaningful. This is particularly important because there is evidence that IV provides a less efficient estimation than OLS when exogeneity is common. The instruments used for expenditure per pupil are per capita regional resources (defined as total regional government financial resources in per capita terms considering homogeneous responsibilities ${ }^{1}$ ) and the regional share of people receiving grants, since both instruments are related to expenditure. The instruments used for class size and pupil-teacher ratio are the share of students in rural schools and regional population density. The Davidson-

[^2]Mackinnon test does not reject the exogeneity assumption for all educational policy variables. Hence, IV estimation is not finally considered.

Our final econometric model is shown in equation [1]. $Y_{i, t}$ represents the regional educational outcomes: school dropout rates at age 16, and share of early schoolleavers between ages 18-24. $E_{i, t}$ are the educational policy instruments (overall nonuniversity educational expenditure per pupil, class size and pupil-teacher ratio), $V_{i, t}$ is the regional demand for public education (the share of students enrolled in public schools), and $X_{i, t}$ denotes the region's environmental characteristics (including family and school as well as the labour market). The dependent variables are considered separately for gender, since significant differences are observed. For Spain, the average dropout rate for males is 5.3 percentage points higher than for females ( $17.9 \%$ vs. $12.6 \%$, and in the case of early school-leavers $38.2 \%$ vs. $27 \%$, respectively). We follow the method proposed by Papke and Wooldridge (1996) who show that the Quasi Maximum Likelihood Estimator (QMLE) is a better alternative when the dependent variable is, as in our case, a fractional value. These authors propose a generalized linear model (GLM) for estimating the expected values of dependent variables $\left(Y_{i, t}\right)$ conditional on a vector of covariates, where $G$ is any cumulative distribution function and the $\beta \mathrm{s}$ are the population parameters:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left(Y_{i, t} / E_{i, t}, V_{i, t}, X_{i, t}\right)=G\left(E_{i, t} \beta_{1}, V_{i, t} \beta_{2}, X_{i, t} \beta_{3}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Papke and Wooldridge (1996) recommend a logistic distribution and the use of the Bernoulli log-likelihood function to obtain the QMLE of the $\beta s$. Thus, the best course of action is to estimate using a GLM with a binomial exponential distribution and a logit as the link function for linearizing. We also consider robust standard errors and regional dummies to collect unobserved regional heterogeneity (fixed effects). Previously, we also test the preference of considering fixed effects rather than random ones by means of the Hausman test ( $\chi^{2}=75.47, \mathrm{p}>\chi^{2}=0.00$ ). Likewise, there is multicollinearity when educational policy variables are introduced at the same time since correlations are considerably high (expenditure correlates -0.57 with class size and -0.70 with pupil-teacher ratio, whereas the correlation between class size and pupil-teacher ratio is 0.79 ). For efficiency reasons, we introduce them separately into our estimates. Following Borland, Howsen and Trawick (2005), we test several relationships between educational instruments $\left(E_{i, t}\right)$ and school failure rates to avoid the use of an incorrect functional form. We include the squared values of expenditure per pupil, class-size and pupil-teacher ratio but none of them were statistically significant.

Furthermore, in the empirical analysis we consider a dummy variable for each AC related to the LOGSE (the 1990 Spanish Education Act named Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo). We do not consider the year when LOGSE was implemented, but when its effects were observed (when students educated in the LOGSE system reached 16 years old). These dummy variables are included in the analysis of school dropout at age 16 but not for early school leavers aged 18-24 since the implementation of LOGSE is not relevant.

Finally, we consider other covariates such as the regional population density, regional crime rates, the share of women teachers in each region and dummies in-
dicating the leading party in each regional government. None of these additional variables are statistically significant and the results are robust to their omission (results available upon request). As a consequence of the reduced panel dimension, and to avoid either inefficiency effects arising from the inclusion of irrelevant variables or multicollinearity, we exclude all these additional covariates.

## 4. Empirical findings

Table 3 shows the results for school dropout rates at age 16, and Table 4 shows those for early school-leavers between ages 18-24. Both tables include computations of marginal effects at the average value of each variable.

If we consider the effects of educational policies related to attention to pupils on school failure rates, we find that the pupil-teacher ratio increases school dropout in both female and male students. The same effect is observed for class size but only for females. Thus, the larger the class size or the pupil-teacher ratio, the greater the percentage of students who drop out. The same effects are also observed on the rate of early school-leavers for the pupil-teacher ratio whereas class size turns out to be not statistically significant in any regression. As regards the effects of educational expenditure per pupil, we observe that the higher the expenditure, the lower the dropout rate among male and female pupils and the lower the share of male and female early school-leavers.

Therefore, all educational policy variables show the expected results, since higher levels of educational expenditure per pupil, and lower levels of class size and pupil-teacher ratios, reduce rates of dropout and early school-leaving (with the exception of class size in some regressions where it is not statistically significant). However, results in Tables 3 and 4 show that the magnitude of these effects is small. For example, with respect to school dropout, an additional thousand Euros per pupil, which represents an increase of around $29 \%$ of 2003 deflated expenditure, would reduce the female dropout rate by $2.5 \%$ (for males the figure is $3.1 \%$ ). Likewise, a reduction of 1 pupil per class ( $4.2 \%$ in relative terms for 2003) would lead to a decrease of $0.5 \%$ in female dropout. In addition, a decrease of 1 pupil per teacher ( $8.5 \%$ ) diminishes both female and male dropout rates by $1.5 \%$. As indicated, results show the small magnitude of the effects although comparisons between the three educational policies are not possible since the cost of the educational policies related to class size and pupil-teacher ratio are not available.

In addition to the effects of educational policy instruments, we briefly consider the impact of regional environmental characteristics by including variables related to school, labour market and family variables. Taking the school variables first, the number of immigrant students is related to higher dropout rates among female students. Moreover, the higher the percentage of students attending public schools, the higher the rates of male and female dropout. The effects of these two variables on school failure could be related to the lower average socioeconomic level of immigrant students and those attending public schools. As in Peraita and Pastor (2000) and Petrongolo and San Segundo (2002), regional labour market features are significant, especially in dropout rates. We observe a negative relationship between youth unemployment rates and the school dropout rate for all stu-

|  | Table 3: REGIONAL DROPOUT RATES: QMLE ESTIMATIONS, MARGINAL EFFECTS |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

$a, b$ and c denote significance at 1,5 and $10 \%$, respectively. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. All estimations include fixed effects (regional dummies) and dummies corresponding to peaks for LOGSE appliance.
Source: Own elaboration.

dents. This variable only has negative effects on female early school-leavers. Likewise, the average years of schooling of the working-age population correlate negatively with male and female dropout and with male and female early schoolleavers. Finally, regarding the family environmental variables, the average number of children per women increases female dropout rates whereas fertility rates for girls aged 15-19 correlate positively with the female school-leavers rate.

We also introduce a dummy denoting the years in which education was the responsibility of the central government (MEC, Ministery of Education) and regional expenditure. The interaction of this dummy variable with expenditure per pupil allows us to capture the effects derived from decentralizing educational responsibilities. Since this dummy variable (and the interaction) is not statistically significant, we conclude that decentralization had neither a positive or a negative effect on school failure rates (results available upon request). However, we should note that these results only apply to the period considered (1992-2003) and nothing can be said with regard to the overall Spanish decentralization process. Further research is required in order to reach firm conclusions on this issue.

## 5. Conclusions

In this paper, we examine the effects of three educational policy instruments (overall expenditure per pupil, class size and pupil-teacher ratio) on two educational outcomes related to academic failure in schools: regional dropout rates at the end of compulsory education (at age 16), and the share of early school-leavers in the 18-24 year age group.

The results show that expenditure per pupil and pupil-teacher ratio influence school dropout in both female and male students: the larger the expenditure per pupil or the lower the pupil-teacher ratio, the lower the percentage of students who drop out. The same effects are observed in the case of early school-leavers. As regards class-size, it correlates positively with dropout rates only for female students. Therefore, we find that the three educational policy instruments considered (with some exceptions for class-size) reduce failure rates in the Spanish education system (especially when dropping out is considered).

Nevertheless, in accordance with most studies at a regional level for the USA, results also show that the magnitude of these effects is very small [see Hanushek (2003)]. Thus, they lead us to conclude that the educational policy instruments considered may be useful to reduce school dropout and early school-leaving although not significantly. Concerning expenditure, ACs also have to consider whether most of the increase has to be public or private according to political preferences.

Finally, it can be pointed out that further research is needed to determine the best policies to reduce school failure rates. This would mean computing the cost of class size and pupil-teacher rate reductions and analyzing other policies focused on school and class management as well as on school choice and admission. In addition, studies with microdata are also needed to evaluate all these policies.

Annex 1: Educational transfer process

| Autonomous Communities | Year of transference |
| :--- | :---: |
| Foral regime |  |
| Basque Country | 1980 |
| Navarre | 1990 |
| Article 151 |  |
| Andalusia | 1982 |
| Canary Islands | 1983 |
| Catalonia | 1980 |
| Galicia | 1982 |
| Valencia | 1983 |
| Article 143 |  |
| Aragon | 1998 |
| Asturias | 1999 |
| Balearic Islands | 1997 |
| Cantabria | 1998 |
| Castile-Leon | 1999 |
| Castile-La Mancha | 1999 |
| Extremadura | 1999 |
| Madrid | 1999 |
| Murcia | 1999 |
| Rioja | 1998 |

Source: Own elaboration.

Annex 2: Central government expenditure at the regional level
The Ministry of Education provides data for its expenditure in the ACs that it still administers (that is, where responsibility for education has not been transferred to the regional government). However, these data refer to the whole territory administered by this Ministry, and are not broken down by AC. Therefore, in order to assign educational spending to each region, we used data from the General State Comptroller (IGAE). Specifically, we assigned the educational spending carried out by the Ministry of Education in each region for the following programs:

| 422A | Pre-primary and primary education (Educación infantil y primaria) |
| :--- | :--- |
| 422 C | Secondary and vocational education and official language schools <br> (Educación secundaria, formación profesional y escuelas oficiales de idiomas) |
| 422F | Arts (Enseñanzas artísticas) |
| 422 J | Additional educational support programs (Enseñanza compensatoria) |
| 422 K | Life-long learning and e-learning for non-university levels of education <br> (Educación permanente y a distancia no universitaria) |
| 421B | Teacher training (Formación permanente del profesorado) |
| 422 O | New information and communication technologies applied to education <br> (Nuevas tecnologías aplicadas a la educación) |
| 4 423B | Other educational services (Servicios complementarios a la enseñanza) |
| 423 C | Support to other educational activities (Apoyo a otras actividades escolares) |
| 542G | Educational research (Investigación educativa) |
| 422 E | Education for disabled students (Educación especial) |

Source: Own elaboration.

As the table shows, the central government's education expenditure covers all programs related to non-university education if these programs are already offered (per region) by the Ministry of Education. Both direct expenditure on preprimary and primary education (422A) and secondary and vocational and language education (422C), which represent about $90 \%$ of non-university expenditure, are taken into account, as well as the remaining programs such as the funding of teacher training, out-of-school activities, and complementary services. We think that these programs promote higher quality education and, therefore, must be considered. In fact, international studies also include programs of this kind.

We also took into consideration educational expenses incurred by the body responsible for investments in schools (Junta de Construcciones, Instalaciones y Equipo Escolar). In the ACs in which the regional government has responsibility for the educational system, expenditure from the MEC was negligible and was, therefore, not considered.

Expenditure on all programs included in the analysis is territorially distributed by AC to a large extent (above $80 \%$ depending on each program and year). Within nonterritorialized expenditure, in most of the programs (such as pre-primary, primary, secondary, professional education, official language schools and education for disabled students), $95 \%$ of the expenditure is classified under "various regions", which contains subsidies to private ('concerted') schools. This expenditure has been imputed to each AC depending on the number of students in publicly funded or 'concerted' schools. The figures for other non-regionalized expenditure have not been divided by AC since they refer to expenditure on central services or expenditure abroad.

IGAE data are for the 1992-96 period and, therefore, for 1997-98, interpolation was needed. This does not create problems because MEC public expenditure is very stable in all ACs. Table A.2.1 shows data used from the IGAE referring to central government expenditure on non-university education in each region. Table A.2.2 contains the expenditure of the regional governments and Table A.2.3 that of the local governments. The final table, A.2.4, contains total public expenditure on nonuniversity education in each region considering all levels of government. The values are the result of adding the figures in Tables A.2.1.A.2.2 and A.2.3.

| (thousands of Euros) | ) 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Andalusia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Aragon | 258,022 | 295,452 | 316,384 | 318,700 | 342,196 | 371,303 | 402,885 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Asturias | 270,581 | 292,302 | 307,649 | 318,198 | 339,261 | 358,267 | 378,339 | 399,535 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Balearic Islands | 144,980 | 168,514 | 176,431 | 183,848 | 201,098 | 225,207 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Canary Islands | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Cantabria | 120,754 | 140,619 | 150,056 | 151,390 | 162,180 | 178,193 | 195,788 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Castile-Leon | 616,925 | 693,038 | 749,774 | 755,460 | 811,756 | 869,955 | 932,325 | 999,168 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Castile-La-Mancha | 415,550 | 448,477 | 483,230 | 495,209 | 539,077 | 589,530 | 644,706 | 705,045 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Catalonia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Valencia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Extremadura | 260,318 | 283,189 | 310,051 | 324,030 | 347,971 | 375,667 | 405,567 | 437,846 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Galicia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Madrid | 1,343,824 | 1,195,549 | 1,295,836 | 1,271,911 | 1,357,394 | 1,514,783 | 1,690,422 | 943,213 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Murcia | 273,208 | 301,192 | 323,159 | 334,624 | 365,897 | 405,750 | 449,943 | 249,475 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Navarre | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Basque Country | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Rioja | 59,030 | 68,471 | 76,265 | 75,458 | 83,858 | 88,662 | 93,742 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 3,763,193 | 3,886,802 | 4,188,835 | 4,228,828 | 4,550,687 | 4,977,317 | 5,193,716 | 3,734,282 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

[^3]|  | Table A.2.2: Public expenditure in non-university education of | Autonomous Communities |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (thousands of Euros) | 1992 |  | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 |
| Andalusia | $2,167,507$ | $2,169,943$ | $2,226,970$ | $2,370,345$ | $2,502,982$ | $2,547,429$ | $2,694,629$ |
| Aragon | 0 | 835 | 6,257 | 10,980 | 12,621 | 83,809 | 88,382 |
| Asturias | 0 | 3,961 | 4,255 | 6,539 | 71,967 | 81,237 | 98,074 |
| Balearic Islands | 0 | 2,542 | 3,624 | 5,319 | 2,675 | 29,613 | 252,206 |
| Canary Islands | 616,421 | 628,401 | 674,170 | 747,973 | 809,047 | 832,190 | 877,928 |
| Cantabria | 0 | 2,037 | 2,037 | 3,402 | 5,259 | 35,545 | 38,771 |
| Castile-Leon | 0 | 487 | 1,569 | 1,725 | 195,990 | 212,323 | 215,908 |
| Castile-La-Mancha | 0 | 13,324 | 12,651 | 19,100 | 26,955 | 74,517 | 72,528 |
| Catalonia | $1,508,195$ | $1,664,139$ | $1,689,914$ | $1,743,875$ | $1,853,480$ | $2,029,454$ | $2,114,026$ |
| Valencia | $1,007,035$ | $1,075,362$ | $1,130,736$ | $1,159,118$ | $1,236,615$ | $1,298,924$ | $1,410,721$ |
| Extremadura | 0 | 0 | 10,854 | 14,028 | 63,978 | 63,980 | 74,771 |
| Galicia | 801,794 | 862,955 | 914,099 | 935,422 | 978,603 | $1,035,368$ | $1,128,581$ |
| Madrid | 0 | 101,102 | 97,875 | 137,103 | 586,155 | 596,290 | 716,343 |
| Murcia | 0 | 9,214 | 8,024 | 7,603 | 61,093 | 66,070 | 72,981 |
| Navarre | 192,465 | 206,344 | 213,420 | 227,217 | 246,426 | 261,124 | 271,300 |
| Basque Country | 763,407 | 853,990 | 860,674 | 926,669 | 978,693 | $1,023,481$ | $1,091,118$ |
| Rioja | 0 | 0 | 0 | 889 | 2,819 | 15,838 | 17,766 |
| Total | $7,056,824$ | $7,594,637$ | $7,857,129$ | $8,317,307$ | $9,635,358$ | $10,287,193$ | $11,236,032$ |

Source: Ministry of Education for ACs where educational policy has been transferred and Ministry of Economics and Public Finance for ACs without transferred responsibilities.

| Table A.2.2: Public expenditure in non-university education of Autonomous Communities (continuation) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (thousands of Euros) | 1999 |  | 2000 |  | 2001 |  |

Source: Ministry of Education for ACs where educational policy has been transferred and Ministry of Economics and Public Finance for ACs without transferred responsibilities.

|  | Table A.2.3: PUBLIC EXPENDITURE IN NON-UNIVERSITY EDUCATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (thousands of Euros) | 1992 |  | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 |
| Andalusia | 112,672 | 104,011 | 146,797 | 110,292 | 114,841 | 113,014 | 145,577 |
| Aragon | 20,440 | 19,118 | 23,067 | 23,962 | 25,711 | 25,507 | 23,283 |
| Asturias | 11,083 | 18,193 | 21,468 | 20,759 | 20,206 | 20,633 | 23,121 |
| Balearic Islands | 15,061 | 12,405 | 16,029 | 17,357 | 16,035 | 22,081 | 22,754 |
| Canary Islands | 42,714 | 38,970 | 47,191 | 45,028 | 47,252 | 52,078 | 50,725 |
| Cantabria | 6,455 | 7,609 | 9,827 | 9,370 | 7,350 | 8,775 | 13,054 |
| Castile-Leon | 42,858 | 45,479 | 46,242 | 43,603 | 46,596 | 46,506 | 44,709 |
| Castile-La-Mancha | 25,243 | 29,708 | 32,322 | 36,499 | 32,028 | 36,283 | 38,765 |
| Catalonia | 254,330 | 254,565 | 249,053 | 317,665 | 261,867 | 295,163 | 307,658 |
| Valencia | 83,805 | 85,728 | 87,820 | 86,414 | 98,452 | 108,909 | 117,961 |
| Extremadura | 22,418 | 21,588 | 21,318 | 19,689 | 21,120 | 24,876 | 20,170 |
| Galicia | 58,286 | 46,945 | 48,039 | 48,412 | 51,561 | 49,626 | 55,882 |
| Madrid | 108,495 | 97,094 | 114,950 | 106,728 | 94,780 | 116,134 | 89,010 |
| Murcia | 28,230 | 23,241 | 26,234 | 28,308 | 27,022 | 31,259 | 36,307 |
| Navarre | 11,960 | 16,149 | 17,261 | 21,366 | 19,250 | 20,597 | 21,937 |
| Basque Country | 62,830 | 90,344 | 95,465 | 63,545 | 70,775 | 71,821 | 61,712 |
| Rioja | 2,819 | 2,957 | 2,981 | 3,185 | 2,999 | 4,598 | 3,179 |
| Total | 909,698 | 914,103 | $1,006,064$ | $1,002,182$ | 957,845 | $1,047,859$ | $1,075,806$ |

Source: Ministry of Public Finance; Budgets and budget outlay data of local governments.

| Table A.2.3: Public EXPENDITURE IN NON-UNIVERSITY EDUCATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS (continuation) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (thousands of Euros) | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
| Andalusia | 230,128 | 171,914 | 216,821 | 228,096 | 236,182 | 259,331 |
| Aragon | 24,305 | 21,823 | 28,999 | 29,842 | 28,284 | 35,130 |
| Asturias | 26,126 | 23,716 | 27,562 | 28,684 | 32,509 | 33,350 |
| Balearic Islands | 26,078 | 27,310 | 33,524 | 50,062 | 54,845 | 47,958 |
| Canary Islands | 56,056 | 54,157 | 66,406 | 69,445 | 74,205 | 81,882 |
| Cantabria | 10,542 | 11,407 | 9,923 | 13,371 | 13,107 | 12,791 |
| Castile-Leon | 46,032 | 41,806 | 44,962 | 48,509 | 52,816 | 63,729 |
| Castile-La-Mancha | 40,664 | 38,230 | 62,962 | 57,901 | 57,462 | 66,365 |
| Catalonia | 295,145 | 315,658 | 343,382 | 387,010 | 423,489 | 504,458 |
| Valencia | 134,543 | 128,340 | 143,504 | 169,327 | 182,047 | 178,159 |
| Extremadura | 21,853 | 19,040 | 24,185 | 23,848 | 29,390 | 29,662 |
| Galicia | 59,590 | 57,469 | 61,670 | 71,498 | 79,367 | 77,547 |
| Madrid | 144,051 | 156,810 | 168,854 | 190,736 | 215,490 | 264,258 |
| Murcia | 34,264 | 34,270 | 38,759 | 40,133 | 46,346 | 47,629 |
| Navarre | 24,419 | 29,083 | 33,332 | 43,026 | 46,055 | 57,376 |
| Basque Country | 73,900 | 78,264 | 88,806 | 76,662 | 95,488 | 106,062 |
| Rioja | 3,696 | 2,777 | 5,211 | 6,212 | 5,255 | 7,849 |
| Total | $1,251,391$ | $1,212,073$ | $1,398,856$ | $1,523,593$ | $1,672,337$ | $1,873,537$ |

Source: Ministry of Public Finance; Budgets and budget outlay data of local governments.

| Table A.2.4: Public expenditure in non-university education of all governments |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (thousands of Euros) | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 |
| Andalusia | 2,280,179 | 2,273,954 | 2,373,767 | 2,480,637 | 2,617,823 | 2,660,443 | 2,840,206 |
| Aragon | 278,462 | 315,406 | 345,707 | 353,643 | 380,529 | 480,619 | 514,550 |
| Asturias | 281,664 | 314,456 | 333,372 | 345,496 | 431,434 | 460,137 | 499,534 |
| Balearic Islands | 160,041 | 183,461 | 196,084 | 206,525 | 219,807 | 276,901 | 274,960 |
| Canary Islands | 659,135 | 667,371 | 721,361 | 793,001 | 856,299 | 884,268 | 928,653 |
| Cantabria | 127,209 | 150,265 | 161,920 | 164,161 | 174,789 | 222,513 | 247,613 |
| Castile-Leon | 659,783 | 739,003 | 797,585 | 800,788 | 1,054,343 | 1,128,784 | 1,192,942 |
| Castile-La-Mancha | 440,793 | 491,509 | 528,203 | 550,808 | 598,060 | 700,330 | 755,999 |
| Catalonia | 1,762,525 | 1,918,704 | 1,938,967 | 2,061,540 | 2,115,347 | 2,324,617 | 2,421,684 |
| Valencia | 1,090,840 | 1,161,090 | 1,218,556 | 1,245,532 | 1,335,067 | 1,407,833 | 1,528,682 |
| Extremadura | 282,736 | 304,778 | 342,223 | 357,746 | 433,069 | 464,523 | 500,508 |
| Galicia | 860,080 | 909,900 | 962,138 | 983,834 | 1,030,164 | 1,084,994 | 1,184,463 |
| Madrid | 1,452,319 | 1,393,745 | 1,508,660 | 1,515,741 | 2,038,328 | 2,227,207 | 2,495,774 |
| Murcia | 301,438 | 333,647 | 357,416 | 370,535 | 454,011 | 503,078 | 559,231 |
| Navarre | 204,425 | 222,493 | 230,681 | 248,583 | 265,676 | 281,721 | 293,237 |
| Basque Country | 826,237 | 944,334 | 956,139 | 990,214 | 1,049,468 | 1,095,302 | 1,152,830 |
| Rioja | 61,849 | 71,428 | 79,246 | 79,533 | 89,676 | 109,098 | 114,687 |
| Total | 11,729,714 | 12,395,543 | 13,052,028 | 13,548,316 | 15,143,890 | 16,312,368 | 17,505,554 |

[^4]| (thousands of Euros) | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Andalusia | 3,088,619 | 3,216,229 | 3,449,804 | 3,706,900 | 3,922,096 | 4,247,366 |
| Aragon | 461,459 | 510,766 | 548,098 | 597,868 | 617,780 | 661,182 |
| Asturias | 523,735 | 445,634 | 484,627 | 518,007 | 539,083 | 552,654 |
| Balearic Islands | 343,611 | 372,225 | 430,130 | 491,665 | 537,796 | 574,631 |
| Canary Islands | 1,047,263 | 1,029,352 | 1,072,684 | 1,106,148 | 1,158,017 | 1,233,218 |
| Cantabria | 225,662 | 246,431 | 244,424 | 260,751 | 265,664 | 311,806 |
| Castile-Leon | 1,285,425 | 1,112,609 | 1,204,294 | 1,301,221 | 1,367,489 | 1,420,913 |
| Castile-La-Mancha | 827,947 | 809,262 | 944,178 | 1,095,257 | 1,127,393 | 1,214,760 |
| Catalonia | 2,571,376 | 2,713,389 | 2,842,068 | 3,185,445 | 3,457,959 | 3,870,215 |
| Valencia | 1,701,317 | 1,827,135 | 1,987,652 | 2,215,732 | 2,404,488 | 2,551,773 |
| Extremadura | 537,566 | 491,735 | 590,670 | 686,835 | 667,916 | 698,783 |
| Galicia | 1,254,169 | 1,265,331 | 1,300,833 | 1,429,278 | 1,474,113 | 1,519,565 |
| Madrid | 2,030,477 | 2,036,808 | 2,237,346 | 2,462,964 | 2,670,510 | 2,912,585 |
| Murcia | 533,214 | 567,448 | 614,041 | 666,614 | 716,526 | 748,007 |
| Navarre | 308,332 | 335,605 | 364,219 | 393,130 | 423,515 | 461,212 |
| Basque Country | 1,307,945 | 1,318,643 | 1,443,446 | 1,521,903 | 1,627,449 | 1,695,332 |
| Rioja | 102,808 | 120,041 | 133,131 | 140,483 | 150,444 | 162,802 |
| Total | 18,150,925 | 18,418,642 | 19,891,645 | 21,780,201 | 23,128,237 | 24,836,805 |

Source: Own elaboration.

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## RESUMEN

El artículo presenta un análisis regional de los efectos de determinadas políticas educativas, aplicadas en España entre 1992 y 2003, sobre el fracaso escolar. En concreto se considera el impacto del gasto por alumno, el tamaño de la clase y la relación de alumnos por profesor sobre las tasas de fracaso al final de la educación obligatoria y sobre la proporción de abandono temprano a la edad de 18-24 años. Nuestros resultados indican que un mayor nivel de gasto educativo por alumno y un menor tamaño de clase y de la relación profesor-alumno reducen la tasa de fracaso escolar y el abandono temprano (aunque el tamaño de la clase no resulta siempre estadísticamente significativo). Sin embargo, la magnitud de los efectos de estas variables es pequeña en el nivel medio.
Palabras clave: fracaso escolar, abandono escolar, política educativa regional.
Clasificación JEL: I22, I28, R50.


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[^1]:    Source: Own elaboration.

[^2]:    (1) This variable is an index where the Spanish average equals 100 and all ACs are ordered considering total regional financial resources per capita. It is assumed that all regions are responsible for providing health and social services. For the 1992-97 period, the index is provided by de la Fuente and Vives (2003). For 2002-2004, de la Fuente and Gundín (2008) give information only for non-Foral regions. Thus, we consider the per capita revenue ratio between the Basque Country and Catalonia for 2005 [see de la Fuente (2008)] to compute the revenue for the two Foral ACs. Then, we compute the average revenue per capita for all 17 regions and we obtain the corresponding index where each AC is allocated. For the 1998-2001 period, where data is unavailable, interpolation was needed.

[^3]:    Source: IGAE.

[^4]:    Source: Own elaboration.

